ANGLIA RUSKIN UNIVERSITY

THE NEW FURTHER EDUCATION TEACHER AS AN AGENT OF CHANGE: A CASE STUDY OF INTIAL TEACHER TRAINING IN FURTHER EDUCATION

MICHAEL D. HALL

Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Anglia Ruskin University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Submitted: September 2018

Acknowledgements

Abstract

The training of Further Education teachers has been debated since the incorporation of Further Education colleges in the UK in 1992 but, to date, moves by governments and their agencies to professionalise the FE teaching sector have been unsuccessful. The continuation of a homogenous initial teacher training programme within the FE sector has resulted in this sector failing to respond to the changing needs of society and the complex needs of the new FE teacher. This study explored the FE teacher training programme within one college in the UK. The research questions focussed on four elements: the concept of professionalism in FE teaching, the FE teacher as an agent of change, the changing professional identity of the participants and the ways new FE teachers managed multiple professional identities.

Using a case study approach, twenty-two new FE teachers undertaking the initial teacher training programme participated in the research as they took on their new professional role as FE teachers. The project used mixed methods of data collection including self-completion questionnaires, focus groups, observations and semi-structured interviews.

Thematic content analysis identified that the FE teachers experienced changing and multiple professional identities, from vocational experts to qualified educators, whilst retaining elements of their previous professional identities. Through this process of change, new FE teachers acted as change agents and helped FE students realise their own aspirations.

This research demonstrates that Further Education teaching can be categorised into three distinct areas based on the subjects taught: the vocational teacher, the professional teacher, and the academic teacher. Teachers from each area require a different focus in their initial teacher training. The study identifies the need for different approaches to Further Education initial teacher training for the three areas and offers opportunities to develop distinct teaching qualifications and career pathways whilst capturing the generic sociological aspects of FE teaching.

Key words: Further Education, Multiple Professional Identity, Initial Teacher Training, The Vocational, Professional and Academic Teacher

Table of Contents

Figures and Tables

Chapter Five:

Glossary

Change Agent - A person who champions and leads change within a social group or community of professional practice

DfES - The UK Governments Department for Education and Skills

FENTO - Further Education National Training Organisation

Further Education Teacher - Qualified Teachers and Lecturers practising in the Further Education Sector. (QTLS)

Further Education Sector - Further Education is post-compulsory education at pre-degree level, which may include (the opportunity to take) qualifications also available at the level of compulsory schooling.

Further Education Student - Students studying within a college of Further Education

Student Further Education Teacher - A student teacher who is teaching under the supervision of a qualified teacher in order to qualify for a degree in education

Institute for Learning (IfL) -The professional body representing teachers and trainers practising within the lifelong learning sector

Learning Skills Council (LSC) - The public body responsible for funding Further education in England and Wales

Life Long Learning Sector - Lifelong Learning UK (LLUK), the Sector Skills Council for lifelong learning defines the Lifelong Learning sector as comprising of five key constituencies, or sub-sectors.

• Community learning and development (CLD)

• Further education (FE)

• Higher education (HE)

• Libraries, archives and information services (LAIS)

• Work based learning (WBL)

UK Qualifications and Levels

Entry levels – Basic skills   **E1- E3**

Level One – General Certificate Secondary Education Grades D to G   **L1**

National Vocational Qualifications   **NVQ 1**

Level Two - General Certificate Secondary Education Grades A* to C   **L2**

NVQ 2/3

National Vocational Qualifications

Level Three – Advanced General Certificate Secondary Education Grades A to E

L3

(IB) International Baccalaureate

Levels Four, Five and Six- Bachelor's Degrees (BA, BSc) Also referred to as Higher Education Levels One to Three   **L4,5,6**

HE1, 2, 3

Levels Seven and Eight- Masters Degrees and Doctorates   **L7 and L8**

Abbreviations

NRDC	National Research and Development Centre
FE	Further Education
Ofsted	Office for standards in education
TDA	Teacher Development Agency
UK	United Kingdom
HEFC	Higher Education Funding Council
CPD	Continuous Professional Development

Chapter One: Introduction

This study is about teacher education in the further education (FE) sector, focusing on the behaviours of new FE trainee teachers employed by a large Further and Higher Education College. I am employed by this college as a Senior Tutor and Teaching Staff Mentor.

My interest in teacher education has developed over twelve years of observing new and current teachers at work. I have been fascinated with the concept of the teacher as an agent of change, and the actions and decisions teachers make in helping their students realise their own career aspirations. This research seeks to understand how new FE teachers make sense of their changing professional status, the conditions of their work, and their professional identity and development. Whilst studying the changing conditions, this research also explores the appropriateness of professionalism as a conceptual tool for understanding contemporary educational change.

Introduction to the Research Questions

This research aims to explore the concept of the FE teacher as an agent of change, and seeks to evaluate the appropriateness and validity of the current FE teacher training programme from the point of view of FE teacher trainees. The research questions addressed are:

1. What are the experiences of student FE teachers as they seek to take on their new professional identity in education.
2. Do student FE teachers consider that the current FE Teacher Training programme meets their needs in managing multiple professional identities?
3. Do student FE teachers consciously take the role of change agents for their students?
4. Is the current FE teacher training programme fit for purpose?

This study will also focus on the construction and reflection of the professional identity of new teachers within the context of learning cultures at a college and in response to a range of societal drivers (Avalos 2011). The drivers affecting FE are categorised as political, societal expectations and economic changes within public funding methodologies. The previous coalition government in the United Kingdom claim

they were committed to re-establishing professionalism and professional trust within the teaching profession. John Hayes MP (former Minister for Further Education) stated at the House of Commons:

> "This government will actively remove the burden of excessive bureaucracy, inspection and monitoring regimes instilling trust in the teaching profession."
> (Hayes 2010)

Context and Personal Motivation

My concern for the quality of teacher education was triggered by the results of student satisfaction surveys (at the college where I work) which identified problems with the current process and practices of teacher training in the college. The results from this survey highlighted weaknesses in the quality of teaching and support received by the trainees. Themes from the college surveys are consistent with national student teacher satisfaction results (http://unistats.direct.gov.uk/, 2010) which show that the main concerns and criticisms expressed by trainee teachers are challenging workloads and inappropriate behaviour and attitudes of students. Trainee teachers (who are the participants in this study) claim they are overwhelmed by the challenges of teaching, the associated administrative duties, and the consumer-attitude behaviour of their students. The complexities of teaching roles and the sociological pressures mean that teachers have become responsible agents for societal change.

The idea of new teachers becoming agents of change is problematic as not only do they perceive themselves to be in powerless positions to effect change within their own professional context, but as new teachers they experience difficulty in thinking of themselves as teachers, much less so change agents. Trainee teachers criticise the pedagogic approach and styles of teacher training programmes, claiming it is mechanical in nature and the subject content is irrelevant, which is consistent with the empirical results of this study and HEFC national surveys.

An overarching theme of this study is to examine alternative pedagogic approaches, heavily influenced by the sociological and psychological aspects of teaching and social development. By adopting an etiological approach (recognising the causes of problems) and questioning the participants' experiences of training and professional practice, the challenges new teachers face is recognised and discussed

throughout. The results of this study aim to improve the quality of the training process and to rebrand teacher training to teacher education by offering new and evolving theoretical perspectives of the roles and responsibilities educationalists face. This research topic and questions have arisen from a concern for the quality of teacher training in the FE sector. Since 2001 this sector has been subjected to two significant changes in terms of the training and education of new entrants to the teaching profession. The UK government statutory instruments, the FE teachers' qualifications regulations introduced in 2001, elevated the level of teaching qualifications from level three to levels four and five in an attempt to improve the quality of teaching and learning. The publication of the Leitch Report (*Prosperity for all in the global economy: world-class skills*) in 2006 had significant impact on the philosophy of education and training for FE colleges and the training of new teachers. The strategic focus moved away from general education to one which ensured qualifications met the requirements of a developing economic environment. The strategy attempted to equip the UK workforce with skills fit for global competiveness.

In today's society, all teachers are expected to ensure not only the delivery of core knowledge and skills, but to protect young people throughout their education from societal ills. Society looks to educators to repair faults of modern society and becomes frustrated when changes are slow to come. This study explores the concept that teaching in the FE sector has changed, almost unannounced, over the last ten years. Craig and Fieschi (2007) argue teachers' responsibilities are more diverse than ever before and the profession is developing on several fronts simultaneously. FE teachers are managing course-teaching teams, contributing to the development of the curriculum, managing quality assurance and maintaining demanding teaching commitments. Most FE teachers are increasingly active in shaping and defining their own professional identity and professionalism. Craig and Fieschi (ibid.) also argue that defining teacher professionalism is as much a source of constraint and exhaustion as it is of creativity. They imply that whilst teachers may shape their own sense of professionalism, most feel that they have less control over their work. There are tensions between the day-to-day work and personal investment (discussed in detail in Chapter 5), a tension which is defining professionalism. Craig and Fieschi (Ibid) also claims that professional bodies, regulations, rituals and rules are a set of mechanisms designed to make the tensions between day-to-day work and professional development bearable. In

addition to the macro levels (state, society, associations) this study examines the personal in the professional to create a sense of ourselves as educators, and is augmented with theoretical perspectives of professional knowledge, judgement and action. The study will also discuss how learning cultures are developed, and the contributions made by the participants in terms of improving the quality of education and training. The Kennedy report (1997) confers the general opinion that it is undisputed by all involved in FE that there is scope for improvement in terms of teaching quality and student learning. Improvement is not only concerned with student performance; it is relevant to all involved.

The participants of this study are unaware of their contributions to student and organisational development, because of the interrelated complexities of learning cultures. Learning cultures are complex and multifaceted entities, made by social beings. They are not static, described as a series of interrelated social practices that depend on what people do, they are therefore subject to continuous change. They exist through the actions, dispositions, and interpretations of the members of the culture, developing through interaction and communication produced and re-produced by individual social beings; just as much as individuals are developed by membership of, and participation in, a learning culture. According to Bailey (2010), individual teacher actions and behaviours are neither totally dominated by membership of a learning culture nor described as totally free to practise independently. The cultural approach to learning aims is to understand the kinds of learning that are possible because of the construction and structure of a learning culture. James and Wahlberg (2007) discuss the concept of transforming learning cultures in FE in order to improve student and teacher learning. A central issue is the broad typology that teacher intervention always results in improvements in teaching and learning; although Petty (2007) argues that it is the students' responsibility to learn and not that of the teacher. This study will also question how the teaching of teacher education lecturers determine learning and development and vice versa.

Although the participants in the study were subjected to the same teaching and support, they had different experiences because they were positioned differently within the chosen learning culture, and the participants have different social and educational backgrounds. Each year, people, for a variety of reasons, and from different backgrounds, decide to join the FE teaching profession, bringing with them

a wealth of industrial, vocational and academic experience. This study examines the work and behaviours of a group of FE trainee teachers (referred to as the participants) as they progress through their formal training. The concept of teacher training and/or teacher education is discussed in Chapter 5. This work captures the actions of the participants whilst working as FE teachers and undertaking formal teacher training.

Since teaching is an extremely complex activity that demands creativity and non-routine decision-making, it will also require a greater degree of trust by society, including policy-makers and those affected by teaching.

> "Society expects teachers to operate in the capacity of semi-autonomous professionals rather than compliant technicians in need of constant direction and monitoring."
> (Helsby 2000, p107)

Helsby (ibid.) believes that teaching is a sophisticated profession that requires the individual teacher to respond to the changing needs of the institution and the students. Helsby (ibid) also questions the validity of professionalism in the context of teaching by suggesting that recent developments have automated the process of teaching and learning. Giddens (2013) claims the historical concept of a pure professional can be described as a practitioner who has complete autonomy, is trusted by those they serve, and is above question. Professionalism has its roots within the legal and medical professions and, in some cases, higher education, all of which have traditionally enjoyed complete autonomy and the ability to practise without question from regulatory bodies. Policy makers and government departments subject the teaching profession to high levels of regulation. According to Czerniawska (2009):
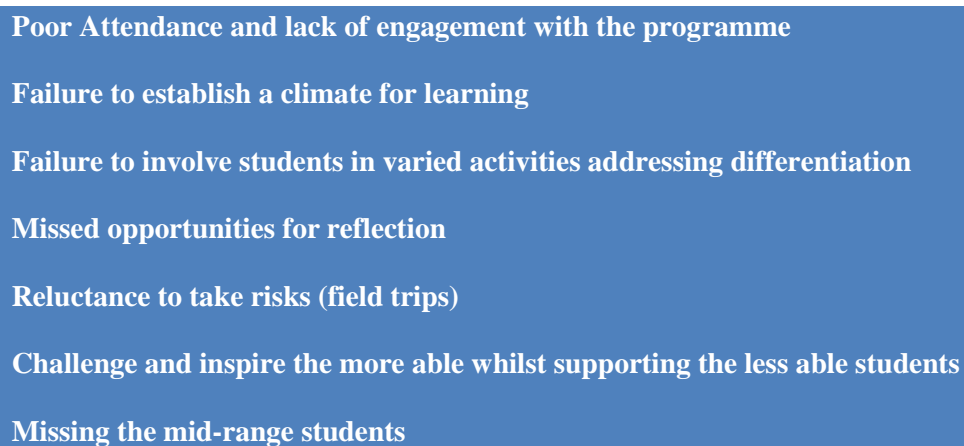
> "A profession is a vocation founded upon specialised educational training, the purpose of which is to supply disinterested counsel and service to others, for a direct and definite compensation, wholly apart from expectation of other business gain."
> (Czerniawska, 2009, p106)

Helsby (1999) adopts a similar view but notes an element of accountability and control of teachers by referring to them as semi-autonomous professionals in need of direction, control and correction, contradicting the true meaning of professionalism. Frowe (2005) supports Helsby's (1999) position by

emphasising the concept of professional trust between student and teacher, but highlights the potential risks of failure involved.

Risks are summarised in Figure 1.1

> **Poor Attendance and lack of engagement with the programme**
>
> **Failure to establish a climate for learning**
>
> **Failure to involve students in varied activities addressing differentiation**
>
> **Missed opportunities for reflection**
>
> **Reluctance to take risks (field trips)**
>
> **Challenge and inspire the more able whilst supporting the less able students**
>
> **Missing the mid-range students**

Figure 1.1 Summary of risks

Frowe's (2005) list of potential failure risks are appropriate to all teachers and students and, it is worth noting, are reasons given for the withdrawal of two participants of this study. The two participants consented to the disclosure that the reasons for withdrawing from the study, and from teaching, were a lack of engagement and a lack of personal academic confidence.

Distinctive Features

The formulation of the research questions for this study have developed through a process of reflection. Throughout my career, I have observed and supported many new teachers constructing their personal professional identity as educators and vocational trainers. This study not only identifies the overt interventions and actions of the participants as they demonstrate their roles as teachers, for example advice and guidance, corrections and tutoring, but the serendipitous, unplanned, unconscious and unintentional actions of the participants that may also affect the development of their students. These areas have not been explored before.

This study is exploratory, capturing the experiences of pre-service trainee teachers (participants). The research questions have three distinctive areas: helping FE students to realise their career aspirations,

reflecting professionalism in teaching, and the construction of personal professional identity. There is a large amount of literature concerning professionalism in teaching, the role of the teacher, and learning theory, but very little in the areas of change agency or identifying and reflecting professional teacher identity.

The removal of funding in 2003 (LSC, Funding Guidance for Further Education, p69) for the provision of traditional adult and community learning resulted in colleges withdrawing most education programmes not listed on the Qualifications and Curriculum Framework. There were some exceptions: full-cost recovery professional courses, adult literacy and numeracy, and English as a Second Language (ESOL) programmes remained unchanged. In an attempt to improve the UK's vocational skills and basic skills, colleges responded to these changes by introducing key and basic skills programmes taught in the chosen vocational context. In practice, this approach failed to improve the standard of basic skills. The Department for Education and Skills reported in 2003 that 11.5 million people employed in the UK workforce had literacy and numeracy skills below level two (GCSE grade C). The Dearing (1997) and Foster (2005) (www.excellencegateway.org.uk) on-line report impacted on the general philosophy of education, by attempting to address issues of widening participation, inclusion, and equal opportunity.

Despite extensive societal and legislative changes to the FE teaching profession, the training of new teachers in the sector has remained unchanged since the introduction of formal teacher training. Traditionally new FE teachers were employed by colleges because of their technical expertise, subject knowledge, vocational experience, and/or academic qualifications. New FE teachers train to teach as they teach their own students. Most FE colleges offer some limited support for new teachers by means of extended induction programmes, and the help and advice of a subject-specific mentor (Chapter 5 discusses the transformational experiences of the new FE teacher by drawing on the empirical data generated by this research study). New and unqualified FE teachers are employed in a teaching capacity and expected to operate under the same conditions as experienced and qualified teachers. New FE teachers refer to a 'culture shock' (Field Notes, March 2013) when reflecting on the initial stages of personal teaching careers. Ofsted, in 2006, reported that senior FE college managers give insufficient attention to the quality of the initial training of new FE teachers. Ofsted also claim that improvements

made in initial teacher training will improve the overall standards of teaching and learning. In 2008, 40% of newly qualified teachers withdrew from the teaching profession within six months of qualifying, increasing to 43% in Maths and Science subjects (source DfES 2007). The number of new FE teachers withdrawing from the profession within two years of starting is comparable with newly qualified teachers in the secondary sector of the UK education system.

The new overreaching professional standards in teaching in the Lifelong Learning Sector Reforming Report (DfES 2007) attempted to change the teaching of teacher training by equipping teachers for the future. The report underpinned all professional development for teachers in the lifelong learning sector, including new initial qualifications. A feature of the report was the introduction and recognition of the full teaching role. New entrants to the profession with full teaching roles will attain a teaching qualification at level five. Entrants with limited roles and responsibilities, known as associate teachers, are required to attain a level three qualification. Lifelong United Kingdom (LLUK 2006) introduced entry requirements in Maths, English, and ICT at level two and level three for those new entrants wishing to teach ESOL. This move mirrors the entry requirements for teaching practice in the UK compulsory sector of teaching. The new professional standards detail the values, knowledge, understanding and professional practice expected of all teachers in the lifelong learning sector. The report details six domains as shown in Figure 1.2:
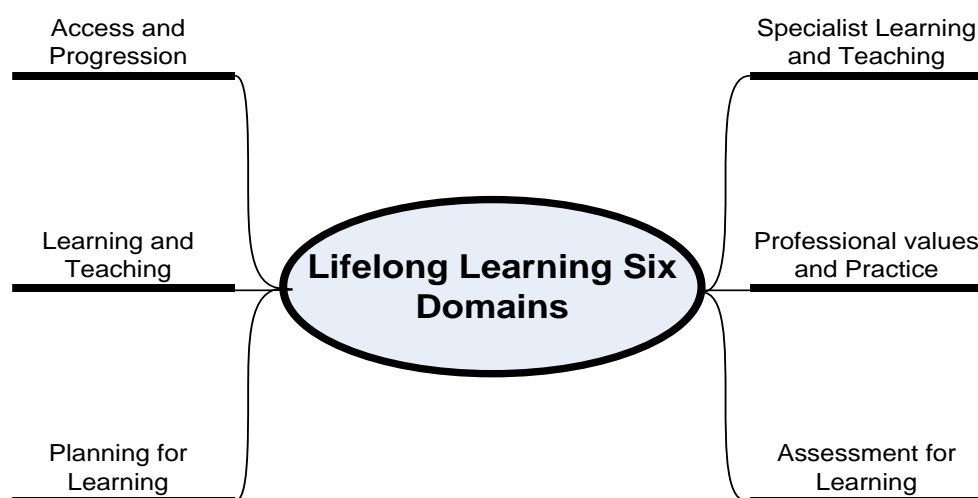
Figure 1.2 The Domains of lifelong learning. LLUK (2007)

Although the domains of professional practice clearly address the functions of teaching practice, there are gaps in the process and domains of professional practice, supporting my personal reflections and observations, and highlighting the omitted sociological and psychological aspects of teaching. Korthagen and Kessels (2011) recognise the omissions of theoretically-based teacher education by stressing the pressure towards more college/work-based teacher education/training programmes, creating a need to rethink the relationship between theory and practice. The traditional application of theory to practice is proving ineffective, resulting in the high withdrawal rates from the profession. Two related theoretical bases will be presented for a new paradigm in teacher education. The first uses the concepts of episteme (an accepted mode of accruing and arranging knowledge in a given period) and phronesis (attaining practical experience) to introduce a new way of framing and coding relevant knowledge. The second is a more holistic way of describing the relationship between teacher cognition and teacher behaviour, leading to a model of three levels in learning about teaching: The Gestalt, the schema, and the theoretical perspective.

The Traditional Application of Theory to Practice

Hagerty (2000) describes the concept of teaching as a knowledge-based activity that derives from Longergan's (1957) epistemological analysis of common sense. Although teaching in general terms, regardless of the sector, is a diverse and complex activity, FE teaching has an added social function of developing vocational skills in a changing macro environment. The education of FE teachers serves a number of functions: its concern with learning; the generation of knowledge; and the production of effective FE teachers, who vicariously develop a purposeful and productive workforce. Hegarty (2000) and McCall (2001) argue that the goals and objectives of education differ in terms of knowledge, skills and values. It is the focus of a three-function approach to the training of FE teachers which demonstrates the uniqueness of FE teaching and the associated complexities of training new FE teachers. Successful practitioners in any professional sector have access to relevant knowledge bases; lawyers have access to case and statute law, and medics draw upon the laws of chemistry, anatomy, and physiology. FE teachers are able to draw upon theories of learning and bodies of knowledge specific to the chosen vocation to generate student learning. Education stands apart from other professions in the overlap

between the underpinning knowledge base and the domain of professional practice. The development of FE teachers is inherently reflective, which is a new concept for new FE teachers. New FE teachers generate learning in others (FE students) – a process which they themselves have previously undertaken – but while still engaging in learning about teaching and learning. Hegarty (2000) refers to the difference in the knowledge stock of new teachers, which requires teacher trainers/educators to approach initial teacher training differently for vocational and academic teachers.

The results of this study inform and recommend revised domains of learning, based on the original research questions and empirical results, with specific reference to the teacher as an agent of change, the construction of professional identity, and the reflection of personal professional identity. It recognises the divergences in the participants' views, perceptions and values. The notion of commitment and identity is also a feature. Those new to teaching are often overwhelmed by the requirements of the initial teacher training (ITT) programme along with the pedagogic approaches. Kappan (2010) states:

> "Although teachers need to thoroughly understand the material they teach, that's not the same as knowing how to teach it."
> (Kappan ibid., p10)

Teaching and learning is concerned with permanent change in a person's behaviour, knowledge stock, and attitude. It is the actions of the new FE teachers as change agents which are under investigation within this study and also the changes in professional identity of new FE teachers. The participants in this study are described as career changers. They have decided to join the teaching profession as a second or third career. The data I have gathered has demonstrated how the participants have adopted a new profession as an FE teacher and adopted their own professional identity by drawing on past experiences of personal educational practices and professional/vocational practices.

Criticisms of Existing Educational Research in Further Education

The reasons for a thorough investigation into current educational research within FE is to ensure the results of this study inform future policy and practices in the ways new FE teachers are trained, educated and supported whilst undertaking initial teacher training.

Teaching has become a technical occupation. Bennett and DeForges (1985), and in more recent times Helsby (2002), fully concur with this statement by describing teaching as an applied social science, outlining current trends for repeated calls for research to be evidenced based. The introduction of the audit society can be traced back to 1992/93 as a direct consequence of new managerialism and the freedom of control from the local authority. Under the new regimes of college management, the perception of professional teachers has changed. Since 1992 the FE sector has been subjected to a process of marketisation and managerial control. These and other associated events, including management takeovers, mergers and federations of FE colleges and other educational establishments, have contributed to a reduction of one fifth of the entire FE teaching workforce (most being made redundant) since FE colleges left local authority control.

Existing research on the changing identity of teachers has only revealed inconclusive and ambiguous results. Millett (1999) makes assertions that professionalism in FE teaching had been redefined in the ways teachers work as a result of new managerialism. Millett also claims that education has entered a new age of professionalism in a post-modern society. Hargreaves (1994) discusses the complexities of new managerialism which include organisational restructuring, the effects of which have simultaneously changed teacher identity. Brady and Collier (1997) argues that, although teaching in the FE sector is being de-skilled and de-professionalised, teachers retain a commitment to public service values and teacher autonomy, and are opposed to new managerialism. The purpose of initial teacher training is to provide a professional community of practice by means of socially organising individuals and institutions within the context of new managerialism. Throughout the twentieth century the underpinning value of professionalism became the basis of teacher regulation.

FE teachers have realised an increase in the demand for continuous professional development as an aspect of professional practice and the additional pressures associated with new FE teachers providing and acting upon evidenced-based reflective practice (IfL 2010). The Institute for Learning (IfL) was established in 2002, following extensive debate among FE teachers and trainers who wanted a professional body that served the specific needs of the FE sector. The Foster review (2005) appraised the methods of equipping FE teachers for the future. The IfL was instrumental in the development of a professional body, aiming to improve the quality of teaching and learning across the newly formed lifelong learning sector. The DfES white paper (2006) established the contractual agreement between the IfL and Local Skills Council (LSC). Draft regulations, for all teachers and trainers practising within the lifelong learning sector, requiring registration with the IfL, continuous professional development (CDP), and minimum qualifications, were approved by the UK parliament in 2007. Parliamentary approval provided a legal framework to underpin the requirement for evidenced-based continuous professional development for teachers and trainers. Collaboration between the IfL and employers ensured all teachers practising within the sector were registered members of the IfL and were meeting the auditable requirements of CPD in three distinctive areas (shown in Figure1.3).
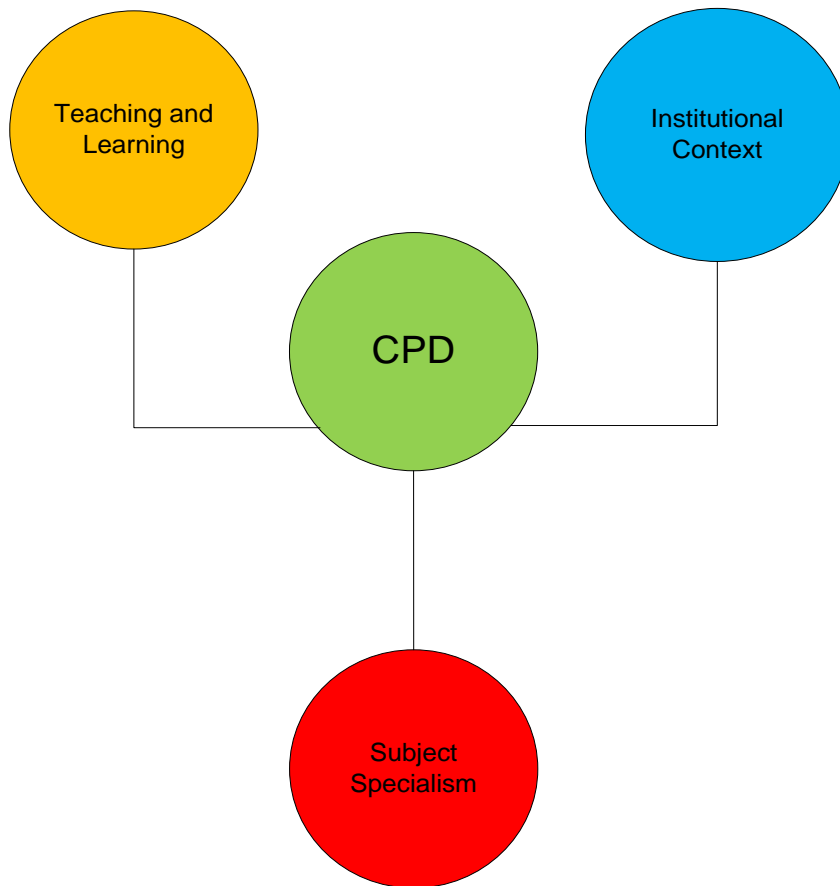
Figure 1.3 CPD Activities

All Teachers in the FE sector are required to undertake thirty hours of CPD per academic year, yet little consideration is given to independent or collaborative research activity.

Clark (2005) suggests educational research is generally constructed as a scientific investigation underpinned by investigations into the causes and effects of teaching. Fisher (2003) discusses the concept of teaching values and philosophical issues of education as an ideology. In contrast, Clark (2005) suggests there is a conception of teaching as phronesis, where educational research and philosophy may be desirable, but have no direct relationship to practice. Clark (ibid.) also argues that empirical questions are secondary as values are central and philosophical investigation is central to the determinant of empirical questions and professional practice; whereas Fisher (2003) claims it is the philosophy of education and not social sciences that directly govern policy and practice. As a practising FE and HE teacher this position is difficult to accept. The study aims to demonstrate its focus on

13

improving the quality of teacher education by drawing on previous work commissioned by regulating authorities. There are conflicting positions throughout the community of practice: Pring (2004) and Oancea (2003) believe that current educational research projects have had little positive impact on professional practice; Pring (2004) refers to educational research as *laissez-faire* and problematic; Bassey (1992) sees British educational research as a mere irrelevance and distraction; Woodhead (DfES 1998) thinks that it is in a sorry state; and Blunkett (DfES 2000) sees it as ivory-towerism. These authors fail to identify the practical elements of research. In contrast, Hodkinson (2004) offers a defence of current research by stressing the diversity of overlapping communities of practice. Existing educational research has played a very small part in informing practice policy. Pring (2004) argues that recent research projects have been used to meet the needs of policy makers and have little impact on professional practice. He also refers to the philosophy of educational research as questioning not what the teacher needs to know, but as a question of whether the practice of education can be properly understood within the language and understanding of the social sciences. In earlier times, Dewey (1917) questioned the dualisms between theory and practice, referring to the differences between thinking and doing as a basis of intelligent action, a move from systematically reflecting upon problems to be solved.

Asynchronous events and discussions with new teachers, through my professional practice, have prompted my own view that there are problems with the current system of training new FE teachers. Referring to student FE teachers as trainees suggests the current process merely produces compliant technicians, as suggested by Helsby (1999), who are able to prove a range of vocational competences. Downie (2000) refers to one characteristic of a professional as the educated representative of the profession which distinguishes them from people who are merely trained. He argues that if a professional is to have integrity and independence whilst being able to speak with authority they should be educated. Peters (2003) debates the distinctive features of the educated and trained person as the educated person having a wide cognitive perspective, recognising a place for their specific personal skills within the wider perspective; the educated person is committed to the advancement of skills and knowledge through continuous professional development within a framework of values.

Petty (2004) argues that teaching requires high levels of creativity and responsiveness. Throughout my own professional practice and observations there have been moments of euphoria and despair and aspects of practice which were difficult to comprehend as each student/group was exposed to the same educational experiences but with different results. Observations and discussions led to a hypothesis that teachers are agents of change in terms of how teachers help students realise their career aspirations, and the effects on local and national communities of practice. A change agent is defined by Fullan (2007) as a person who leads change within an organisation or society by championing the change and the management of the change process. Change agents can be appointed or can volunteer, but must be representative of the chosen social group; he stresses the importance of the change agent's understanding of change and the ability to effectively communicate the details of change to others. I am unaware of any current processes and actions which could confidently support this position within the context of formal FE teacher training programmes. The connection between the concepts of constructing professional identity and change agency may appear to be a strange one, but on closer examination they are naturally linked. Glesson and Shain (1999) stated more directly that the construction of professional identity is concerned with making a difference to people's lives and a vehicle to address concerns in bringing about improvements. Constructing professional identity is viewed as a naturally occurring phenomenon of teacher development; however, there is a lack of theoretical framework to support this argument and no study into the way professional teaching identity is constructed or reflected.

The theoretical concepts used in this study are placed in three distinctive areas: the teacher as an agent of change, the professional identity of FE teachers, and the effects of actions and behaviours of new teachers on FE students and colleges. This study examines the means used by new FE teachers in terms of helping students of FE realise their future career aspirations. The concept of change agency (although not a new concept) in FE teaching has not been fully explored. One consequence of this omission has been the missed opportunities to capture the influences that new teachers in FE might have on the development of FE students. Leading on from the concept of change agency, this study examines the ways new FE teachers construct and reflect their professional identity. Stiegelbauer (1992) and Fullam

(2007) examine the reasons people enter the teaching profession. One significant theme was the desire to make a difference. They warn that teachers with a clear sense of direction and purpose often become disheartened because of the inevitable difficulties of teaching – including interaction with personal issues and vulnerabilities, social pressures and values – generating a sense of frustration. Farber (1991) discusses the possibilities of teaching and the difference/improvements teachers make on wider society. He refers to the teacher reassessing the personal investments they want to make in teaching (ibid., p36).

Debates and research conducted in the 1990s and 2000s have focused on raising professional standards in teaching, learning and assessment of student and institutional performance, whilst missing opportunities to fully examine the role of FE teachers within a changing social structure. The professional status of practising FE teachers remains ambiguous. Throughout the last two decades an inequality has evolved in terms of status between compulsory sector teachers and FE teachers. The Teacher Development Agency publishes the recommended annual salaries and conditions of service for teachers in England and Wales. Figure 1.4 demonstrates the inequality between the compulsory sector (schools) and that of the FE sector.

Head Teacher	College Principal	Advanced Skills Teacher	Senior College Tutor	School Teacher	College Lecturer	College Instructor
£106k	£88-£136k	£57k	£39k	£37k	£32k	£24k

Recent developments in the FE sector are having significant impacts on the concept of professionalism in FE teaching. A revised qualification framework was introduced in 2007 in an attempt to enhance the status of FE teachers and create parity between schools and FE. The new qualification framework clearly distinguishes the full and associate teaching roles, by providing a three-stage qualification framework. Alongside the new framework came the requirement for compulsory continuous professional development (CPD) and registration with the Institute for Learning (IfL), placing additional responsibility for capturing reflective practice and additional pressures on FE teachers' workloads. The Minister for Further Education and Skills (2010) assured the FE sector that the current

government would promote and re-establish professional trust of all teachers by removing "stifling and unnecessary inspection regimes and administration", a statement which reinforced and confirmed opinions held by many FE teachers and managers.

Helsby (1999) also believes the teaching profession has become over regulated and mechanical in terms of developing new entrants to the teaching profession; emphasising regulation and competence-based education, which is stifling teachers' creativity and passion. In contrast Kennedy (1997) suggests that the quality of teaching is both a personal and structural issue, in which the attributes of individual teachers augment within policy environments; examples include governance, resources and employment conditions. McCormick *et al* (2012) highlights the importance of the teacher and student relationship in the classroom and stresses that the relationship is nothing to do with personality but rather with their ability to create and sustain a productive relationship to enhance student learning. Based on years of reflective practice and observation of student destinations, I strongly believe that education is a process which provides opportunities for people to make a meaningful contribution to a developing society. The Leitch Report (2005) discusses and improves vocational/professional practice. It could be suggested that this process could also improves people's life chances. As a teacher practising in FE and attempting to train or educate and support new entrants to the profession, the difficulties and frustrations new teachers experience have been highlighted to me and will be further explored within Chapter 4.

This research is about the methods used to train and educate new entrants to the teaching profession in FE. It evaluates the effectiveness of the process and makes recommendations to enhance this aspect of teacher education. I will consider how the results may apply to policy, the policy makers, training institutions, and individuals wishing to join the profession. Policy makers have concentrated on developing auditable trails of evidence, attempting to prove that current policy is effective in addressing the objectives set out by government.

European developments, including the Lisbon Council (2000), have stressed the importance of investing in people as a critical aspect to enable member states to meet the demands of emerging economies, and

not compounding existing social problems. Effective and coherent education is viewed as an effective vehicle out of poverty. The Barcelona Council (2008) produced comprehensive objectives to improve the quality of teacher education based on coherent links with other key European policies. The current social policy places an emphasis on education and training as a key factor of social inclusion, equipping social beings with core social skills. The Innovation Policy (2002) places emphasis on teachers to develop young people's sense of entrepreneurship and innovation. To strengthen aspects of the Innovation Policy the commission has charged public authorities and school managers to promote entrepreneurship through initial and continuous professional development. The importance placed on professionalism is reflected within the context of the legal framework as set out in directive 2005/36/EC. These cross-state changes required both new and existing teachers to acquire new knowledge and to develop their existing knowledge and skills. The commission recognises the need for high quality initial teacher education which is linked with a process of continuous professional development. Modern professionals have a responsibility to extend knowledge through effective reflective practice. Reflection is often defined as the integration of theory and practice, not for its own sake but rather as a body of research-based knowledge underpinning good professional practice (Grey 2004). This perspective provides a rationale for the integration of theory and practice and is associated with Schon (1983) who argues that professionals from all occupations "think in action", and who describes professional practise as a process, rather than a mechanical application of theory. He claims professionals are people who learn many of their skills through the practise of them in new situations. The success of this type of professional development activity is dependent on the successful augmentation of theoretical and practical learning experiences. Schon (ibid.) continues to argue that this approach deepens knowledge through practise.

Reflective practice has been an established learning activity since the introduction of formal FE teacher training; traditionally trainee teachers have completed reflective journals, as have trainees in many other professions. Jarvis (1995) describes the concept of acquiring practical knowledge as gathering knowledge from a variety of social sciences. The epistemological foundations are taken from the schools of psychology, sociology and philosophy. Jarvis's statement does not fully support the work of

Darling-Hammond (2006) who advocates strong preparation for those wishing to enter the teaching profession, especially those working in areas of high social deprivation and exclusion. Shulman (1987) stresses strong teacher preparation and certification as a key feature of student success. Ballou and Podgursky (1998) oppose regulation of teacher training by emphasising that teacher effectiveness is related to general academic ability or strong subject knowledge. Fisher (2003) supports this position stating that rigorous certification systems impose "burdensome requirements" on new teachers. Opponents of regulation agree that teacher education should concentrate on higher standards of verbal ability and subject specialism. The policy implications of both stances are far reaching in terms of deconstructing existing practises.

Fundamental changes in further and higher education over the last ten years in policy, philosophy and funding, as well as the macro society drivers as outlined in the Leitch Report (2005), ensuring the United Kingdom remains competitive in developing global economies, place many new demands on both new and existing FE teachers. The role of the teacher has become much more complex in terms of basic functions, such as imparting subject knowledge, and teachers are required to help students to become self-directed learners. Previous policies and practices have attempted to equip students with key skills, in terms of learning skills, rather than just helping students memorise information. Concern has been expressed by Bathmaker (2007) reporting that the United Kingdom has 11.3 million working adults with literacy and numeracy levels below level two (NRDC 2006). They also stress level two in literacy and numeracy is the minimum level required for social beings to be functional within modern micro and macro societies. The Commission of European Communities reported that teachers have many new roles whilst attempting to meet the needs of ever-increasing, heterogeneous cohorts of students. It is these emerging roles which will be explored throughout this study. The commission refers to the role of teachers as classroom managers making use of the new technologies available; there is little emphasis on the development of students. The commission also recognises factors to ensure that education and training remain a central focus in developing long-term potential for competitiveness as well as social cohesion, and acknowledges that there has been insufficient progress towards the Barcelona objectives.

This concurs with my own reflections in terms of professional experiences. Improving the quality of initial teacher education should be a priority of the policy makers and training providers.

Background to the Project

Lucas (2004) describes training for further education as "begging neglect". The origin of FE colleges has been firmly placed within working class institutions of engineering and the municipal provision of technical education. It is the nature of technical education that meant vocational and technical expertise was, in most cases, the key element of employability as a FE Teacher. Practical teaching skills was and still is something new teachers pick up along the way, the assumption being if you know your subject/job then you can teach it to others. Despite numerous attempts to professionalise FE teaching, the sector remains neglected in terms of investment, training and teacher remuneration.

Following the Education Reform Act 1992, colleges of FE became incorporated, independent organisations, responsible for their own financial management and strategic direction. Incorporation of FE colleges is a significant change factor, changing FE teachers' contracts of employment, pay and conditions. These changes have had a detrimental effect on the status of FE teaching staff. Since 1993, the concept of professionalism in FE teaching has been questioned. Current perceptions of professionalism differ from the established theoretical models. A professional was once described as a person trusted by society; in contrast, contemporary views of a professional is one who is able, confident and competent to complete a range of tasks.

Incorporation of FE colleges brought additional pressures for colleges and teachers; new government policies and focuses affected college funding methodologies, leadership and governance, inspection arrangements and the structure and nature of the curriculum. The additional pressures placed on FE teachers are not reflected in the teacher training qualifications. FE teachers faced the challenges of meeting a range of financial and other targets, including student retention, achievement and success. The changes did however impact on teacher performance; further education was viewed and treated as a business. Stronach *et al* (2002) refers to the economies of performance and the ecologies of practice, suggesting a conflict of interest in professional practice and the factor of tighter controls intensified by

external pressures and greater instability. The Lietch Report indicates that the current UK government intends to reinstate local controls on FE and promote individual responsibility for its provision and management. The report indicates that this will be achieved by removing centrally controlled government agencies (quangos, including the Institute for Learning) or removing the statutory powers of such agencies. The nature of the FE curriculum has been reinforced by the vocational nature of FE, however changes to the provision has seen the introduction of academic courses, special education, promotion of independent living, and the increasing provision of HE degrees within the FE setting. In contrast to the sector changes, the process of employing occupational experts and subject specialists remains common practice. In 2001, there were attempts to create a more diverse range of qualifications: these included the Certificate in Education, PGCE and the National Awards 7307, stage one and stage two, provided by City and Guilds and Edxcel. These courses were offered at level three providing an opportunity for successful students to progress to university. The Further Education National Training Organisation (FENTO) was established in 2001 and a variety of level four qualifications were available. Arguably, the ongoing reconstruction of FE is inexorably linked to the changing philosophical approaches to the provision of FE. There were various agencies involved in the changing face of FE, some of which have now been dissolved, leaving a legacy influencing current teaching practice and the professional status of the FE teacher. The heterogeneous nature of FE provision is not reflected in the range of formal and endorsed FE teacher qualifications. New Labour recognised and attempted to categorise FE teaching into three distinct stages of endorsement of the FE teacher, from preparing to teach (preliminary to full teacher) to a level five diploma in FE teaching. Status was awarded on the role and responsibilities of the FE teacher.

Figure 1.5 captures the key legislations and regulations from 1992 to 2007 which have affected the provision of FE colleges and the roles of FE teachers.

| 1992 Education Reform Act | 1993 Incorporation- freed colleges from central government control | 1997 Improvement of the workforce put teaching and learning at the heart of what we do (DfES 2002) |
| 1999 FENTO etblished endorsments of teacher training qualifications | 2001 Regulations making teacher training complusory for new entrants | 2007 LLUK 2007 regulations and introduction of QTLS |

Figure 1.5. Key legislation and regulations

The number of qualified FE teachers has reduced to 44% since incorporation in 1992 (source LLUK 2009).

The philosophy of educational research is the critical examination of key concepts and questions underpinning the nature and method of investigation of education and its contexts – these contexts might be cultural, economic, political or social. Critical examination is needed of accepted terms of definition: of what is meant by cultural, economic and sociological aspects of education.

The reason for an examination of educational philosophy is to ensure that this study informs policy makers of the complexities of teacher education, providing an opportunity to re-think and challenge the current philosophical position. I am interested in people using exploratory methods based on real world research. It is the nature of change that drives this study, identifying the central problems of current educational research. Pring (2004) highlights the problems with educational enquiry and the model of social sciences with a lack of meaning, verification and conceptualisation of the truth stated. This study will address the weaknesses and criticisms of existing work and provide a purposeful, realistic and objective philosophical position.

There is extensive educational research across the globe, drawing on extensive resources; Hargreaves (1994) believes the resources are not well used. This position was reflected in the Hillage report (1998) which suggested that state-commissioned research projects did not answer the questions raised by government, did not help professional practice, and were fragmented, often addressing similar questions but from a different starting point. Kennedy (1997) provides four reasons for the failure of research,

22

supporting Hillage's position. Kennedy (ibid.) argues that most research is irrelevant to professional teaching practice, is generally poor in terms of quality, and is inaccessible. Pring (2004) attempts to summarise by claiming that educational research is dismissed as worthless, undeserving of funding and technical in nature. Hirst (1966) and, in later times, Pring (2004) agree that educational research is not autonomous as a form of knowledge and suggest it does not involve any format or conceptual structure and more importantly that there is no test for validity. Bridges (2004) suggests education is not a discipline in its own right as researchers seek examples from other fields of social science in an attempt to reinforce philosophical stances. Shulman (1987) states:

> "A major reason why research methodology is such an exciting area is that education is not a decipher. Indeed, education is a field of study or laws containing phenomena, events, institutions, problems, persons and processes, which themselves constitute the raw material for inquiries of many kinds."
>
> (ibid., p5)

My position supports that which Shulman has expanded.

Conclusion

The FE sector is the poor relation in the UK education system. FE teachers are from diverse backgrounds and take up challenging roles. This study aims to explore the participants' experiences as they embark on a new career.

I took the decision to combine all findings and data into one chapter as each research instrument addressed more than one research question. Chapter 5 concludes the thesis, discussing the results and outlining the contribution to knowledge.

Chapter Two: Conceptual Framework

Introduction

This literature review identifies and analyses the main arguments and current positions relating to the concepts of teacher professionalism and the construction of professional identity, multiple identities, and trust amongst FE teachers. The main purpose is to identify existing knowledge and to identify gaps in current knowledge; to frame the research questions.

The concept of the FE teacher as an agent of change practising within a learning culture is central to this research, in that the FE teacher seeks to support the change and development of his or her students. In this review, debates and discourses on professionalism in FE teaching are examined. The core research objective is to assess the appropriateness of the current practice of teacher training within the UK FE sector. I examine established and contemporary models of learning and teaching, including teacher reflection and meta-learning, and augmenting models of work-based learning with established theoretical and conceptual frameworks of learning and teaching.

Colleges of further and higher education in the United Kingdom are complex organisations which attempt to meet the needs of their immediate societies whilst addressing local and national objectives. The philosophy and practice of FE has become multifaceted in the UK: FE colleges attempt to provide an extensive curriculum to a diverse student population. The FE teachers come from diverse occupational and professional backgrounds and undergo transition as they learn their new educational roles and become FE teachers.

I explore the concept of teacher professionalism and the multiple and changing professional identities of new teachers joining the teaching profession. Literature within the wider context of learning and professional development draws upon elements of sociology, psychology and philosophy.

This chapter begins by discussing and justifying the chosen method used to conduct this literature review. It then examines theoretical perspectives from contemporary and established literature. The

creation of a theoretical framework evolved from the literature which I have used throughout this study is categorised into four areas: professionalism, learning cultures, changing professional identity, and change agency. This thesis examines and questions established concepts of learning and professional development within FE teacher training whilst exploring the impact of a particular initial teacher training curriculum and its effects on new teachers, and the construction of a new professional identity. Curzon (1992) refers to learning as a relatively permanent change in behaviour and attitude; it is the change element of the learning process which drives the theme of this thesis. Associated literature is also drawn from other aspects of the UK education sector and its recent publications, with specific reference to professional trust, trust and culture, professional autonomy, and responsibility. This literature review also critically examines the purpose and content of relevant published work, as well as the way in which research has been conducted and the significance of the findings so that decisions can be made about the methodological approaches to be taken in this study.

This literature review concludes by revealing unexplored epistemological issues relating to the training of new FE teachers, and the teacher as an agent of change.

Method of Conducting this Literature Review

The purpose of this literature review is to establish and critically review what is already known about change agency and professionalism in FE teaching. This literature review, in part, demonstrates a systematic acquisition and understanding of a body of knowledge in the associated areas of FE and the development of professional teacher identity. Tranfield *et al* (2004) highlights the five stages of conducting a purposeful literature review.

Figure 2.1. The five stages of conducting a purposeful literature review

This literature review provides a context to the study, demonstrating the legitimacy of the research questions whilst considering alternative perspectives of teacher training in the FE sector. This review also helps to define and justify the chosen methodology whilst making the likely contribution to knowledge of this study explicit. There are two objectives of this review: first is to demonstrate the path of prior research and how this study is linked to it; secondly, to demonstrate a familiarity with a body of knowledge and establish credibility. As this study generates mainly qualitative data, adopting an inductive approach and analysing the results by interpretive methods, I have used a narrative literature review. The results from this literature review will highlight emerging theoretical perspectives through examination of a variety of discourses. The approach concentrates on the connections between the sources located and the research questions.

Overview of the Literature

There are four elements of literature relevant to this research project which provide a framework within which to provide theoretical perspective on the appropriateness of the current teacher training programme. Each area of the literature is associated with the general concept of teaching and learning.

Figure 2.2. highlights the relationship between the research question and the topics addressed in this study.

Is the current practice of FE teacher education fit for purpose?			
Professionalism	Change Agency	Learning Cultures	Professional and Multiple Identities

Figure 2.2 Relationships between the research question and the topics addressed in this study

Britzman (1991) states:

> "Learning to teach is not a mere matter of applying decontextualized skills or of mirroring predetermined images; it is a time when one's past, present and future are set in dynamic tension. Learning to teach – like teaching itself – is always the process of becoming a time of formation and transformation of scrutiny into what one is doing and who one can become."
> (Britzman, ibid, p8)

Britzman's position maintains that learning to teach is a complex and continuous process, and whilst I am using some elements of Britzman's (ibid.) work, I take elements of Britzman's position further in terms of examining the skills, knowledge and attitudes of new FE teachers, and the impact they have in helping their own students to realise their career aspirations.

Professionalism

According to Freidson (2001), the concept of professionalism has changed since its conception in the early 1900's. It is no longer a simple term describing the complete autonomy of medics and lawyers, but a term used to describe a person who conducts themselves competently, efficiently and without error. The study of professionalism in FE teaching is an essential aspect of this study as the participants may retain elements of previous professional identities and augment these to shape their future identity and practice as an FE teacher. The concept of professionalism and professional identity are important aspects of this study: Evans (2003) alludes to the relationship between professionalism of FE teachers, their professional identity, and the quality of education they provide. Professionalism in FE teaching, like that of other occupations, has many ethical dimensions including the protection of students, and the credibility and purposefulness of FE teaching in terms of making a contribution to a developing economy. It is the actions and attitudes of new and existing FE teachers that help FE students to realise their own career aspirations. FE teachers have a body of knowledge and skills to convey to their students within an ethical and legal framework. According to Robson and Baily (2009), a profession is a socially constructed but contested concept with different meanings to different people. Recent UK debates about teacher professionalism have focused on school teachers, making assumptions that the concept of professionalism can be applied to FE teachers. I am interested in the FE teachers' perspective of professionalism. Sachs (2003) refers to three aspects of professionalism: autonomy, professional

knowledge, and responsibility. Robson and Baily (2009) concur with Sachs, adding professional identity as a fourth perspective.

> "It is paramount that whatever meaning of professionalism is circulating its meaning is generated and owned by teachers themselves in order that it should have currency concerning teachers and should be useful in improving public image and social importance."
> (Sachs 2003, p17)

Professionalism is described as a collegial discipline that regulates itself by means of systematic training (Reiff 2010); it has a base of specialised knowledge that teaches and advances knowledge and understanding whilst enforcing its own standards and ethical codes of conduct.

As a symbol, 'profession' does not describe an actual occupation. Robson and Baily (2009) in some ways support the concept of professionalism as a collegial discipline, but omit to highlight the constraints of organisational strategy and the emerging audit society teachers operate in. Robson and Baily (2009) also refers to professionalism as a way of thinking about occupations, suggesting that professionals should actively engage in reflective practice. Clarke and Newman (1997) expand on a definition of professionalism as a profession which operates as an occupation and within the context of organisational strategy, but fail to recognise and acknowledge the changing demands wider society places on its teachers (Giddens and Sutton 2013). There is therefore considerable discussion in the literature with no definition of professionalism which is universally accepted. McCulloch (2000) states:

> "It represents judgements that are specific to times and contexts and that reflect the different stances of different people and groups in society, which does accept society is evolving and expects its professional to adapt to those changes. Dingue (1976) clearly rejects the assumption that profession has a fixed meaning."
> (McCulloch ibid., p138)

The traditional term and concept of a professional can be described as autonomous and highly skilled. This perspective is challenged by Becker (1992) and, later, Shain and Gleeson (1999). Hodkinson (2005) describes it as an occupation possessing certain fixed, defining characteristics but views profession as a set of ideas or a way of thinking about an occupation. Furlong (2005) observed changes in recent years in the terms of the nature of knowledge, autonomy and responsibility, claiming these

factors have altered the nature of professionalism. Helsby (1999) claims that teaching has moved away from being a recognised profession to an occupation of compliant technicians. Furlong (2005) disputes

Helsby's position by stating:

> "It is because professionals face complex and unpredictable situations that they need a specialised body of knowledge if they are to apply that knowledge. It is argued that they are the autonomy to make their own judgements. Given that they have autonomy it is essential that they act with responsibility and collectively they need to develop appropriate professional values."
>
> (Furlong ibid., p139)

Whilst Helsby and Oscen (2007) continue to argue that there has been significant de-professionalisation of teaching, there is little literature available to suggest that the ethical conduct and adherence to occupational values in current practising teachers is affected by a loss of freedom and autonomy. The introduction of the National Curriculum in England in 1988 limited teachers' freedom to teach what they knew to be appropriate, and the introduction of vocational educational programmes in the FE sector throughout the 1990's reduced the FE teachers' professional autonomy. According to Elliot (1996) and Shain and Glesson (1999), FE teachers have not enjoyed the same level of autonomy as lecturers in UK universities. FE teachers have taught learning programmes to the requirements of external validating bodies.

Recent studies into FE include that by Coffield (2007), who adopted a discourse analysis approach to assess the content and themes of teachers' written and reflective narratives when assessing teachers' perception of professionalism. Coffield (ibid.) used this approach in an attempt to validate the initial responses of the participants, however it is clear that the concept of developing professional teachers in Coffield's study is limited to the context of the organisation and omits to consider the complexities of a multi-faceted and changing society. As societal and administrative changes affect other social institutions, these changes can often place professionals in a position of role conflict. Sachs (1999) also identified this conflict between the teacher's professional scholarly role in pedagogy, and the teacher's increasingly administrative role related to the organisation and its audits.

Professional Identity

The relevant discourses regarding the development of the FE teacher, teaching practice, and teacher education, stress the importance of professional identity. Reflecting on the meaning of professionalism (discussed throughout this thesis) and the concept of professional identity of teachers is of interest to me as new FE teachers accept the challenges of not only constructing new professional identities as teachers, but also of withdrawing from existing professional identities.

Hermanson (2003) describes professional identity as having the feeling of being a person who can practise with skill and responsibility; he is describing a level of proficiency within a role. Avalos (2011) claims a developing professional identity for new teachers is a motivating factor, indicating that this sense of increasing proficiency is empowering. Watson (2006) states, fairly simply, that "professional action is doing professional identity" (Watson ibid., p510), which supports the nature of the developing proficiency within role. Watson (ibid.), Avalos (2011) and Stenback-Hult (1996), all support Hermansen (2003) by adding that the professional develops self-awareness of personal resources and limitations whilst recognising the individual perception of her/him in the chosen context. Hermanson (ibid.) describes the process of developing professional identity as balancing the internal and external attributes of professionalism. Within these discussions, professionalism is something that develops over time, rather than coming with a particular qualification. Lindstrom and Speck (2004) refers to the central motivating factors of developing professionals, which include will, insight and ability. Roach (1992) lists the desirable attributes of reflecting professional identity as competence, confidence, conscience, and commitment, referring to them as the most significant elements of excellence in teaching. It is clear there is extensive literature available on the concept of professional identity.

One aspect which emerges from the literature on identity and teacher professionalism is the construction and reflection of both self and teacher identities. Erikson (1968) describes identity as whom or what someone is, based on a set of behavioural and personal characteristics when a person is recognised and known as a member of a social group. Erikson (ibid.) further claims the continuity of professional identity as subjective experiences of self-sameness, suggesting personal identity construction threads itself through the course of a person's life. Jenkins (2008) refers to identity as human capacity, rooted

in language and an awareness of who we are and who others are; a multi-dimensional classification of the human world. Ashton *et al* (2004) claim identity is a process not a thing someone does. Jenkins (2008) questions the concept of identity and whether a person's identity affects their behaviour. I argue throughout this study that changing and multiple identities do affect professional behaviour. Beijaard (1995) refers to identity in terms of self and one's own self-concept. Beijaard (ibid.), supported by Zembylas (2003), refers to identity formation as a conceived but on-going process, involving the interpretation and reinterpretation of experiences as one lives through them. Zembylas (ibid.) goes on to explain the three elements of professional identity formation. The first of these is teaching context, representing the culture of the professional community (perceptions, norms, expectations and values). Secondly the previous experiences of being a teacher provides a sense of professional efficacy in professional identity formation. And finally, a personal biography which includes the teachers' previous experiences of being a student impacts on their identity formation. Whilst this thesis examines some elements of Zembylas' framework, the focus of this work examines the new FE teachers and the impact on professional teaching practice from previous professional identities and occupations. Stronach *et al* (2002) add further dimensions to the formation of professional teacher identity, arguing there are two forms of identity. According to Stronach *et al* (ibid.) people display primary and secondary identities. Primary identity (which I seek to establish from the participants) is classified as beyond a person's immediate conscious awareness. Stronach *et al* (ibid.) also suggest primary identity is an inherent and biologically-based feature of the human mind. This identity drives the behaviour in ways that can be determined through sustained introspection and analysis. Secondary identity is referred to by Stronach *et al* (ibid.) as a person's consciously trying out and experimenting with identity whilst discarding various elements in an effort to clarify values and group affiliation. Again there is the explanation that professional identity takes time to develop and is moulded by experience.

According to Hoyle and John (1995), and more recently Sahberg (2009), most research conducted on teachers and teaching has been concerned with the development of practical skills and crafts. Darling-Hammond (1996), Ofsted (2003), and Schwier *et al* (2007), claim the focus has been on the development of teaching knowledge and pedagogic approaches, whilst also claiming that there have

been limited insights into the construction of professional teaching identity. It is this omission in the current teacher training programme which highlights the importance of reviewing the process. Darling-Hammond (1996) and Eraut (1994) agree that academic researchers have attained a minimal understanding of the processes teachers use to interpret and personalise generic theoretical perspectives and conceptual frameworks of professional teaching identity. Darling-Hammond (1996) argues that it is the conceptual frameworks and the teachers' own perceptions of what others hold of them which influence the construction of their identity. Weber and Mitchell (1998) add a further factor claiming the formation of teaching professional identity is also influenced by the students' expectations of a teacher's appearance and behaviours. Although Weber and Mitchell (ibid.) recognise the students' perception of a teacher as a significant factor in the construction of the new identity, they overlook the concept and impact of the new teacher's self-perceptions of themselves and the valuable experiences new teachers have of being a student. This study will draw on the participants' own experiences of being a student and in what ways their reflections impact on the construction of new professional identities as FE teachers.

The frameworks, perceptions and expectations all act as a guide for new teachers to action unique professional practice. It is the uniqueness of this aspect of professional identity construction which has not yet been considered. Eraut (1994) argues that developing such frameworks is problematic for teachers, and more so than other professionals because teachers operate in a 'doing environment' rather than a 'knowing environment'. The current process of FE initial teacher training has an emphasis on the attainment of knowledge, with limited focus on the development of practical teaching skills. Recent developments in the primary and secondary sectors of ITT are moving back into the classroom with much more emphasis on teaching skills. Although Eraut's arguments of teachers operating in a 'doing' rather than a 'knowing' environment is valid, both approaches could be used and augmented to provide a practical and theoretical application of FE teacher education and provide the new FE teacher with contextualised learning and development experiences. The study of teachers' knowledge and professional identity should therefore include reflection and self-perception of the actions and personal development of new teachers.

The general concept of professional identity in all disciplines is poorly defined. Bond *et al* (1996) and Dworet and Brook (1996) argue teachers' perception of their own professional identity affects their capacity to produce a change or an effect on their own students' development. Engaging in continuous professional development, alongside the new teachers' ability and willingness to cope with educational and institutional change, are significant factors in the construction of new professional identities. Beijaard (2000) supports Bond *et al.* (1996) by describing the teachers' perceptions of self; professional knowledge is a representation of their own understanding of professional identity. Kerby (1991) argues a teacher's identity is continually informed, formed, and re-formed as individuals develop elements of professional identity through interaction with others. Self-evaluation and identity are part of an individual's self-image (Nias,1989). Moreover, people feel threatened when they face changes that may influence their self-image and identity. New teachers may develop strategies to protect themselves against being forced to perceive themselves in another way (Nias, ibid.). The concepts outlined by Kerby (1991), Bond (1996), Kompf *et al* (1996), and Beijaard (2000) suggest that the construction of professional teacher identity is formed throughout a teacher's career by a process of continuous professional development, but place little importance on reflective practice throughout the formal teacher training period. Kompf *et al.* (1996) do, in some way, address the proposed concept of this study by suggesting a teacher's professional identity is based in three different paradigms, the subject to be taught, relationships with the students, and the teacher's teacher role. Bloom (1988) and Huberman (1993) examine the concept of 'life cycle' in learning and teaching. Huberman (ibid.) refers to changes in the way students learn, moving away from formal classroom learning to self-directed learning and the adaptations teachers make. A change to teacher identity provides examples of the relationship of the life cycle and changing professional identity.

Changes to educational policy in 1992 (Further and Higher Education Act 1992) freed FE colleges from local authority control and changed the professional behaviour and attitudes of educationalists, including teachers. FE teachers and managers became accountable and businesslike, changing their professional identity and focus (Coffield 2001). The implementation of *Curriculum 2000* made significant changes to the structure of curriculum portfolios and also impacted on the life cycle of the

FE teacher. The life cycle is explained by Fessher (1985) and later by Hubberman (2001), as a series of linear changes teachers move through during their careers. Fessher (ibid.) identifies six stages of teacher career development, however Huberman (ibid.) simplifies the model into three distinctive areas: the novice, the mid-career, and the late-career teacher. Fessher and Hubberman suggest that teachers move through each stage in a linear and incremental way, clearly moving from one stage to another. In this study I will challenge this concept by exploring the relationship of the teacher life cycle with the construction of new professional identities whilst practising in an environment of change. This study also considers existing professional identities of new FE teachers and those retained aspects of previous professional identities.

Beijaard (2000) claims, as a result of his research, that the teacher's identity can be separated into fourteen discreet areas which are based upon teachers' perceptions and their prior experiences. Beijaard's work also highlights that teachers found it difficult to focus on each category of professional practice in isolation; some aspects were taken for granted as a naturally occurring feature of developing practice and as being immune from reflection. I recognise themes from Beijaard's and Bromme's (1991) work in terms of reflective practice and professional identity and the significance of reflection in current teacher education programmes. Beijaard (2000) states:

> "Teachers derive their professional identity from the ways they see themselves as subjective matter rather than experts, pedagogical experts and didactical experts."
> (Beijaard ibid., p751)

He also claims that initial teacher education programmes have become mechanical in terms of equipping new teachers with new knowledge and skills and some limited skills of teaching and learning practice. I share a concern for the apparent lack of the wider sociological consideration of the changing professional identity of the teacher, further restricting the freedom of professional teachers to educate their own students. Douwe (2000) attributes a rigid ITT curriculum as a barrier to rigorous academic enquiry of sociological and psychological aspects of FE teaching. It is the effects of policy and personal change which restrict the development of professional teachers. However, from 2008 there is not a credible definition or explanation of the FE teacher's changing professional identity.

Multiple Identities of Teachers

Identity formation in an individual is a process of acquiring and building on many personal knowledge sources: knowledge of effect, human relations and the subject matter under consideration. (Beijaard 2000). Given the complexities of different and interweaving values, linguistics, beliefs, experiences, and social forms from different personal and work-based roles, multiple professional identity formation is realised, often without much critical reflection, by the individual concerned (Gee 2001). The participants of this study were often categorised, by the college and by themselves, into three distinct areas of FE teaching (academic, professional and vocational) based on their previous roles, without thought or reflection on the complexities or overlapping nature of their new roles.

The literature relating to identity formation suggests that people move from one identity into another without much consideration for the change. Zizek (1989) uses a theoretical framework of symbolic and imaginary identification developed earlier by Lacan (1979) who explored the concept of identity formation of teachers. Both Zizek (ibid.) and Lacan (1979) omit to explore the concept of how people let go of previous identities, move to a new identity, and the elastic features of managing multiple identities.

Identity may be taken for granted by members of society who expect professionals, including teachers, to adopt an appropriate identity and behaviour when practising their profession (Jenkins 2008). People's identity is usually considered as being important to them and may be influenced by a sense of self and self-worth rather than their personal characteristics (Hog and Terry 2009). But the concept of identity is ambiguous, torn between many hard and soft meanings. The participants of this study have ties with their own previous occupations, self-understanding, stories, and historical events, which affect their future roles as FE teachers. They draw from previous experiences to support their teaching and the understanding of their students; they also draw from their experiences as employees in a different role. Individuals may feel secure in the identity they bring with them to their new role, but Hogg and Terry (2001) claim these features are often over-used in the new role to the point of limiting an individual's integration into their new role and creation of a new identity.

I argue throughout this study that people's identity causes people to act and behave in a certain way. The readings suggest people hold multiple identities based on social membership of different groups. For example, Tajifa and Turner (1979) argue people adopt multiple identities on the basis of membership of different reference groups to reduce uncertainty for themselves whilst enhancing their self-esteem. In this study the participants were able to identify with one or, in some cases, two groups of FE teachers, the academic, professional and vocational FE teachers, alongside membership of groups from previous occupations, referred to as subgroups (Jenkins 2011). As well as subgroups, Ashforth and Saks (1996) discuss the concept of the individual's identification with the organisation, or a psychological attachment to the organisation or profession. This raises interesting and somewhat conflicting concepts. Schie (2000) claims individuals identified more strongly with workgroups rather than the organisation as a whole. He further claims that it is the sense of distinctiveness of the workgroup which is more in common with people's vocations. Professional identity is a complex concept. Hogg and Terry (2001) list nineteen elements, five relevant to this study, including specialist education, competence testing, code of conduct, and previous experience. Multiple professional identities are likely to draw on an individual's life experiences causing even greater complexity for the role of the FE teacher.

Change Agency

Following the 1992 Further and Higher Education Act (http://www.legislation.gov.uk), FE college incorporation was introduced, freeing colleges from local authority control. Since incorporation there has been a drive towards a market led approach in terms of college management. A recent result of the reforms laid out in the Act was a move towards the development of change agency in FE colleges. This transition was popularised by the concept of learning organisations and, in more recent times, the notion of communities of practice (Dierkes 2001).

The concept of change is a significant aspect of the role of a change agent and the philosophy of change agency. According to Mosko (2001), change agency is a syncretic category of human action, attempting to reconcile opposing practices. Current models of teacher training attempt to merge contradictory

traditions of learning and development by means of augmenting class-based learning and practical teaching-skills development. Its true ontological and epistemological centre is based in the enactments of professional practice that do not fully comply with the expected practice of realism or the limitations of reflectivity.

The term agency is an ephemeral concept and difficult to define. Agency is described by Emirbayer and Mische (1998) as the temporally constructed engagement by social actors of differing structural environments. Agency is the progressive interpersonal context of action which is achieved through the interaction of habit, imagination and judgement. This perspective clearly reflects the participants of this study in terms of their own situations and experiences of teacher education, and the relationships and interactions they have with their own students. Emirbayer and Mische's (ibid.) definition is set in a social interaction and a structured environment, similar to that of an educational establishment.

Caldwell (2003) explains four distinct discourses which provide a theoretical framework used to explore the concept of change agency.

1. The diversity of existing theory and competing discourses.
2. Developing a perspective of the nature of change agency.
3. Exploring the difficulties in developing theories of change.
4. Indicating future areas of empirical research.

Whilst Caldwell's theory explains the four discourses, it does not offer an overreaching theoretical perspective. Archer (2003) refers to Caldwell's four elements as a new paradigm for sociological investigations, whilst supporting the concept. Van de Ven (1998) stresses the importance of not separating change agency and the change agent in future research. Caldwell (2003.), Archer (2003) and Van de Ven (1998) developed their ideas from Lewin's (1947) early work on organisational development, claiming that elements of change agency are synonymous with the traditions of organisational behaviour and development. This includes individual characteristics of rationality, subject expertise, autonomy and reflectivity. These elements are considered as underpinning skills of FE teachers, although not overtly considered in current teacher education programmes. Change agency is also described (within the context of a professional community of practice) as a process in which we play a dynamic and crucial role in shaping our own structures and processes, whether we are aware of

doing this or not (Herda 1999, p25). Herda (ibid.) agrees with Curzon (1992) that an initial notion of change has its roots firmly in behaviourism as a concept of stimulus and response. Professional agency is described by Herda (ibid.) and supported by Tergan (1997) as a feeling of responsibility for the profession; acting in a professional, competent and ethical manner. Professional agency also includes the members holding professional and academic credentials, recognised by the host organisation. Institutional agency is described as a felt responsibility to promote the objectives of the host organisation, aligning the members and organisational values. Boyer (1990) warns that institutional agency could reflect tension between the organisation and personal values.

Schwiner *et al* (2007) produce four tentative images of change agency in an educational context: interpersonal, professional, institutional and societal; clearly linking intentional learning and operational aspects of learning. Interpersonal agency is identified by the commitment made by the employing organisation. The role and significance of change agents in teaching is a feature of teacher training. Throughout the 1980s 'the change master' and 'transformational leadership' positively described change agents as charismatic heroes of radical corporate transformation that sought to destroy rigid and inflexible structures (Caldwell 2003, p131). The disciplines of leadership and teaching both advocate the extraordinary qualities and traits associated with leaders and teachers. Curzon (1992) claims teachers are considered to be leaders and managers of the learning process whilst also adopting the role of agents of change. Change agents/teachers play a significant role in initiating, managing or implementing change in a school or college and need the skills to get all people individually affected by the proposed change involved. Lewin's (1947) rationalist concept of a change agent as an expert facilitator is particularly relevant to the role of a teacher, as effective change agents are rational decision makers who objectively examine all available information before making decisions. In contrast, Day and Harris (1997) and Lorde (1984) argue that change agents adhere to a limited capacity of information processing in problem-solving situations, they also claim that information that does not make immediate sense, or does not fit into a change agent's prevailing representations, is likely to be ignored. When confronted with problems, change agents draw on established inventories of heuristics to guide the decision-making process. Heuristics (evidence-based, problem-solving techniques) involve instinctive

methods of structuring understanding and solving problems, however the results tend to produce biased judgements and may not be recognised by the change agent. Harris and Massholder (1990) describe three common heuristics in problem identification which are: representativeness, availability, and anchoring and adjustment.

The representativeness heuristic reflects the tendency for the individual to assess an occurrence by matching it with pre-existing experiences. The availability heuristic reflects the tendency of change agents to judge the likelihood of an occurrence by the ease with which the information concerning the occurrence is recalled. According to Bedeian (1993), frequent events are accordingly given higher probability of occurring because they are easier to recall than events that happen less frequently. Armenakis (1992) claims the availability heuristic can lead to poor decisions being made and that other factors can influence recall. Armenakis (ibid.) also highlights further problems with recent event recall which could be emotive and in the public domain. Thus the teacher as an agent of change, recently involved in a special project, may underestimate the likelihood of damage to other areas of professional practice. Bedeian (ibid.) stresses the importance for change agents (participants in this study) to be sure that the occurrence being recalled is the one being forecast. Curzon (1992) and Race (2001) maintain the essential aspect of a teacher's professional development is to master the art of reflective practice in order to shape future development; clearly there is a danger of conflicting approaches for developing FE teachers when asked to reflect on critical incidents throughout the initial stages of professional practice. The purpose of reflective practice is to help the novice develop a repertoire of events which shapes his or her future practice. The anchoring and adjustment heuristic involves setting an initial neutral point (anchor) and then making adjustments to the value in arriving at a final decision. Psychologically the anchor is essential as it defines the limits of future decisions. Teachers may be influenced by an early diagnosis/opinion of a student group; this may be taken as the natural starting point from which further adjustments/judgements will differ. Judgements based on this principle are often found to be insufficient because they ignore the relevant criteria for establishing a true starting point.

The concept of change agency does not fit with college structures that operate tall, hierarchical organisational structures, or operate a scientific management ethos based on Taylorsism. FW Taylor (1915) was instrumental in the development of autocratic/scientific management styles in the 1900s. Working with Henry Ford, he revolutionised the car manufacturing industry by automating a production line, with little concern for the welfare of the people who worked at the Ford Motor Company. Dierkes (2001) challenges the use of the Fordism approach in educational management; he refers to organisational structures that are top-down as high risk and vulnerable to failure. He perceives autocratic management as having negative effects and restrictions on the development of new teachers and posing constraints on the development of professionalism in FE teaching.

The concept of change agency recognises and responds to the decline in central control; in this study it is the removal of local authority control of FE colleges which inadvertently promotes the concept of change agency. Dierkes (ibid.) also claims the autocratic top-down management approach is too high risk for any one organisation or individual to lead. In contrast, Emirbayer and Misches' (1998) definition of agency clearly sets it in a social interactive and structured environment. Change agents operate on systems of information, operating systems, networks and processes of learning created from devolved autonomy.

Consolidating this section of the literature review, I claim that FE teachers operate as change agents within the context of a sophisticated agency. Current literature refers to bureaucratic and autocratic college management as a factor which stifles FE teachers' professionalism and restricts change agents from practising within. There are contrasting viewpoints in terms of organisational structure, however I further claim that the current process of FE teacher training does not reflect the complexity of change and change agency, nor does it prepare new FE teachers for future challenges of teaching and supporting students.

Learning Cultures

Related to the concept of change agency is the evolution of learning cultures in the FE teaching sector. Learning cultures are complex and multifaceted entities, made by social beings, systems and processes. McAllister (2007) describes a learning culture as a comprehensive curriculum with an overall objective to help students to learn how to realise their own aspirations. Learning cultures are based on three general principles and students can achieve high standards provided there are sufficient learning resources. This study seeks to gain an understanding of how new FE teachers develop their skills and knowledge of teaching and learning and developing a new professional identity within the context of a learning culture. McAllister (ibid.) offers an important aspect of learning and development by stressing the importance of student autonomy – accepting responsibility for their own learning whilst engaging in social interactions.

Herda (1999) supports McAllister (2007) by adding that the development of learning cultures promotes student engagement but requires high levels of critical analysis in terms of establishing students' needs, outcomes, access to opportunity, and social and cultural factors. Rogoff (1999) claims that participation in learning hinges on communication between the members of a group sharing and understanding common goals. Tergan (1997) believes that learning is most effective if it is embedded in social experiences, a position shared by Campbell *et al* (2007) who refers to the shaping of professional practice and identity in social and cultural contexts. She continues to promote a philosophy of supporting the relationship between student and teacher, emphasising moral dimensions and actions or decisions. Tergan (1997) Herda (1999), Rogoff (1999), McAllister (2007), and Campbell (2007) all agree that a significant feature of effective learning and development is communication between student and teacher. They also agree that student engagement with a range of differing social contexts and high levels of student critical analysis is a factor of effective learning cultures. Although I accept the established features (communication, critical analysis, and relationships) of a learning culture, this study will explore the ways in which FE teacher training programmes promote and support the features of effective learning cultures.

Scope for improvement in FE teaching and learning has been a feature of policy-makers' objectives, not only for students who could and can do better, but for continuous improvement in FE teaching, learning and assessment, which is relevant to all involved. The DfES (1998) presented a radical vision for the future of the lifelong learning sector (FE sector). The Labour government published a green paper which presented a vision of FE as a learning culture.

> "Learning is about more than employment. The development of a learning culture will help build a united society, assist in the creation of personal independence and encourage creativity and innovation."
>
> (DfEE 1998, p10)

Following on from the green paper, the Lietch review of skills (2006) narrowed the policy statement of 1998 to a list of economically viable skills. Coffield (2007) naively (by his own admission) interpreted the DfEE policy statement as an intervention by the government to enhance the independence, creativity, and innovation of FE teachers and support staff. The focus of FE in the past ten years has been on student learning, downplaying the significance of teachers and teaching. The development of audit cultures and technological advancements may have an effect on the number of new recruits joining the FE teaching profession.

Hodkinson (2004) stated:

> "We should be employing fewer teachers … over the next few years information technology will revolutionise our schools and colleges and the use of interactive software could replace more formal lessons."
>
> (Hodkinson ibid., p10)

In contrast Coffileld (2007) argues that teaching and learning are not two separate functions of the educational process, but are clearly intertwined elements of a single, reciprocal process; a process which transforms both the teacher and learner. Vygotsky (1987) and, later, Menter (2010) refer to FE teachers as the tutor, one who enables students to operate just beyond their established capabilities and to consolidate this experience as a new ability and understanding. It is this viewpoint which requires further investigation: the ways new FE teachers help their students to achieve their career aspirations whist constructing professional identity in an ethos of change and continuous improvement. Juran

(1985) refers to organisations that strive for continuous improvement as learning organisations and cultures.

Although the participants were subjected to the teaching (identical circumstances), student teachers had different experiences because they were positioned differently within the learning culture and have different educational backgrounds. Learning cultures exist through the actions, dispositions and interpretations of the participants, developing through interaction and communication produced and re-produced by individuals, just as much as the individuals are produced by learning culture. Coffield (2007) argues that the individual teacher's actions and behaviours was neither totally determined by the learning culture nor could they be described as totally free from the influences of the learning culture.

The cultural approach to learning aims to understand the kinds of learning that are made possible as a result of the construction and structure of the learning culture. This study questions how the teaching of new teachers determines learning and how this learning experience helps students of FE realise their own career aspirations. Learning cultures are not static, described by Robson (2006) as a series of interrelated social practices that depend on what people do and are therefore subjected to continuous change.

Reflective Practice and Reflectivity

Following on from the concept of learning cultures, this section examines the concept of reflective learning. Schon (1983) describes two aspects of reflective learning: in action, and on action; in which learners consider and evaluate their actions as they are doing them and again after completion. Eraut (1994) argues that reflection and the deliberate processes of reflection are central to professional work, involving intuition and analytical skills. Meta-learning (part of reflection) is about helping learners to make the connection between thinking, learning actions, and behaviours engaging in strategic thinking (Jackson 2004). Jackson (ibid.) also makes a distinction between learning and meta-learning: "Learning assists the process of making sense of experience, meta-learning is making sense of learning". Meyer and Norton (2004) argue that it is important to learn about subject content, epistemologies and the

discipline. The FE teacher training programme is a space where learning, research, and practice about learning and teaching come together.

Eraut (1994) claims that professional teachers, as all other professionals, adapt knowledge according to the circumstances in which they find themselves. This form of action, used by the most successful teachers, confers status on practical rather than academic learning. Professionals seek effective action in the form of the realisation of ideas and the development of practice, rather than for its own sake. In this view, knowledge is constructed. Erut (1994) raises two important issues: how practical knowledge is acquired through experience; and the ways the practical experience is made explicit. Practical knowledge is understood not only to be experiential but also complex, unpredictable, contextualised and difficult to generalise. These perspectives suggest that professionals face many potential difficulties in acquiring knowledge which does not easily translate into general propositions and is therefore considered inferior.

Scott (2004) categorises the types of knowledge into two distinct areas: academic and practical. He explains how novice practitioners construct new knowledge in the workplace and academic cultures, highlighting the difficulties in equating academic and practitioner knowledge and in order to clarify the differences between the two. Scott (ibid.) also identifies four different models of knowledge, indicating disciplinary knowledge as the main theoretical and methodological framework. He also illustrates the ways the discipline in question separates a theorist from a non-theorist. This is an interesting and relevant factor clearly related to this study as I aim to separate the academic teacher from the vocational teacher, exploring new and retrieving existing knowledge.

Within a disciplinary knowledge model, objective and authorised knowledge dominates practical knowledge; practical knowledge is often viewed as inferior since it does not associate with the ideas of truth objectivity or epistemological authority. Scott (2004) goes on to identify dispositional and trans-disciplinary knowledge as non-predicable, non-deterministic, situation-specific and contextualised events (Scott ibid., p48). This model is referred to as practitioner knowledge, emerging through practice in specific and dynamic contexts of professional practice. This model also involves practitioners

engaging with a continuous cycle of deliberation and actions that cannot be transformed in the process into generalised accounts. These are relevant positions since the participants in this study will rely on experiences from previous occupations to inform future professional practice.

Since the rationale for acquiring practical forms of knowledge is to inform the development of an individual professional practice, Scott (2004), supported by Eraut (1994), stresses that practitioners' knowledge is experiential and is in continuous development. Scott (ibid.) and Eraut (ibid.) identify practical knowledge as learner led through experience, with an emphasis on deliberation or reflection to develop a practitioner perspective, which is relevant to the research questions of this thesis. I argue that it is the participant's experiences that contribute to the acquisition of new academic, discipline-based and practical knowledge, and experiences must be reflected on as well as the participant's specific actions. The actions demonstrate a commitment to continuous professional development and lifelong learning.

Mezirow (1995) claims there are seven different levels of reflection, including 'reflectivity' described as an awareness of personal behaviours and their meaning. Continuing to analyse the different levels of reflection, Mezirow (ibid.) discusses the ways reflective practitioners make use of the affective reflectivity of learning by identifying how they feel about the events under examination. Discriminant and judgmental reflectivity is used to assess the effectiveness and value of the experience within the process of reflection. This approach will be useful in this study for my own reflections and those of the participants. Mezrirow (ibid.) goes on to explain the notions of conceptual and theoretical reflectivity, by making judgements and classifying those judgements. He discusses the ways that habits are formed by the reflective practitioner, and refers to this as 'psychic reflectivity'. Argyris and Schon (1974) identify one of the key ingredients of successful reflection as:

> "developing one's own continuing theory of practice under real-time conditions."
> (Argyris and Schon ibid., p157)

This is both relevant and useful within the scope of my own study – that participants are able to reflect on theories of reflection and reflectivity, which will in turn lead to their accomplishments. This perspective adds a further important aspect to my study given that participants, as well as myself, will

draw on contextual thoughts regarding which aspects of FE teaching work, and why. Consolidating the process, the reflective practitioner will then be able to relate changes in personal behaviour to both college norms and to FE student expectations. (Brookfield, 1986) argues that the process of reflection-in-action is an art whereby the reflective practitioner feels confident to make decisions and implement actions within their professional practice, based on intuition often without a rational reason.

Reeves (1994) provides further clarification on the process of reflective practice by stating that while practitioners reflect on routine practices, events classed as surprises can cause practitioners to question their initial assumptions and subsequently try new things. Reeves (ibid.) further clarifies this type of reflection as learning in action, a significant feature of this case study. Learning in action demands heightened levels of self-awareness, as well as an ability to reflect during and after the event has occurred. Drawing on a surreptitious agenda and unconscious internal drivers can cause the practitioner to deal with events in ways that meet the needs of the ego rather than the needs of the event or circumstance (Reeves ibid.). Here, Reeves is referring to the emotional intelligence levels of practitioners by identifying drivers which may affect their actions. By identifying personal needs, preferences, perceptions and emotions as important factors, Reeves is thus highlighting the importance of practitioners' awareness of surreptitious agendas under conscious control. It is expected that the participants in this study will learn from experience and develop observable practical skills in FE teaching. These skills will be practiced and any judgements in terms of quality will be made by others. Shacklock and Smyth (1998) refer to the concept and practice of reflectivity as being built on ideology and historical power. They go on to suggest that attempts made by the practitioners to act on personal reflections, whilst also acknowledging the limitations of the process, tend to affect an overall change in behaviour and attitude. Factors affecting purposeful reflectivity include physical location, environment, theoretical context, and acquisition of new knowledge; while Ruby (1980) also stresses the importance of reflections being honest and ethically sound. Shacklock and Smyth (1998) further highlight that some experiences of the reflective process will result in changes in the practitioners' behaviour, thus gaining a new perspective whilst addressing the practitioners' feelings. This, they argue, will help practitioners to develop and build on their reflections turning them into positive action.

Summing up on the literature in this section, I claim that the teachers' perceptions of their professional identities will influence their sense of autonomy, competence, and resilience to change. The FE teachers' professional identity determines future professional practice, attitudes and responses to educational reform. It is also clear from this review that the attainment of a professional identity is not static; it represents a dynamic, non-linear and non-stable process through which teachers confirm and negotiate its on-going construction within the context of a learning culture and a climate of change.

This is the first study that examines FE teachers as change agents in changing situations, whilst attempting to conceptualise their own experiences of professional development through a process of reflectivity. This review of the literature also highlights gaps in unexplored although interconnected areas of developing the professional FE teacher. The professionalism in FE teaching and its relationship with change agency and learning cultures has not been examined before.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Introduction and Research Questions

This chapter defines, explains and justifies the methodological approaches and the methods used in the research study, drawing on the readings which have informed my choices. The study is exploratory, within an interpretive framework. This research is generally qualitative in nature, examining the changing professional identities of FE teachers and their behaviours as change agents, whilst assessing the appropriateness of the current initial teacher training (ITT) programme. The participants of this study are a group of new FE teachers as they move through the current process of initial teacher training in the FE sector.

My motivation for this study developed from my role and experiences as a teacher trainer and from a passion to improve the quality of teaching and learning within the FE sector. Petty (2004), and earlier, Hergenhahn and Olson (1997), all acknowledged that the FE sector lacked rigour in teaching and learning and, as a consequence, failed to develop a range of teaching and learning theories, including cooperative learning.

The intention of this study was to conduct an in-depth investigation into the experiences and perceptions of trainee FE teachers. The research was conducted within the context of a UK College of Further and Higher Education, using observational, interviewing and questioning techniques to explore the learning behaviours and views of a group of trainee FE teachers.

The research was conducted in one College of Further and Higher Education in England in which I work. My role at the college is that of a senior tutor and school talent champion, responsible for teaching on a range of higher education programmes within the school of higher education, and supporting new teachers in their new roles. The investigations were completed within the context of the natural professional environment. The specific objectives of naturalistic enquiry take an idiographic approach, maintaining the natural aspects of the enquiry, and are value-bound and qualitative.

Within this chapter I defend the use of an exploratory research design, using case study research. Bell (2011) claims it is the nature of the research question which determines the research design and the methods of investigation.

The objectives of this research are to:

- examine whether the current initial FE teacher training programme is fit for purpose;
- capture the participants' perceptions of their changing and multiple professional identities;
- learn how the participants felt about their roles as change agents;
- listen to the participants' narratives and discussions.

In order to meet the objectives, the following questions were addressed:

1. What are the experiences of student FE teachers as they seek to take on their new professional identity in education?
2. Do student FE teachers consider that the current FE Teacher Training programme meets their needs in managing multiple professional identities?
3. Do student FE teachers consciously take the role of change agents for their students?
4. Is the current initial teacher training programme fit for purpose?

Research Aims

This research aims to capture, interpret and explain how student FE teachers (the participants) make sense of their new professional experiences and developing professional identity through observation and interview. This observational approach also promotes high-quality, reflective practice by the participants, which is a requirement of the ITT programme. The data generated by participant reflection has also been used to validate the quality and accuracy of the empirical data collected through observation and questioning.

The nature of the investigation demonstrates a need to understand the individuals' definitions of the situation. These naturally occurring situations may be multiple realities, constructing results through interaction with the principal investigator and participant group.

Research Setting

The college is a large educational institution based in the east of England, providing a wide range of academic and vocational courses. The college attracts 1,500 higher education students, 17,000 further education students and 15,000 part-time students. The college is the second largest employer in the area, employing 620 teachers/lecturers and 1200 support staff. In 2012, the college joined a federation of colleges, academies, and an educational support company, forming a coalition which shares physical and human resources. The college operates on three sites; the main campus is suitably equipped with appropriate resources, one site is dedicated to the provision of higher education, whilst the other is dedicated to work-based learning provision.

Background to Methodological Approach

Newbury (2007) stresses the importance of distinguishing between epistemology and methodology by explaining the study of knowledge and the chosen philosophical standpoint researchers make. This study in some ways adopts a humanistic philosophy as a broad way of understanding the environment which is to be examined. The humanistic perspective is that people do not necessarily share the same view. An awareness of this perspective is vital in terms of this study as the participants have different perceptions and experiences of further education. In contrast to the positivist approach, humanistic enquiry is concerned with emotions, perceptions and understanding of social beings' environment, situations and experiences. Newbury (ibid.) argues that whilst a positivist approach will report the types of behaviours of the participants, it will not provide an understanding of the participants' viewpoints.

Interpretivists, including myself, argue that it is the subjective interpretation of reality by which that reality can be fully understood. According to Cresswell (2012), the study of social beings in their natural environment is essential to the interpretivist philosophy. The application of this philosophical approach is achieved by researching FE teachers within classrooms and other learning environments in which they teach. The paradigm of interpretivism is the overarching philosophical approach and that which is used to design the study and identify the methods used to gather and analyse data, and generate meaning

from the research results, some of which are based upon personal views and comparisons with past studies.

Philosophers refer to research as logical reasoning (Trochim, 2006). Trochim's perspective results in the basic assumption of logical reasoning being carried forward to contemporary research. This study uses inductive approaches to develop a theoretical framework which relates to the core research questions.

The interpretive approach is often linked to the work of Weber (1897), who suggested that social sciences are concerned with understanding compared with a process of explaining. Weber (ibid.) argues that this philosophy is the hallmark of the natural sciences. The methods of data collection in this study are associated with the philosophical approach of interpretivism and include observation, interviews and questionnaires. This mixed method approach will be used to improve the validity of the chosen methods through a process of triangulation. Newbury (2007) and Easterby-Smith *et al* (2006) argue that the validity of research instruments is to test if the design measures what it purports to measure.

This study aims to gain an in-depth understanding of the impacts new FE teachers have in helping their own students realise their career aspirations. It is also concerned with the appropriateness of the current FE model of teacher training. As new FE teachers change from one profession (such as construction or hairdressing) to the profession of college teacher, concepts of professionalism and changing professional identities of new FE teachers are also examined.

At the start of this study, I considered a number of interpretive methodological approaches, including ethnography, phenomenology and case study. The need to gain an understanding of the group of trainee FE teachers as they learned their new professional roles and influenced their students' development led me to the choice of case study to enable an exploration of this group using a range of data collection methods.

Justification for Qualitative Research

Debating in which philosophical paradigm to place this research I considered Dewey's (1931) statement:

> "The world in which we immediately live, that in which we strive, succeed are defeated is pre-eminently a qualitative world. What we act for, suffer and enjoy are things in their qualitative determinations."
>
> (Dewey ibid., 1931)

The world of the participants as they become FE teachers is explored in this study. The way the participants of this study experience and interact with the ITT programme is also explored. The participants have sensed and perceived an array of personal experiences, events, and phenomena whilst training; I bring the results/data to a conscious level. Kester-Baun (1977) referred to their research acts as a process, as one of qualification, arguing that it is through the process of analysis that the meaning of the world comes into being. The experiences and thoughts of the participants and myself are clearly linked. I capture the results of events and the thoughts qualitatively, although some quantitative data is used to set the context and rationale for further enquiry. Social Science research is described as messy and often providing no single solution (Higgs *et al* 2009).

This research has revealed the growing complexity of FE teaching and the ways of conceptualising the results. It is not the intention to test cause and effect of any chosen phenomena, but I seek an understanding of the world of FE teaching, the growing complexity of professionalism in teaching, and the changing professional identity of the participants. Denzin and Lincoln (2003) referred to the move towards qualitative research in social sciences as a quiet methodological revolution. Researchers have replaced experiments, surveys, and the use of statistics with ethnography, unstructured interviews, and textual analysis. The use of case study research has increased within the field of education in the last decade. It is the flexibility of case study research and the ways of in-depth examination of the results which informed my decision to undertake this approach.

The use of case study research can be traced back to 1829 and the work of French Economist, La Play. La Play (1829) examined the economic conditions of working class people. Yin (2004) and Stake (1995) introduced the use of case study research in the field of education. Creswell (1998) and Merriam (2009) identified case study research as a primary research methodology in qualitative studies, highlighting the use of case study research within the field of education and health. Merriam (ibid.) outlines two distinct interpretations of case study research, claiming that qualitative research and case study are not synonymous, although confined to single groups. Sandelowski and Baroso (2002) stresses that case studies are not case studies when there are too many extensive cases for intensive study. I argue that the use of a case study approach for this study delineates the scope of the study. Cresswell (1998) argues that case study research is unique as it embraces methodological approaches such as ethnography, grounded theory and phenomenology. This approach has made it difficult to place the use of case study research philosophically. Yin (2007) claims a case is essentially empirical inquiry that investigates contemporary phenomena within its real life.

Addressed within this study is the history of the chosen case, the nature, the physical setting, and the important political and legal influences as outlined by Wolcott (1992). This is the first study which addresses the concepts of changing FE teacher identity and professionalism in teaching whilst examining the current teacher education programme in terms of whether it is fit for purpose.

Justification for Use of Case Study Approach

Bassey (2009), Pole and Morrison (2007), and Newberry (2007) agree that there is no set formula in terms of designing case study research; it is the research questions and emerging themes which influence the design of the case study. Bassey (2009) argues that the case study is a distinctive form of empirical enquiry appropriate for observational and exploratory enquiry. According to Bassey (ibid.) there are three types of case study: theory seeking, theory testing, and storytelling. According to Stake (1995), case studies are not only exploratory but also explanatory. This study provides a case study of new FE teachers working in one college in terms of their professional development and changing professional

identity as they influence their students' career development. It seeks to explore issues using a range of methods and to provide a rich and detailed account of these issues.

Gerring (2011) explains that case study research is used as a methodological framework, but is pragmatically used to examine a single unit or group in depth, and is usually conducted as a longitudinal study. According to Stake (1995), and Collis and Hussey (2009), a case study is a methodology that is used to explore the complexity of a single case using a variety of data collection methods. For this study, the group, or 'case', for in-depth research is new FE teachers working in one college and data is being collected over the entire period of the participants' teacher training programme; so it could be described as longitudinal in design. The study is designed to generate data from a number of methods, and aims to seek new theoretical perspectives. Yin (2007) discusses the merits of conducting case study research, and the value of using a range of methods including observation and interviews. The ease of access to the participants was a significant factor in the decision to use a case study approach as well as its ability to generate valuable data.

Brady and Collier (2004) express concern about case study research in that they claim it lacks rigour as some case study researchers fail to follow systematic procedures and allow equivocal evidence or biased views to influence the direction of findings and conclusions. Further concern expressed by Garvin (2003), and shared by Stake (1995), is that case studies provide little basis for epistemological generalisation. Yin (2009) provides further explanation, claiming it is impossible to generalise from a single case. Yin (2009) draws a comparison from the natural science domain and argues the results from a single experiment cannot be generalised. Yin (2009) outlines a further disadvantage of conducting case studies, claiming that they take too much time to complete.

These are common criticisms of all qualitative research, not just case study research (Flyvbjerg 2006). It is the responsibility of the qualitative researcher to ensure the research design is robust, generating data that is trustworthy and credible. I have ensured this by attention to the following: triangulation of data collection methods, so that a richer picture is produced; detailed descriptions of the case being researched, so that other researchers are clear about the extent of the study undertaken; recognition of

my role as an insider researcher; being aware of, and reducing, the potential for bias; and taking care not to make unwarranted generalisations from the findings.

I was acutely aware of the dangers of relying on one method of data collection (outlined by Brady and Collier 2004) which could have resulted in the data being generated providing a limited view of the case. I have selected interviews, observations and participant-completed questionnaires as research methods which will capture empirical data through exploratory techniques. This strategy of mixed method approaches provides opportunities to produce a rich picture of the case in question, and to validate and triangulate research findings.

Jick (1979) refers to triangulation of research methods to ensure validity and reliability of empirical data. The concept of triangulation has been considered within this study; the methods outlined, including observation and group and individual interview, form the data-collection strategies for this qualitative research, after which I have sought to verify the results from one method with the results from another. Brewer and Hunter (2006) advocate the use of different methods to compensate for any shortcomings of mono methods and the need to fully exploit their respective benefits. Secondary data will be obtained from professional and academic organisations to provide evidence in contextualisation, to seek to understand the attitudes and behaviours of the participants whilst undertaking a process of verification through comparison of individual views and research data, thus seeking validation of results from a variety of research methods.

Sudman and Broadburn (1982), and in more recent times Garvin (2003), warn of bias unknowingly entering into the design of the case study, but point out that bias is more apparent in questionnaire design and less frequently overcome. The advantage of conducting a case study is that it will "close in on real-life situations and test views directly in relation to phenomena as they unfold in practice" (Collis and Hussey, 2009). According to Campbell (1975), Ragin (1992), Geertz (1995), Wieviorka (1992), Flyvbjerg (1998, 2006), and others, researchers who have conducted intensive, in-depth case studies typically report that their preconceived views, assumptions, concepts, and hypotheses were wrong and that the case material compelled them to revise their hypotheses on certain essential points.   For me,

the potential for bias relates to the fact that as an insider I may not be sensitive to the data, and may only see what I was looking for (Garvin 2003). I have specifically built in checks to examine the data and re-examine the data looking for alternative explanations, so that the findings generated will be based only on the data

The research is taking place in my own place of work, an organisation constructed from a range of diverse communities of practice. During the fieldwork stage, I became aware of my own changing and multiple professional identities, one as an academic researcher and one as a practising senior FE teacher. The fact that I am a member of staff enabled me to understand the social and cultural values of the college and those of the participants. Influenced by Vygotsky (1966), who placed emphasis on the social context of the learning process, the design of this study includes the use of observational and reflective techniques, and promotes dialogue with the participants. Ronald and Wicks (1996) refer to the design of this kind of study as insider research as the researcher is a member of the participants' formal group. The participants of this study are following a formal ITT programme, which in itself provides a context for learning.

Research Ethics

From 2010 my role as a Senior Tutor was to support new FE teachers in their new roles. I was responsible for mentoring trainees and those teachers requiring support. These FE teachers form the participant group in my research study. It was apparent that the new FE teachers were novice research participants and the presence of a power relationship between myself and the participants may have caused some harm to the participants. There are many reasons why research ethics are important; the moral integrity of the research is critically important to ensure the research process and findings are trustworthy and valid. A significant reason as to why ethical practices are adhered to is to promote the objectives of the research project, including the attainment of new knowledge, whilst avoiding error or harm, in an honest and open manner. Ethical practice in research has a long history. In 1880 Hansen discovered the leprosy bacillus, but was expelled from medicine as he failed to gain consent from one participant in his study. The results of his work were deemed invalid as a result of the participant's

complaints, regardless of the obvious benefits to many. According to Ruyter (2009), scientific communities have always operated within a self-imposed ethical regulation in respect of social norms and general ethics.

Figure 3.1 below outlines BERA's (2011) ethical code of practice which has been applied throughout the course of this study. Newby (2010) outlines the researcher's responsibilities including academic honesty in relation to accurate reporting of the data collected and the level of researcher responsibility for others involved. Newby (2010) also questions whether researchers should report evidence of criminality. The participants in this study have authority over and access to young people and adults. In the case of this study, should any criminal activity or child protection issue have come to my attention during the research, I would have had no choice but to report such activity to higher authorities. I made this clear to the potential research participants before they were invited to participate. The college operates rigorous safeguarding polices to protect young people and vulnerable adults; I have a legal obligation to report any incident which may harm students of the college. I did however engage with a deontological approach, choosing not to disclose information to others when the participants made technical mistakes.

Shaw (2009) is very clear in his perspective of ethical practice in qualitative research. He claims there is a risk of compartmentalising ethical aspects of research and shutting them off into a preamble to the research (Shaw 2009, p10). I agree that this could be an issue, and have avoided compartmentalising ethics. Instead, I have followed Peled and Leichtentritt (2002) who argue an ethical standpoint should be part of all aspects of educational research. I have adopted this view throughout this study by ensuring no person involved in the research will come to any physical, emotional, professional or psychological harm.
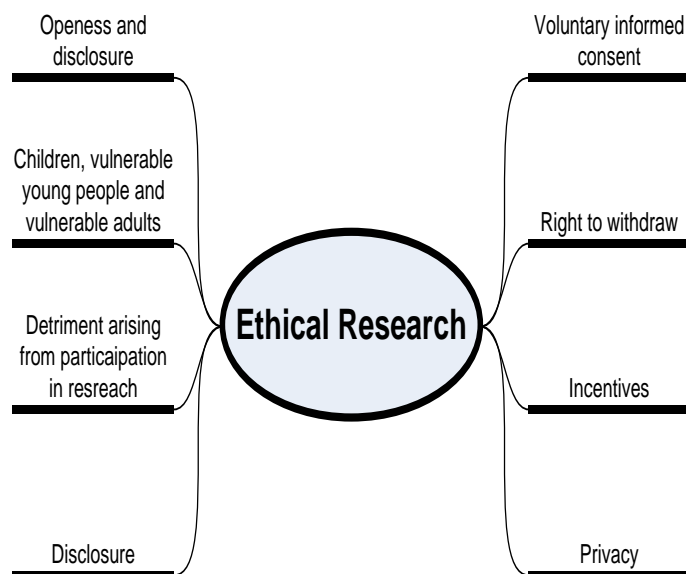
Figure 3.1 Ethical Research. Source BERA (2011)

I also gained permission from the principal of the college to conduct the research and gained approval from the university's research ethics committee.

A formal introduction to the research was made during the Diploma in Teaching course induction, from which I recruited the participants; and my justification for completing this research was presented to the group of trainee students. The introductory presentation (Appendix A) was the first stage of the process to ensure ethical research. One aim of the presentation was to establish an ethically sound framework, ensuring my research activities fully complied with the university's and the college's policies on research ethics. I wanted to meet all the potential participants and provide an opportunity for the trainee teachers (participants) to question the purpose of my research and choose whether or not to participate. All trainee teachers agreed to participate in the research activities. It was explained that my role within this research was that of primary investigator and not that of formal teacher education tutor or a staff mentor. Newberry (2010) explain the complexities of power relationships in a research environment and the ways in which a power relationship can frustrate the quality and accuracy of the research data. I took care to avoid such dangers. The presentation included a full explanation of the context and reasons for the research, including an outline of the ethical dilemmas, and was delivered in a seminar forum.

The figure below captures the feedback from the participants' plenary meeting (a screen-shot of the electronic marker board), which has informed a self-imposed ethical framework.
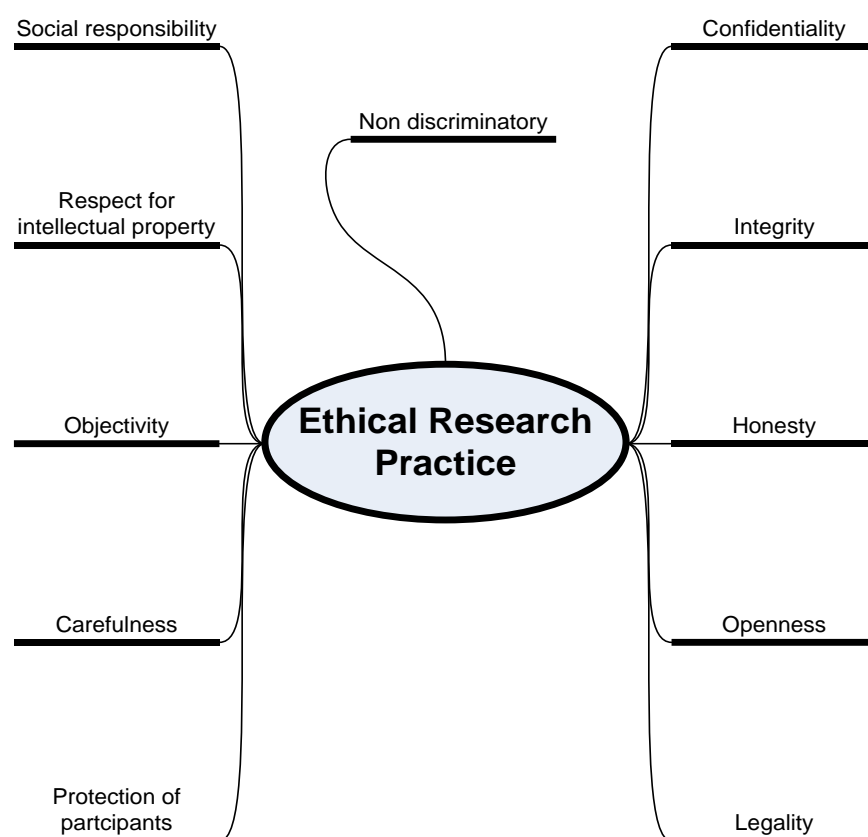
Figure 3.2 Model representing the self-imposed and devised ethical framework used throughout the study

A concern throughout this study was to gain voluntary informed consent from the participants by ensuring they were fully aware of their roles, rights, and responsibilities within the context of the study. All participants were provided with information about the purpose and scope of the research in written and verbal formats (Appendix B).

The participants had been given an opportunity to opt into the research before enrolling onto the Diploma in Teaching course. An email had been sent, outlining the nature of the research with an invitation to a briefing meeting. A reminder to the trainee teachers (participants) about their proposed involvement in the research took the form of a letter containing a participant consent form, personal email and, in addition, an announcement was uploaded onto the students' individual learning plans

advising them of their proposed involvement in this research and their right to withdraw from the research process without reason. Finally, as outlined above, the proposed research activity was presented to the potential participants at the formal course induction. The participants gave consent in written and verbal formats (Appendix B).

The participants' respective students are aged from 16 to 19 and above, however they are NOT the participants of this study. The setting of the research (the college) follows strict operational codes of practice and conduct in terms of child protection and the protection of vulnerable adults, which provided an additional ethical, professional and legal framework. It was my responsibility to reinforce ethical and moral codes of practice throughout this study.

Ethics or morals are considered as a set of rules which outline the difference between right and wrong (Newby 2010). Most professions have norms and codes of conduct and researchers' responsibilities are clearly described in the British Educational Research Association (BERA) and the British Sociological Association codes of conduct.

The term ethicism was used by Hammersley (2002) when he attempted to describe the characteristics of ethical practice as part of contemporary qualitative research, moving away from knowledge production to social justice. The protection of the participants' welfare is a significant aspect of all research activities, reflecting Hammersley's (ibid.) position and my commitment to adopting a deontological approach to the research activity. The BERA Charter (2011) refers to researchers as professionals, that they should be treated as such and that these qualities should be reflected in the treatment of the participants. This study will rely on the collection of rich data by close observation and interviewing of the participants whilst training and practising. The purpose is to develop an understanding of the participants' perspectives whilst recognising the ethical dilemmas.

As an employee of the college and a researcher, there were possible conflicts of professional interest. The Teacher Development Manager agreed to help and act as the college gatekeeper by ensuring the welfare of the participants was not compromised. Gaining informed consent is demonstrating respect for personhood. Mason (1996) suggests there are two core features: in-depth engagement between the

researcher and the participants, which could evoke sensitive and sensitising information; and considering what the data contains and how it will be used. Morrison and Galloway (1996) warn that the research interests could change direction as the research progresses. Silverman (2011) concurs with Pole (2003) and Mason (1996) that framing of ethnographic and case study in the early stages is essential, using approved and robust ethical frameworks.

The first of three stages is to decide on the purpose of the research, examine the potential participants and those who may be affected, and to consider the implications of the results on the interested parties. The BERA (2011) guidelines (although voluntary) outline the researchers' responsibilities which are applicable to this study.

1. Participants have the right to be informed of purpose, aims, and likely publications.
2. There should be honesty and openness between the researcher and participants.
3. The participants have the right to withdraw without reason.
4. Diversity and any other issues of individual differences should be embraced.

Adopting and applying this and my own self-imposed framework ensured that my identity as a researcher was clearly overt. I did consider conducting non-participant observations without informing the participants of my intentions in terms of data collection. Although this strategy would have minimised the Hawthorn effect and provided an accurate account of the participants' professional behaviour, Mayo (1924) argues that employees are more productive when they know they are being studied. The results of Mayo's studies disclosed an increase in worker productivity which was produced by the psychological stimulus of being singled out and made to feel important. The participants were expected to modify their behaviours to the perceived expectations of the observer. The presence of an observer promotes perceived best practice; the observer gets to see the best of the participants' professional behaviour (Silverman 2011). The results of Mayo's work in 1924 concluded that the researchers were not just investigating the effects of changing physical working conditions, they were inadvertently researching participant attitudes, values and norms. My relationship with the participants of this study developed to a state of mutual trust based on consistent application of the ethical research practices outlined in my own framework and assurances that the participants would not come to any harm as a result of participating in this study. Easterby-Smith *et al* (2008) explain that the observed will

develop a sense of trust with the observers as the studies progress. They also state that participants are social actors wishing to assume the role of experts.

Newby (2010) refers to covert ethnography as unequivocally wrong because it infringes on the participants' rights to informed consent. Ethnography and research is ethically complex: the participants could be referred to as social actors, willing to tell their individual stories without fear of recrimination. To protect the identities of the participants and to go beyond the obligations of the Data Protection Act (1998) the use of pseudonyms and measures to remove identifiers will be adopted to prevent the use of 'Broad-banding' or 'Micro-aggregation' as defined by Robson (2007):

> "Broad-banding is combining different identifying variables; Micro-aggregation is grouping observations and replacing with a single meaning."
> (Robson 2007, p208)

Robson (ibid.) also argues that research participants may be less likely to provide personal information if they could be identified. In contrast some participants may happy to be identified in areas of practice worthy of praise and recognition. Grinyer (2001) considers the apparent underestimated likelihood of research participants wishing to be acknowledged in published research thus enabling them to retain ownership of their stories (http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU36.htm).

Deontology and its theoretical perspectives suggests researchers should adhere to their obligations and duties when conducting empirical research. Kant's (1804) theory is an example of deontological, or duty-based, ethics: it judges morality by examining the nature of actions and the will of agents rather than goals achieved (deontological theory looks at inputs rather than outcomes). Adopting a deontological approach ensured consistency in my research behaviour. Deontology also recognises those who exceed their duties and obligations. Pole and Morrison (2003) refer to this approach as supererogation, a feature of the measures to protect all directly involved in the research process. Although deontology has many positive features there are a number of challenges, as there is no logical basis for deciding on my responsibilities as a researcher other than the guidelines issued by BERA. This consideration prompted the construction and implementation of additional measures to protect the participants from any harm, outlined in Figure 3.1. The BERA (2011) guidelines are

designed to protect the participants from physical and psychological harm; although the participants' professional and developing practice is under scrutiny by the college, I resisted intervening by not offering professional formative feedback throughout the research process.

Measor and Sikes (1992) recognise that research participants are not fearful victims; they open up their lives because they are asked to do so, but they have boundaries and personal strategies to protect themselves in research situations. I made a decision to observe the start of every lesson, attempting to capture the context of the lesson, but this was not always possible – room changes and class cancellations disrupted and frustrated the research plan. Capturing synchronous evidence from informal discussions and observations could have been viewed as unethical however; but the additional measures implemented and reinforced throughout the data collection process ensured the participants' protection from harm. Although the approach of capturing synchronous evidence generated rich accurate data, I was aware of the research objectives, the self-imposed ethical framework, and my role as a researcher and not as a supporter. As with any ethnographic study, interference by observers in the natural order of events would have frustrated the quality and trustworthiness of the data.

Participants and Sampling

The data was collected from a small group (22) of trainee FE teachers. The student teachers (referred to as the participants) were over the age of 21 and had the mental capacity to make an informed choice whether to participate in this research. The participants are diverse, coming from a range of different professional and vocational groups and having different educational backgrounds. Participants from graduate professions hold a first degree (level six qualification). Participants from vocational backgrounds, such as childcare, hairdressing and beauty therapy, and business management, hold A levels or equivalent qualifications (level three qualifications) in their respective subject areas. All participants hold a minimum of level two national qualifications in literacy, numeracy and ICT (equivalent to GCSE).

Participant Profile

Of the twenty-two participants who took part in this study, thirteen were female and nine were male. The data from two participants who withdrew from teaching, is included in this study. The college employed eighteen of the participants and regional training providers employed the other four participants at the time of the study.

Convenience sampling was used in this study. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010) describe convenience sampling as a method of drawing from elements of professional practice from a group that is easily accessible to the researcher. I work at the same college as the participants so access to the potential participants was relatively easy. The ethics of accessing one's own students as research participants is considered below in the ethics section. All twenty-two trainee FE teachers employed as lecturers by the college were invited to participate in the research. The inclusion criteria are: the college employs the participants; they are unqualified FE teachers; they are also enrolled on the Diploma in Teaching in the lifelong learning sector; and have consented to participate in the research.

Number of Participants	Curriculum Area
3	Hairdressing and Beauty Therapy
5	Higher Education: 2 Business Management, 2 Health and Social Care, 1 Humanities
4	Health and Social Care
4	Visual and Performing Arts
2	Natural Sciences
1	Business Studies
1	Construction
1	Motor Vehicle Maintenance
1	Information Technology

Figure 3.3. Participant teaching areas

Methods

Introduction

A number of methods were used to collect data: observations of teaching practice; in-depth, semi-structured interviews; focus groups; questionnaires. This summary of the research methods discusses the inductive approach used, and illustrates the sequence of research activities. Although this study is generally qualitative in nature there is a small amount of quantitative data gathered. This data was used to formulate lines of enquiry in future qualitative interviews. The convergence of qualitative and quantitative paradigms is often ignored. Brannen and Bell (2007) argues that qualitative and quantitative research are fundamentally different and incompatible, however he claims the overlap between the two paradigms is unavoidable in contemporary research. The mixed method approach in research reduces the need for specialisation in each of the paradigms. Changes in methodology can be traced back to the 1990s when universities were subjected to market forces, competition, pressure from funders for social science research to inform social policies rather than scientific enquiry, and an increasing number of people undertaking master's degrees from a diverse student population. These changes required exposure to a wider range of research methods, often mixing qualitative and quantitative methods.

The methodological design of this thesis was based on the context of each phase of the research process. Quantitative data was gathered though questionnaires. The early phases of the research aimed to identify trends within the three sub-groups of the participants; for example, one line of enquiry was whether all vocational teachers shared a similar view of their professional identity. In the early phases of the research process I used quantitative data to examine the frequency of the participants' responses to a particular line of enquiry. In an attempt to elaborate on the quantitative data, I moved to a qualitative approach to seek deeper clarification and rationales. Brannen (ibid.) claims it is the kind of questions we ask which not only leads to the method used but, increasingly, to a complex range of data collection methods. Augmenting the results from qualitative and quantitative methods Morgan (1998) claims that when combining data collection methods there are four possible outcomes:

> "Corroboration: the same results are derived from both quantitative and qualitative methods.
> Elaboration: the qualitative analysis exemplifies the quantitative findings.

> Complementarity: the qualitative and quantitative results differ but together they provide insight.
>
> Contradiction: where qualitative data and quantitative findings conflict."
>
> (Morgan, ibid.)

A 'pure qualitative' approach (Patton, 2009) was adopted when conducting interviews, focus groups, and observations, using exploratory inquiry methods, qualitative data collection and an interpretive approach, and case study analysis. Overall, the research approach fits with the class of social science research methods described as interpretive field studies (Klein and Myers 1999). Other qualitative researchers adopting these methodologies in educational research include those discussed by Weick (1993), Curtis (1988), and Argyris (1992), and are primarily based on case study research.

Figure 3.4 Shows the sequence of data collection methods

Figure 3.4 The sequence of data collection methods

Questionnaires

Electronic questionnaires were distributed to the participants for the purpose of establishing contexts of observations and interviews. The questions within the questionnaires related to the overall research objectives and questions. The design of the questionnaires followed the basic principles outlined by Myers (2009), including order of questions: easy questions appeared first, moving from general questions to specific questions, and from factual to abstract questions. Some questions asked the respondents to numerically rank how strongly they agreed or disagreed with a statement on a Likert scale from 1 to 5. Specific and abstract questions required the respondents to provide a written narrative.

Each questionnaire was tested/piloted by issuing a small sample of questionnaires distributed to my colleagues before distribution to the participants. This process ensured accuracy and clarity of the questions and acted as an additional check to avoid the use of double negatives. The design of the questionnaires took into consideration the tone and the way the questions are phrased. Newberry (2010)

stresses that the way questions are phrased and presented can influence the respondent answers. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) argue respondents often attempt to reflect socially acceptable responses when faced with challenging and difficult questions. Some scenarios offer a 'don't know' option, whilst Newberry (2010) claims 'don't know' responses offer a lazy option for the respondents. The 'don't know' responses were used to highlight valuable gaps in knowledge and provide a focus for future interviews and observations.

Understanding the questions requires conjecture by the respondents, who will access a range of circumstances, making judgements that place an event in their own context. The responses require high-level analysis and decisions by the respondents from a series of scenarios and open questions.

The questionnaires were a combination of paper-based and online questionnaires. *Google Docs Forms*, a powerful electronic questionnaire programme, distributed electronically and capable of producing interim results and summaries, administers online questionnaires. The programme has the capability of protecting the respondent's identity, thus improving the response rates, whilst ensuring the philosophical approach of deontology is applied consistently throughout each research method. It was likely that the results from the questionnaires would generate analytic information which could then be used to explain issues, uncovering the ways in which participants used opportunities or avoided a problem. There may be a question, for example, that generates responses which need further evidence to understand, isolate, or dismiss. Analysis of analytic information is similar to synthesis. I will seek explanations of choices, alternatives and preferences, exposing the respondents' judgements and values.

I developed a close working relationship with the participants throughout the data collection period, therefore the use of participant completion questionnaires allowed the respondents to provide true and full accounts of their experiences without me knowing who was responding, thus avoiding bias and fear of exposure. The questionnaires were distributed by me, making clear my identity as the primary investigator in an attempt to re-enforce the research relationship between myself and the participants. The anonymity of the participants using *Google Docs Forms* was demonstrated to the participants before they were invited to complete the questionnaire in their own time.

Observations

According to Watson (1994) the observer develops a close involvement with the chosen group. Watson's position was apparent in my own observations: over a period of time I developed a close working relationship with my own participants. The data collected from observations was also used as a framework of topics for further exploration in follow-up interviews. Robson (2011), Bell (2009), and Easterby-Smith *et al* (2007) agree the objective of any observation is to gain a perspective of an insider of the chosen group. Robson (2011), Bell (2009), and Thorpe (2007) also maintain that observations and follow-up interviews provide opportunities to gather a detailed understanding of people's realities. Bryman and Bell (2007) claim that observations are often used in case studies, reflecting the differences between ethnography and participant observation, and argue they are not synonymous. This perspective is clearly the case for my study. Black (2010) illustrates the use of mobile telephones and cameras in contemporary research. Black's work, '*Reinventing the Observer*', makes use of passengers' mobile phone recordings following the London underground bombings in 2005. This concept of participant observation is reflected in my study. Participants record their own feelings, observations and results either in written format or by digital means.

Two types of observations took place in this study. In the first, FE teachers (the participants) were observed as they taught their students. In the second, the FE teachers were observed as they participated in the teacher training sessions. Twenty observations were conducted in the participants' teaching environments and ten observations made of the teacher training sessions. A data table was used to record the behaviours of the participants (see below).

Theme	Quotations/ Notes
Relationships	
Student/ teacher	
Teacher/ mentor	
Teacher / manager	
Teacher/ trainer	
Responses to challenging behaviour	

Figure 3.5. Observation record sheet

The participants were asked to write reflective statements about their experiences of their teaching practice and personal learning in formal teacher training sessions. A sample of twenty reflective statements was analysed which may reveal differences in what the participants chose to reveal.

Interviews and focus groups

There is much published literature about interview techniques and use; interviews are a useful way of gaining greater insight into data collected through observations and questionnaires (Patton 2009). I used semi-structured interviews and focus groups in this study, with the structure of the interviews based on the results from my observations and results from questionnaires. Adaptability is one advantage of conducting interviews, allowing researchers to probe, through the use of additional questioning, and explore any unexpected responses from the participants. The interview provides an opportunity to judge the participants' feelings, motives, facial expressions, tone of voice and hesitations, which are concealed within written responses (Clough and Nutbrown 2012).

Bell (2010) and Saunders (2009) agree that interviews are time-consuming for the researcher, a major disadvantage of interviews as a data collection method. Bell (2010), Saunders (2009), and Easterby-Smith *et al* (2008) also warn of the danger of bias in terms of the wording of the questions. Questions during the interviews and focus groups are used to explore aspects identified from the analysis of observations and questionnaires, thus providing depth to the responses obtained.

The interviews conducted in this study used two distinct formats: focus groups, and semi-structured interviews. I used the participants' personal reflective written accounts of their experiences of teaching practice and formal initial teacher training as a framework of prompts, whilst considering the core and subsequent research questions. The interviews used reflective and open-ended questions to promote truthful responses. Silverman (2011) claims this approach is not restrictive, and stresses that interviews should be seen as being constructed by the interviewers and the interviewees. This strategy helped me to gain an understanding of the participants' world and how this was perceived by the participants.

The interviews generated qualitative data. Silverman (2011) also claims semi-structured interviewing is positioned on the end of the qualitative-quantitative spectrum. In contrast, May (1993) states:

"interviewees reply in accordance with interview schedules", suggesting interviewing is not always located in the qualitative spectrum. The interviews conducted in this study generated mainly qualitative data, as the participants were encouraged to answer a question in their own words and terms. Some participants posed questions to the interviewer (me) as part of the verbal exchange, as a means of clarifying the interview questions. The participant behaviours and responses were context-related, context-dependent and context-rich, providing rich data for this case study. Deciding who should be invited to the interviews was based on the purpose of the interview and the questions raised from the questionnaires and observations. Participant homogeneity was used as a selection criterion for interviews, as some participants shared similar experiences or opinions. The purpose of the focus group was to gain an understanding of the participants' responses and not to make generalised inferences. The interviews were conducted in dedicated meeting rooms and lasted for one to two hours. All interviews were digitally recorded by video or voice recorder. The use of voice recording equipment ensured that I was able to maintain eye contact with the participants and capture unanticipated areas and topics from the participants' narratives whilst observing non-verbal expressions. Some issues and concepts discussed may be worthy of further exploration, however the original research questions will act as a framework guiding the focus of further investigation.

Field notes

Field notes were used as a tool for collecting the data from the participants. According to Cohen, Mannion and Morrison (2007), field notes may be written by researchers or by participants in more or less detail and interpretive content. Van Maanen (1983) reinforces the need for researchers to be self-conscious about the kind of field text created. Field notes became an important text by acknowledging the relationship with the participants. The field notes also recorded the participants' professional development. The nature of the participant-researcher relationship shaped the construction of the records and the subsequent narrative in the discussion chapters. There seemed to be a difference in the quality and quantity of records and reflective statements when completed by the participants. The success of this research instrument was dependent on the goodwill of the participants to complete

reflective statements as there was no financial reward available. The participants were able to use the 'learning moments' as a tool for their own CPD.

As the principal investigator, I made every effort to avoid the role of a recorder, which resulted in a reluctance to produce comprehensive field notes for fear of failing to capture the meaningful data. Evidence captured by video and voice recordings was reviewed following a period of reflection, this approach was used to reduce omissions and mistakes, ensuring field notes were constructed which accurately represented the research events.

Data analysis

> "Data Analysis involves organising accounting for and explaining the data; in short making sense of the data in terms of the participants' definitions of the situation, noting, patterns, themes categories and regularities."
>
> (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2007, p261)

This section deals with the approaches used with the analysis of qualitative data. Saunders (2007) claims there is no standard approach for analysing qualitative data. In contrast Robson (2009) argues there are three types of process which can be used to analyse qualitative data: summarising, categorising, and structuring. The three procedural methods are used in this study along with the findings from my research diary.

Qualitative data is referred to as all data which is non-numerical, based on meanings expressed through the words and actions of the research participants. Saunders (2009) refers to qualitative data as the collection of results in non-standardised data requiring classification into categories, which could also be analysed with conceptualisation. Becker (1986) and Burgess (1998) argue ethnographic data analysis is continuous and happens simultaneously with the data collection. I argue that the analysis of the data starts before the fieldwork starts, as the context of observation is considered in terms of choosing a focus.

The data collected throughout this study is mainly textual, causing some practical challenges in terms of managing and sorting the large amount of data collected and ensuring accurate transcriptions of interviews and observations. The challenges include the range of approaches used to collect and analyse

the data and possible conflicting individual perceptions and responses of the participants. The questionnaire data was summarised, followed by analysis of data obtained from observations, and was used to inform the context and focused of future interviews. The results and data generated from focus groups and interviews was analysed and augmented with the results from questionnaires and observation resulting in a final analysis.

I recognised that the use of computer-aided software could speed up the process of data analysis, however this section examines a range of manual analytical approaches available, avoiding a single method of analysis. Each approach aims to capture re-occurring themes and patterns, a process of thematic analysis and triangulation. Becker (1986) and Burgess (1998) argue qualitative data analysis is continuous and happens simultaneously with data collection. Bryman (1994) also explains the analysis of data seems to begin immediately upon entering the research field. Bryman and Bell (2011) claims most educational researchers start from a planned conceptual framework which is tested throughout the fieldwork stage of the research. Hammersley's (2002) perspective is also that data analysis starts before the fieldwork begins, as researchers form a conceptual framework before entering the field. Thus there is a consensus that data analysis is not a single short event, but an ongoing engagement with the data.

Trustworthiness

Positivists question the trustworthiness of qualitative studies because validity and reliability cannot be addressed in the same way as naturalistic enquiry. Silverman (2011) suggests there are measures which can be incorporated to deal with issues of validity and reliability. The general objective of attaining trustworthiness is to support the argument that: 'the study is worth paying attention to', which Lincoln and Guba (1986, p296) refer to. Most researchers using exploratory designs attempt to distance themselves from the positive paradigm. Silverman (2011) and Lincoln and Guba (1986) discuss the four areas of achieving trustworthiness in qualitative studies that correspond to the criteria used by positivist researchers:
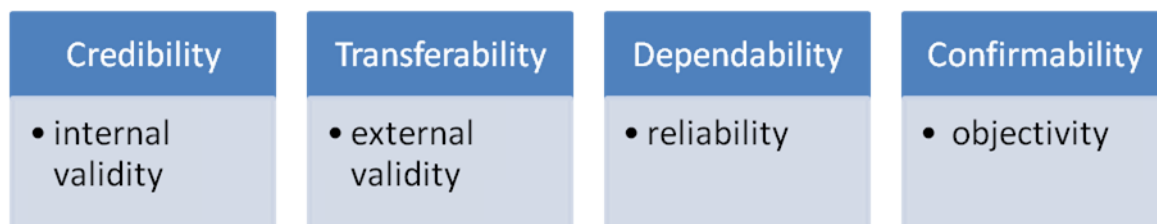
Lincoln and Guba (ibid.) explain that the qualitative researcher's equivalent concept of internal validity (ensuring the design measures what it purports to measure) is credibility, stressing the importance of establishing trustworthiness. Yin (2007) and Denzin and Lincoln (2003) advocate the importance of incorporating the correct operational measures in order for the concept to be examined, and stress the specific procedures, including the line of questioning, by inviting research participants to reflect on situations. An example is: "tell me about a situation where you needed help". Other qualitative researchers, including Edwards and Mercer (1987) have used similar questioning strategies. Developing an early familiarity with the participants is achieved by a period of prolonged engagement between the investigator and the participants. In this way, I was able gain a clear understanding of the social group, its norms, and its organisation. The objective of this period was to establish a relationship of trust. I was acutely aware of the dangers of placing too many demands on the participants, which could have led to them withdrawing from the research or deterred them from cooperating. Silverman (2011), and Guba (1984) also warn researchers about becoming absorbed in the social group so that their judgements are compromised. An aspect of my ethical practice and commitment, I ensured that the dangers of placing too many demands on participants, and compromised judgements, were avoided. I deliberately looked for alternative explanations of the data as I undertook the analysis and identified the findings. The data, and my emerging findings, were discussed with my supervisors as a further check to ensure I remained as objective as possible in my judgements. All participants agreed to complete a reflective journal, recording critical incidents and experiences described as significant contributory development factors. The quality of written reflections varied in length and depth of analysis.

Strengths and limitations of the methodology

The case study approach is a valuable design within which to gain a detailed picture of the 'case', in this instance the new FE teachers. The choices of research design and data collection complement the use of case study research. Qualitative inductive logic, as Stake (1995) puts it, describes the methodological choice used in this study. The questionnaires, observations and interviews were appropriate as a means of generating rich, qualitative data and addressing the core and subsequent research questions.

Brewer and Hunter (2006) state:

> "People are not able to design their own questionnaires, do their own observations or work out correlation coefficients in any old way they want, or at least not if they want their research to be seen as reliable."
>
> (Brewer and Hunter 2006, p2)

I set in place specific and detailed ways of working to ensure the data collected is both valid and trustworthy.

The results of this study do not provide a natural, scientific objective account and recognise the subjective nature of experiences of those who constitute and construct the social world. I aimed to ensure the case study is described in detail, so that other researchers who may want to use the research are fully aware of the setting, and will not seek to generalise the findings beyond those applicable to this case. Pole and Morrison (2003) recognise the temptation for researchers to reduce results to unsubstantiated opinion or journalistic discourse. I ensured that any findings are fully based on the data to avoid this criticism. This study studied the participants in their natural environments rather than artificial situations, which reinforces the concept of naturalism and the understanding of cultural practices of people from everyday settings (O'Connell 2008, p165). Matza (1999) characterises naturalism as the philosophical view that remains true of the phenomenon under study, making reference to the study of people's behaviour and the researchers' access to the meaning of behaviours. Hammersley and Aktinson (1993) claim researchers are developed social actors and able to access participant behaviours through observational methods. Thus the methods used were appropriate for the purposes of this research.

In Chapter 4, the results of the research data are presented. Atkinson and Hammersley (1994) claims the process of data analysis is ongoing and shapes future data collections. Boyatzis (2009) refer to the DIKA (data, information, knowledge, action) model as a process of data analysis. I move between the texts and numerical trends of the data and the research questions in order to explain how the data influences issues under investigation.

The process of data analysis

The first stage of coding the integrated data from a series of questionnaires, interviews and observations was to examine the transcripts and field notes manually. This process generated four themes: professionalism, learning culture, professional identity and change agency, and the relevance of the current teacher training programme (parental nodes). The themes were created in three ways: data which could be used to directly answer the research questions, data which provides additional contextualisation, and data to be used in future studies.

The process of content analysis aims to identify themes of the research findings and develop categories and assist with the analytical process. I began the process of identifying nodes by examining the original research questions. The nodes chosen clearly overlap. The overreaching nodes selected enabled me to extract aspects of the data for further analysis, providing a framework to answer the specific research questions. The themes identified and discussed in this section characterise a response to the research questions, drawing on the field notes of observations, transcripts of interviews and the interpretations of the participants' responses.

Each theme from the field notes and transcripts was described by a short written summary relating to the aspect of the study that it referred to. All documentation was examined a second time to ensure themes and content represented the categories and themes (Yun-Hee Jeon 2004).

The table below demonstrates the relationship between and management of the themes and codes.

Themes	Codes	Description	Example
Specific research question	Professionalism Professional identity- the multiple dimensions Change agency	The participants' perception of professionalism in FE teaching	*I understand what it means to act professionally. I am unsure if I am a teacher who teaches engineering or an engineer who teaches.* *I am trying to develop new ways of teaching*
Contextualisation	Relevance of current teacher training programme (learning cultures)	Reflection and commentary about teacher training	*The teacher training programme does not prepare for the real world of teaching*

Figure 3.7 Coding nodes

As this study is exploratory, there were times when new ideas and perspectives were highlighted and appeared worthy of further investigation. It is the research questions of this study which provided the research boundaries and the focus of the study. The approach adopted in this study is described by Creswell (2012) as one of an architect, a carefully planned research project, but this research is responsive to change and emerging themes that address the research questions. I explored the complex range of ethical dilemmas faced when collecting empirical research data and evaluated the safeguarding measures put in place to protect the participants, college and myself from any harm. The ethical approach adopted throughout the data collection process engages with the theory of deontology, described by Lapan and Quartaroli (2009) as:

> "In deontological ethics an action is considered morally good because of some characteristic of the action itself, not because the product of the action is good. Deontological ethics holds that at least some acts are morally obligatory regardless of their consequences for human welfare. Descriptive of such ethics are such expressions as 'duty for duty's sake'."
> (Lapan and Quartaroli 2009, p9)

The deontological approach recognises the researchers' respect for their participants' rights and autonomy. In contrast Lapan and Quartaroli (ibid.) discuss the utilitarian approach which emphasises weighing the benefits in favour of the research process against the risk of harm to the participants. Deontology is the model used for the moral code of conduct adhered to throughout the data collection

process of this study, identifying conflicts of interest and declaring those interests to those who may have been affected by the research findings. The design of the data collection methods addresses the concept of trustworthiness of research data whilst adopting a process of verification of emerging results through triangulation.

Also presented in Chapter 4 is the quantitative data, captured from two questionnaires. Results from the questionnaires are used to contextualise the qualitative data generated from three focus groups, two interviews, and seven observations. The qualitative data is presented in an integrated way, combining the results from focus groups, interviews, observations and field notes. The focus groups were designed to address the conceptual framework of the study (professionalism, learning cultures, change agency and identity). Data generated from the three focus groups was analysed using thematic analysis and patterning.

Quantitative data captured from questionnaire one is presented in tabular format in Chapter 4 (Figures 4.2 to 4.11), and are considered further in Chapter 5. The quantitative results from questionnaire one are compared with the UK national statistics, in that conclusions gained from this study are relevant to the FE teaching sector. The study participants are shown to reflect the features of FE teachers nationally. The participants' demographic data generated from questionnaire one is comparable with the national statistics of FE teachers within a tolerance of 5%.

The quantitative results from questionnaire two were used as discussion points in focus groups and subsequent interviews.

The research questions are used to construct a theoretical framework of professionalism, learning cultures, change agency and multiple professional teacher identity, providing a structure for Chapter 4. Chapter 4 also includes findings relating to new concepts not previously studied, which include an examination of the current FE teacher training programme. The research has revealed an extensive list of issues that relate to the professional development of new FE teachers including reflective learning and the value of feedback to trainee FE teachers. The concept of change and the FE teacher as an agent of change is a continuous theme throughout each section of this study. Each element of the research

process is examined differently in order to gain perceptions of the participants' understandings of change, and personal professional development. Chapter 5 concludes the key issues and makes recommendations for the future development and provision of initial FE teaching.

Concluding Comments

Chapter 4 captures the participant's responses, experiences and perceptions obtained through this research project. Creswell (2012) describes the process of data analysis as mapping and interpretation of data influenced by the original research questions as well as the themes that have emerged from the study. Whilst the literature in context chapter (Chapter 2) provides thorough thematic analysis of knowledge relating to the four elements of the research questions, there were issues which were of concern for the participants which are addressed in the following chapters: professionalism in FE teaching, development of learning cultures, concept of change agency, and the FE teacher as an agent of change and changing and multiple professional identity of FE teachers.

Reflective Statement

Although I stated in this chapter that this study uses reflective statements completed by the participants, the value of these journal entries was not fully realised until the analysis of the data. I recognise the concepts of action research and participatory research were not fully used; however, there are elements of cooperative inquiry used throughout the data collection period. Davidson (1998) explains the relationship of four paradigms including informing, consulting, and participation, and empowering the research participants' voice within the research process. The participants of this study were consulted and informed of the proposed research aims. It is clear that paradigms do not fit in a neat linear way; they are created on the application of change and are synonymous with research projects with a purpose. I undertook a series of pilot interviews to identify areas of complexity. Some lines of enquiry simply did not work. Participants were unwilling to answer questions because they were unable to recognise the relevance to their own professional practice.

Interpretivists argue that the subject of interpretation of reality can be fully understood by researchers, however throughout the research period some participants' views had changed from their original

responses. This study observed people, the participants of this study, in their natural working environment. I acknowledged that my presence affected the participants' behaviour, whilst accepting there may be many interpretations of reality. Professional identities changed throughout the observation periods, participants moved from being a teacher to a student, and I from researcher to a senior tutor. I experienced the tensions between teaching in action and the higher strategic aims of the college and the FE sector. I have carefully considered what it is FE teachers do; there are two opposing perspectives of FE, one filled with ability, ambition and a desire to help, and the other a bank of philosophical ideas and beliefs.

Reflecting on my position as an insider/outsider researcher is important (Powney and Watts 1987). Whether an insider or an outsider is an epistemological matter because my position in relation to the participants had a direct impact on the knowledge we created (Griffiths 1998). It was also important to consider the implications of being an insider/outsider because of my active role in the description and presentation of the results.

> "The qualitative researcher's perspective is perhaps a paradoxical one: it is to be acutely tuned-in to the experiences and meaning systems of others – to indwell – and at the same time to be aware of how one's own biases and preconceptions may be influencing what one is trying to understand."
> (Maykut and Morehouse 1994, p123)

There is much discussion of researchers' membership roles in qualitative research; in this study I found myself writing us, we, the participants, subconsciously writing my own perceptions of the research situation. I moved from the role of an insider researcher to that of an outsider researcher unconsciously. I discovered there is little advantage to being an insider researcher, as myself and the participants were members of the same college, albeit with different roles. My roles as a researcher and senior tutor should have provided clear theoretical boundaries, although the role boundaries were somewhat clouded at times. The insider/outsider researcher issue is important as I was studying a group I was not a member of, but we were all members of the same college, and of the FE teaching sector. Although I had followed a similar teacher training programme myself, I could not experience the participants' experiences, only

record and acknowledge their perceptions and reflections. I also acknowledged that the teacher training programme had changed since I undertook it.

There were a number of challenges I faced as insider researcher. Participants had high expectations of me as an insider researcher due to our shared membership and relationship, which placed additional responsibility on me to treat their data and the knowledge it generated in particular positive ways (Kanuha 2000). Further, the breaking down of the researcher/researched boundaries may cause ethical difficulties if participants treat the researcher as a friend or counsellor, and therefore disclose more than they are comfortable with (Birch and Miller 2000, Powney and Watts 2006). While data may be richer and deeper due to the shared context of researcher/researched, assumptions of shared understandings can be problematic when collecting data (Kanuha 2000). Additionally, during the data analysis period there was a potential risk of overlooking parts of the data I take for granted (Kanuha 2000). Further, a degree of commonality did not guarantee that I, as an insider researcher, could have fully appreciated the participants' perspectives any more than that of an outsider researcher, especially as our professional lives are as different as they are similar through other personal, social and situational characteristics which outweigh what is shared (Bridges 2001). Some authors have suggested that the position of outsider researcher holds some advantages.

As an outsider researcher, I was able to make observations and draw conclusions that insiders could not; for example, by asking 'naive questions' to explore topics in depth, gaining valuable insight precisely because of my outsider perspective (Holstein, and Gubrium 2003). However, arguments have also been presented against outsider research, the most commonly cited being that outsiders will be unable to understand, or accurately represent, the experiences of their participants. This is a particularly salient topic when dealing with multiple professional identities and power relationships (Bassy 2009, Foucault 1980). It was important to address the psychological and social distance between myself and the participants in an ethical way to ensure the research was sensitive to the professional changes experienced by the participants (Holstein and Gubrum 2003).

I have reflected on the term and use of functionalism within this study. The intention was to explore and demonstrate the interrelationship and interdependency between each component of the study. The

80

application of a wider sociological model to a single institution did not work as originally intended. This is a topic for further study and beyond the scope of this project.

These are exciting times for FE teachers as new challenges are being presented by a rapidly changing world, which will require a responsive FE sector and teachers. Initial teacher training and working conditions for FE teachers should be enhanced to match that of the other sectors of the UK education system. These moves would recognise the positive and future contributions made by the FE sector to a developing society and economy. There are many opportunities for further research in FE as the sector and society grows in size and complexity.

Chapter Four: Results and Discussion

Introduction

This chapter captures and discusses the participants' responses, experiences and perceptions obtained through this research project. The chapter includes four distinct sections relating to the conceptual framework of: professionalism, learning cultures, change agency and multiple professional identities. Creswell (2012) describes the process of data analysis as mapping and interpretation of data influenced by the original research questions as well as the themes that have emerged from the study.

Knowledge of change agency and role of the FE Teacher

- Literature review
- Data gathering

Findings related to the concepts of :

Professionalism Learning Cultures Change Agency

Multiple Professional Identities

- Field notes
- Observations
- Interview transcripts

Coding of patterns , relationships and themes

- Thematic content analysis
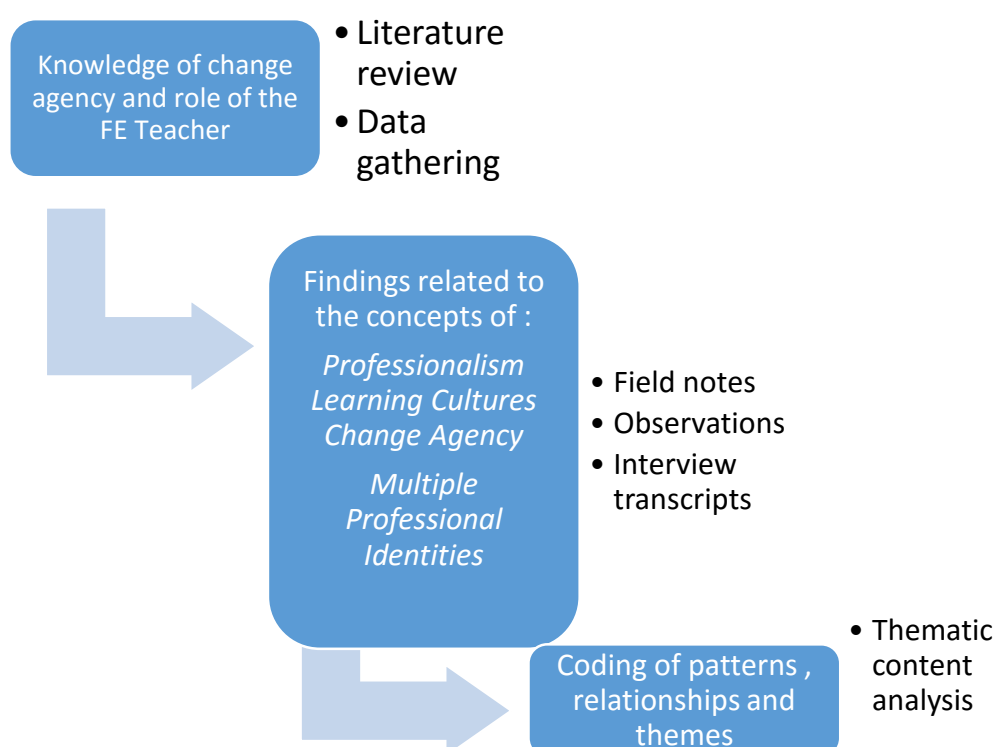
Figure 4.1 Outline of data analysis

The literature in context chapter (Chapter 2) provides thorough thematic analysis of knowledge relating to the four elements of the research questions. There were issues which were of concern for the participants related to the conceptual framework and which are addressed in the following sections of this chapter. Figure 4.1 outlines the process of data analysis, the links with the literature in context, and the conceptual framework.

The overall aim of this chapter is to discuss the results from the empirical research and develop understandings to answer the original research questions of this study. I refer to elements of the Durkheimian model of functionalism, as each section and components of this chapter are linked and dependent on each of the functions of a new FE teacher's roles and developing multiple professional identities.

The demographic results of this study are generally consistent with national data: the national ratio of male and female full-time FE teachers is 6.4 female and 4.6 male (Further Education workforce data for England 2014). The average age of the participants in this study is 42.2 years and the national average for FE teachers is 45 years. The ethnic profile of the participants is also consistent with national data with 80% of the participants of this study stating white British and 20% stating BME. No participant reported any disability. The national average of FE teachers with a disclosed disability is 3.2 % of the FE workforce (Further Education workforce data for England 2014).

Table 4.2 reports the numerical data collected, which is used to categorise the participants and to contextualise responses and perceptions of the results from the qualitative research instruments. The table in Figure 4.2 also shows the age profile of the twenty-two new FE Teachers who participated in this study. It shows that there are equal numbers of participants below and above the age of 40.

Gender	**Male**	**Female**				
	9	**13**				
	Under 25	**25-29**	**30-39**	**40-49**	**50-51**	**60**
Age Profile	1	4	6	7	3	1

<div align="right">Figure 4.2 General demographic profile</div>

Thirteen (62%) participants stated that FE teaching was a second career choice. Two participants (11%) stated that they intended to teach in parallel with their first career choice.

There are unsubstantiated claims that there is a need to recruit new FE teachers to the profession in response to the aging teacher population.

Participants' teaching areas

Academic subjects include: Sociology, English Literature and Language, and History. Professional subjects include: Accountancy, Chartered Institute for Professional Development (CIPD), Sports Therapy, and Media Studies. Vocational subjects include: Hairdressing, Construction, Engineering, and Catering.

	Academic	Professional	Vocational
Teaching Area	3	8	9

Figure 4.3 Participants' teaching areas

All participants have attained the required entry qualifications in terms of literacy, numeracy and ICT at level two on the national qualifications framework (GCSE). All participants are suitably qualified within the context of their subject specialisms, through experience and/or qualification.

Some participants anticipated the teacher training programme would provide a teacher's 'tool kit' on how to teach successfully; in contrast, other participants expected the ITT programme would provide theoretical perspectives on teaching in the FE sector, allowing the participants to apply the concepts within the context of their subjects.

The highest academic level achieved by the participants in this study is shown in the table in Figure 4.4

Qualification Level	NQV3	HND/HNC	Degree	Postgraduate Qualification
Number of participants achieving this level as their highest award	9	6	5	2

Figure 4.4 Highest academic qualification achieved by the participants

Eight (36%) participants have parents who hold a higher education degree. Nine (42%) of the participants were the first generation of their respective families to go to university. Fifteen participants (68%) are not graduates. Two participants (9%) withdrew from teaching before completing the formal initial teacher training. With the participants consent some sensitive data has been withheld in accordance with the BERA (2011) guidelines.

In this chapter, I present and discuss the data gathered from two questionnaires, the integrated results from four focus groups, twenty interviews, and my own observations. The results and findings are separated into four distinct sections of the conceptual framework: professionalism, learning cultures change agency and professional identity. Saunders *et al* (2009) describes the purpose of research by researchers starting with a broad base of enquiry which becomes narrower and more focused as the knowledge base increases. Within this chapter of my thesis I also report the findings of the research relating to the participants' experiences of developing their personal, professional and multiple identities as FE teachers. Interesting features of the findings are highlighted, which include feedback to the participants. The findings report the frequency and focal points of the feedback, to which participants it was given, and the ways feedback on the participants' performance as new FE teachers is used to help them realise their potential. Included in this chapter are the stages of becoming an FE teacher, highlighting the professional life cycle (Huberman 2001). The use of the professional life cycle as a theoretical model has enabled the participants to fully engage in reflective learning, to which this section reports the findings relating to the concept of change agency and the FE teacher as an agent of

change. There are interesting features gathered from one observation of a practical teaching session and the results of a focus group which discussed the effects of inspection and surveillance of FE teachers.

The results of the quantitative data are used as a focus for further qualitative enquiry – analysed using thematic content analysis (Creswell 1998). The results from this series of statements are mapped to the original research questions of constructing and managing multiple professional identities and the responses to societal and organisational change. The results provide early indications as to why participants withdrew from teaching during the formal initial teacher training. This question may also generate data and opportunities for further investigation beyond the scope of this thesis.

The different sections of this chapter also discuss the concepts of creativity in further education teaching and the ways new teachers promote their own skills and the skills of their own FE students. I discuss the validity and appropriateness of the current ITT programme for FE teachers whilst augmenting the changing sociological aspects of FE teaching. There are some interesting results and discussions about the differences between the concepts of teacher education and teacher training. One issue of concern raised whilst collecting the data relating to FE teacher workloads relates to a comparison of the workloads of new FE teachers to that of other teachers practising in other sectors of the UK education system.

Data generated from four focus groups, observations, and interviews, are discussed and evaluated in the forthcoming sections of this chapter. This chapter also includes results and interpretations of formal lesson observations undertaken by a range of observers. Trainee teachers' lessons/sessions are observed for quality by college managers, subject mentors and ITT staff four times per academic year: eight formal lesson observations in two years. One assessable aspect of formal lesson observations is the participants' ability to effectively plan for teaching and sessions. Participants produced an array of planning documents, each varying in detail and quality. The participants agreed that the quality of planning documentation for formal observations was significantly different to that used during normal practice (most participants did not use formal lesson plans in actual practice). There were notable differences in terms of quality and detail when viewing the lesson planning documents during and

leading up to inspection. Two participants teaching academic subjects explained that they used the content and structure of PowerPoint presentations and tutors notes as planning documents. Participants claimed they gave little consideration to differentiation in teaching and learning. Although discussed in formal ITT sessions, participants felt that differentiation in teaching was an area which was confusing and difficult to conceptualise. One participant described the treatment of gifted and talented students as poor, arguing that gifted and talented students are special needs students and should be entitled to the additional support and resources they need to achieve their full potential. Participants who taught vocational subjects explained that the focus of their observations was the promotion and maintenance of a safe working environment whilst ensuring the needs of the clients of the realistic working environment (restaurants, hair salons and sports centres). The participants argued that although the principal objective was to teach the knowledge and skills associated with the vocational area, they were instilling a range of employability skills into their teaching activities. Examples of teaching and learning activities included student role play and questioning using a series of work-related scenarios.

Professionalism

Defining professionalism

Professions are assumed to be vocations to which the practitioners hold special skills and social status, following a period of education and training and registration with a professional body (Freidson,2001). The concept of professionalism in FE teaching in the UK was established during the New Labour period and considered by members of the teaching profession as a continuing developing feature of professionalism (Institute for Learning 2010). The Institute for Learning (IFL) was established in 2002 as a voluntary professional institution for FE teachers and the regulatory body for the sector. The publication '*Equipping our Teachers for the Future*' (DfES 2004) was viewed as a move to professionalise FE teaching. Qualifications introduced in 2007 were underpinned by overarching standards and teacher competencies endorsed by Standards Verification UK. From 2007 to 2012, membership of the IFL was mandatory for all FE teachers. The IFL compelled teachers to complete at least thirty hours per year of continuous professional development, it administrated teacher registration

and licensed qualified teachers. The IFL therefore became the regulatory body for further education teachers. However, the IFL has its foundations in a quantifiable, evidence-based model of professional development, limiting scope for creativity. In 2012 the IFL reverted to a voluntary professional institution and ceased to operate in 2014. There were moves to raise the professional status of FE teaching by individual colleges.

Professionalism is described as unquestionable autonomy and authority, trusted by those whom the profession serves (Robson and Baily 2009). Results from this study suggest the participants' understanding of professionalism differs from established models. They described a professional FE teacher as a competent, conscientious, compliant, hardworking and highly motivated teacher. Helsby (1999) argues that a teacher is little more than a compliant technician rather than a true professional. Avalos (2011) refers to the proletarianism of teaching and specifically to the college managers as the bourgeoisie. Avalos (2011) used this analogy to explain the changes to the management and governance of the UK public sector. The results gathered from the questionnaires and subsequent interviews demonstrate the participants' views that FE teaching subscribes to management by an audit society. The participants discussed the ways teachers' work is monitored, but little discussion took place regarding monitoring to support teaching practice. The focus of any monitoring was on the participants' ability to provide an audit trail of documentation, including schemes of work, lesson plans and student attendance records. Questions and themes throughout the research process focused on investigating the participants' perceptions of professionalism. The data generated from the second questionnaire was used to inform the focus of the first discussion point for subsequent interviews/ group discussions relating to professionalism and the FE teacher. Results gathered from observations and interviews with the participants revealed that FE teachers consider their own professionalism to be equivalent to that of medics and lawyers, rather than the concept of 'compliant technician' proposed by Helsby (1999). Helsby (ibid.), argues that the existence of trade unions and/or employee representatives within a profession is not a feature of professionalism. Participants challenged this view; in some cases, it was dismissed by the participants who argued that trade unions assisted their members to become

professional, they also protected the wider interests of their members and the teaching profession in general.

Early conclusions, and a recommendation of this study, suggest new FE teachers will be required to provide evidence of the ways they impact on the development and learning of FE students through high-quality reflective practice, a professional portfolio and formal professional registration. Although the IFL ceased to operate in 2014, it introduced a registration scheme in 2007 requiring all members to engage in reflective practice, including the production and maintenance of a professional development plan. The participants who teach vocational and professional subjects felt that this is good practice and should be encouraged by individual colleges and reintroduced by a professional institution (Field Notes, March 2012).

Interesting themes arose from one interview. One participant stated that colleges and college managers abuse the concept of professionalism when managing lecturers and teachers. He further claimed that college managers are aware of, and take advantage of, the overwhelming sense of responsibility FE teachers feel for their students, often referred to as student centeredness. In contrast, college mangers referred to student centeredness as a philosophical approach to management of colleges, claiming everything a college does benefits the students learning and welfare. Participants of this study did not share this position. Although some participants are new to teaching, the transcriptions of interviews revealed strong ethical principles held by new teachers.

The respondents consistently referred to the concept of the high-quality student experience as a critical feature and a means of proving and justifying a credible professional identity as a credible teacher. One participant stated:

> *"My own school teachers were probably the most influential people in my own personal development, in particular my history teacher. I enjoyed the subject because of the way he was, he also taught me things about the world, personal finance etc. I strongly believe I could bring that sense of wider learning to my own students."*
> (Participant response, Focus Group 3, 12 March 2012)

This was an interesting response to the question as the participant was clearly drawing on her own experiences as a student. Other members of the focus group challenged this response claiming she had developed a relationship with her teacher, rather than admiring the skill of her teacher. This response demonstrates the ways teachers address wider social issues and the hidden curriculum, often in an unplanned way. Continuing with the theme of good teaching, participants were clear about the concept of intelligent risk-taking. Pavlina (2006) claims risk-taking is an integral part of human life; although the word 'risk' has a negative undertone, it suggests vulnerability, pressure and loss. In contrast, with the positive aspects of risk, FE students and teachers could achieve much more than expected.

The table below shows the responses to the statement that diminishing risk erodes professional trust.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
10 (50%)	6 (30%)	0	4 (20%)	0

Figure 4.5 Diminishing risk erodes professional trust

This is an interesting and thought provoking result as 16 (80%) participants agreed that risk reduction, often referred to as quality assurance procedures, reduced their autonomy and professional status. Further discussions in interviews revealed that college policies and management procedures supress the FE teacher's creative skills by rigid formal operating procedures often imposed by higher authorities. The following discussions in Focus Group 3, and subsequent interviews, highlighted the vulnerability of trust. The FE sector expects new teachers to immerse themselves in the students' academic and personal development. Participants discussed their legal legitimacy and FE teaching, and the ways its teachers are viewed by wider society and generally trusted. Participants were convinced quality management systems employed by college managers are designed to reduce risk of mistakes and provide a level of certainty and predicable outcomes.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
4 (20%)	12(60%)	0	4(20%	0

Figure 4.6 Discretionary powers

The concept of discretionary powers was considered as a fundamental aspect of a teacher's work and a demonstrable aspect of professionalism. Participants stated that it is the discretionary powers which separate professionals from employees, who are there simply to obey and conduct themselves to operate in a particular way over which they have no control. All participants of Focus Group 3 agreed that professionals should not have carte blanche to act in any way they choose, but, on the other hand, there is some acknowledgement that being a professional FE teacher means the ability to exercise professional judgement about the content and direction of teaching and learning activities. Themes generated from Focus Group 3 suggest that it is the participants' subject knowledge of what they teach which justifies freedom of practice. The participants who teach vocational and professional subjects made reference to their membership of professional institutions as an additional source of information and, in some cases, a sign of professional status, knowledge, and competence.

The participants described the concept of teacher professionalism in four distinct areas: the degree of subject knowledge, expertise in pedagogic approaches, an awareness of organisational objectives, and high levels of self-control performed through organisational codes of generalised conduct. Participants described their professionalism as:

> *" . . . being stifled by college bureaucracy, structural and attitudinal aspects of college managers."*
>
> (Focus Group 3, March 2012)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7 (35%)	11 (55%)	0	2(1%)	0

Figure 4.7 Reduced autonomy leads to de-professionalisation

The participants stated that the structure and operational procedures within the teaching profession should ensure a substantial amount of professional autonomy and self-regulation. Although the participants strenuously claimed the college hierarchical structure restricted the development of professional autonomy, they also claimed they enjoyed some level of autonomy in the classroom.

However, all participants stated the most stressful aspect of classroom practice was the formal observation.

The participants claimed that they related to the needs of their own students more than to those of the college. This perspective did cause three incidents of conflict between two participants and the college managers.

The impact of the audit society and the new managerialism of those who teach academic subjects was apparent in the participant narratives.

> *"I am asked to act as a professional teacher, however the college management system is constantly asking for evidence of work completed and justification of decisions. We are reminded of the college rules and regulations, by non-teaching staff. I find this aspect of my work very frustrating. I joined the teaching profession to teach, not to be an administrator. I do understand and accept there has to be some element of paper work, but this should have a positive impact on my students' learning, not just meeting the desires of the management."*
> (Focus Group, March 2012)

> *"College managers are stressed, and often focus on meeting financial targets, rather than seeking out positive learning experiences of the students."*
> (Field Notes, March 2012)

> *"My appraisal was about how the courses I teach on were meeting the recruitment, retention and success targets, there was little feedback or advice given about improving my teaching or my professional development. My mentor did however ever focus on helping me to develop strategies to improve professional relationships with my students . . . "*
> (Focus Group, March 2012)

These participants claim they relate to the subject and the teaching of the subject (English Literature and Cultural Studies) as the most important aspect of practice.

> *"I feel my subject knowledge of English Literature and Cultural Studies gives me some credibility with my students and colleagues, despite having limited teaching experience. There is an assumption held by most inexperienced teachers, if you know the subject you can teach it. Knowing the subject and being confident to talk about it is much more important than learning about learning style assessments . . . "*
> (Focus Group, March 2012)

Participants talked about a commitment to the subject area. When challenged about the focus of professional practice, most stated it was their FE students' needs that took priority.

> *"I really enjoy being part of the business teaching team, my colleagues who teach other related business subjects share a passion for the welfare and academic development of their own students. They* (**FE Students**) *bring to college their different needs, some of which are not really about their education, some students have not had a good experience at High School and expect more of the same. I think it's my job to promote the needs of the business community as well as the student's individual needs.*
>
> *As our teaching is about children and early year's education, so by teaching issues relating to safeguarding and child protection, my professional practices are developing as a naturally occurring phenomena. . . . It something you have to care about in order to teach and project passion and commitment to your students. . . ."*
>
> (Focus Group, March 2012)

Gaining professional trust of the FE students is challenging for all new teachers. FE students hold preconceived ideas about teachers, based on their experiences, some negative, while some FE students have high expectations of FE teachers. Mature FE students (over 19 years) have many different learning and social needs, are often lacking in confidence, and harbour negative experiences of previous educational experiences. Knowles (1980), claim that students are likely to be influenced by teachers they admire. The participants' perceptual understanding of being fair, tolerant and willing to explain, differ from each of the three teaching strands (academic, professional and vocational).

Professional life cycle

The participants claimed their professional teaching lives commenced once they had successfully completed or enrolled onto the teacher training programme. All participants of this study have extensive professional experience from their former careers. Two participants who teach academic subjects previously worked as classroom assistants; three participants who teach vocational subjects worked as FE student mentors; and one participant who teaches academic subjects worked as a library assistant in a secondary school before deciding to follow a career in FE teaching.

Hubberman (2001) describes the first stage of the professional life cycle as the fantasy stage – a sense of perfect ideology. The participants were able to resonate with Ryan's first stage and noted that the

textbook way of teaching often conflicted with real life and teacher training. Ball and Goodson (1985) claim that new and enthusiastic workers pose a threat to the status quo of an organisation. In order to avoid embarrassment, or having to work harder and re-examine their work methods, the older workers try to socialise the new workers into their ways, and put pressure on them to conform. This was a concern for most participants, who expressed their desire to fit in with their respective teaching teams whilst, at the same time, balancing a sense of duty to their students and the college. Arguably, the focus of ITT programmes should provide robust academic and practical experiences of teaching and preparing new teachers for future work within an educational setting.

> *"It's all well and good trying to implement the ITT practices, but in the real world we have to fit into our teams, there is a massive difference between theory and actual practice. My colleagues know how to cut corners, in terms of lesson planning, sending the students off to work in library instead of being in class. I know I should tell the management but how will that look?"*
> (Focus Group 1, March 2012)

Participants felt that, despite efforts made by college managers and the FE sector to professionalise FE teaching, they were not treated as professionals by managers, even though they acted in a professional way. One reason for a lack of perceptual professionalism is the audit culture, which has infused the FE teaching sector.

FE teachers have become increasingly accountable for their actions and practice, subjected to rigorous external inspection from government agencies and increased scrutiny from employers. These factors have led to the heavy influence of the audit culture on FE colleges and the management. Brady and Collier (2004) link the tensions of the audit culture and teacher professionalism as a demotivating factor for new teachers. Participants expressed concern about their performance being constantly monitored by non-teaching managers using irrelevant and uncontrollable performance indicators based on concepts of productivity. The philosophy of market forces, competition and consumerism   leads to constant re-organisation and re-structuring of colleges, leaving the staff in a permanent state of unrest and insecurity. One participant described employment in FE as being volatile and insecure; being in constant fear of the unknown and possible redundancy.

Participants also discussed the different terms and conditions of contracts of employment (full-time, fractional, sessional, temporary and agency work) and how their perceived level of professionalism was dependent upon the type of contract employment they held. Those possessing full-time and fractional contracts of employment were held in higher esteem in terms of professionalism.

The participants were asked throughout the interviews to describe the features of professional FE teaching practice. The responses included:

- Knowledge and teaching experience
- Minimum teaching and subject qualifications which ensured that rigorous recruitment and selection processes were maintained
- Membership of a professional/regulatory institution
- Operational autonomy
- A code of practice
- Continuous professional development in both the subject area and in teaching
- A comparative salary.

However, the participants frequently used the term 'professional' without fully considering its literal meaning. Helsby (1999), classifying FE teachers as compliant technicians, undermines the efforts FE teachers make to improve their students' life chances, but makes specific reference to inspection regimens and the apparent distrust of the teaching profession by wider society. Bates (1983), Lucas (2007) and Boyer (1990) refer to the teaching profession as 'not quite a profession' and teachers as 'semi-professionals'. Despite the fact that FE teachers, and the participants, meet the criteria for the title of professional, the current audit culture has challenged their sense of professionalism. Becker (1992) highlights the difference between professionals and other workers as those who have a high degree of specialist theoretical knowledge, along with the skills, methods, and techniques for applying their knowledge in their day-to-day work, united by a sense of solidarity by sharing experiences, common training and adherence to certain protocols.

Participants who teach academic subjects felt they had more autonomy than they initially expected.

> *"Supervision was very much limited, I mainly worked behind closed classroom doors, although 6 hours of my 720 teaching hours were observed by my mentor or ITT staff."*

The degree of direct supervision varied between the participants: it was evident that there were higher levels of supervision for vocational teachers who claimed their practice was monitored by course leaders and line mangers in the practical elements, including teaching demonstrations. The participants who taught academic and professional subjects stated that as long as their performance met minimum standards they could enjoy higher levels of autonomy. Supporting this perspective, Abrahams and Becker (2001) claim that teaching is largely a private individual practice. The data generated from Focus Group 3 demonstrates elements of Abrahams and Becker's perspective. Within the formal teacher training sessions, participants shared experiences of their evolving professional teaching practice and clearly benefited from belonging to a group. The application of new knowledge and skills was entirely a private issue. Throughout the two years of research, participants of this study recognised the increased constraints and pressures placed upon them. FE teachers have to accept that all FE students have become and have to be treated as 'customers'. Prospective FE students have much more choice about their FE provider from a variety of streams: FE colleges, school sixth forms, apprenticeships, private training providers, or the armed forces.

The appropriate awarding body, along with the national curriculum, controls FE teachers' professional practice by means of specific assessment criteria and subject content control. Participants generally agreed that this provided homogeneity across the FE sector, but felt these restrictions prevent FE from representing the wider working society and associated industry, and the individual teacher's creativity. Giddens (2013) outlines the popular societal perception of teaching as a professional and trusted occupation and worthy of recognition, but participants expressed concern about the increased levels of public scrutiny in comparison with other professions/occupations.

Professionalism and the audit society

The concept and promotion of professionalism within an audit society (a product of new managerialism following incorporation in 1992) is dependent on the leadership and management styles of colleges and other educational institutions. The college leader's perception of teaching and teachers is a mitigating factor in the formation and intensity of such an audit society and it can be at odds with the notion of

professionalism as a concept based on trust of all those involved in the teaching and learning relationship and a feature of most consultative discourses. Debates held in the US, Australia and the UK, leading up to the introduction of the new overarching professional teaching standards, focused on teaching practises and initiatives regarding the introduction of formal teaching standards and levels of teacher professionalism. The participants of this study expressed concern about the generic approach to professional teaching standards, claiming they failed to recognise the different areas of FE teaching and the range of skills and knowledge required to function as a professional FE teacher. All participants agreed that they have to work within the constraints imposed by a range of external forces and drivers which arise from policy decisions made at a national, local and in some cases international levels. The participants also accepted the pressures placed on the FE sector, which are generally of social and institutional nature. Participants of this study related personal instances of excessive workloads and surveillance by managers of their practice as examples of the negative aspects of professional practice. Emerging themes, generated from the interview data, suggest that teacher workloads increase as the FE teacher gains experience. Because of their specialist training, current and previous occupations, and some academic expertise, participants expected to be granted larger measures of discretion when dealing with matters they considered to be within their area of expertise. The findings from this study suggest the participants and FE teachers in general have little autonomy and are bound by college rules and procedures and constant surveillance. The participants claimed to have relied on 'common sense', their own experiences from previous occupations, and personal experiences of being a student. All participants stated that they felt unprepared to help their own FE students and the non-traditional students with their personal issues and challenges. Participants felt they were aware of professional boundaries, claiming they could differentiate between the role of the tutor and that of the teacher; but emerging conclusions from observations, focus groups and interviews suggest that there is an inconsistency in the approach to personal tutoring as the participants had differing ideas on such roles and responsibilities. Most participants further claimed that they knew when to refer their own students for specialist help.

As public employees, the participants demonstrated a tendency to face outwards and away from the bureaucratic structure of the college. They claimed that with specialist knowledge of teaching, the external aspects of professional teaching increased in importance: stressing the importance of contact with colleagues external to the college, which included schools and employers. This was a significant factor in establishing their new professional identity. The participants who teach vocational and professional subjects claimed these associations are essential to developing and maintaining professional and vocational expertise and ensuring that professional credibility is retained and renewed, although at the expense of teacher development. Participants expressed concern about the conflict between college managers and the participants' desire for professional autonomy, claiming that bureaucracy stifles professional growth and teacher creativity.

FE teachers' performance is judged using an array of quantitative and qualitative performance indicators. The judgement is based on student retention rates, achievement, and success. The data collected within this research acknowledges these judgments of performance; thus both qualitative and quantitative data have been used.

The data collected from classroom observations of FE teachers' performance is constructed by a series of prompts. Observers are required to tick a box, confirming the teachers' competence, thus providing a numerical summary of teachers' competence across the criteria. The observer also adds comments to justify the judgement made, and provides written feedback as to how the teachers could improve within this area of practice. This element provides rich qualitative data.

The questionnaires in this study were designed to capture the performance criteria of formal observations and those of my own observations – omitted from established classroom observation proformas. Quantitative analysis of the data generated from the questionnaires was used to formulate topics and as a focus for the qualitative methods, for example interviews and focus groups.

In justifying the use of quantitative data, I aimed to discover themes from which to then collect qualitative data. Both the nature of the feedback and the position of the person providing that feedback were analysed using descriptive statistics, providing a list of themes in order of frequency of occurrence in the data.

Other measures include student satisfaction surveys and formal lesson observations. The results are consolidated within the appraisal system, generally following autocratic management philosophies and practices. Colleges, and departments within colleges, are controlled by bureaucratic and hierarchical systems and structures and the adoption of a Fordism style of management.

One participant described the current philosophical approach to FE as 'mass production', standardised by tangible outcomes achieved through organisational coherent policies and practices. The intention of this performance management approach is to provide predicable outcomes, managed through quality management systems (quality assurance rather than continuous improvement). One example of this philosophical approach is further reinforced by the use of standardised course management and lesson planning documentation, used and enforced throughout and leading up to inspection. Juran (1985) claims this approach of standardisation ensures consistency in work practices and performance against key performance indicators. A claim somewhat misguided because of a lack of appreciation of the complexities of the three areas of FE teaching. Each area (vocational, professional and academic), and subjects within that area, requires a different approach to course planning and delivery. The current system of FE and initial teacher training clearly reflects the autocratic/Fordism style of college management. I recognise the benefits of 'management by surveillance', but at the cost of teacher autonomy and creativity in all aspects of an FE teacher's work. In contrast to a Fordist style of work, the human relations school of management described by Mullins (2011) focuses on the wellbeing of employees by ensuring that physical environments meet expectations as well as the psychological and social factors. Human relations school of management and leadership (Mayo 1924), promotes employee-motivating factors including groups, teams, leadership, professional trust, and the informal organisation of the college. Leadership and management of the college was a theme highlighted by the participants throughout each stage of the data collection process and more importantly was a significant factor when considering teacher professionalism and the pressures placed upon new FE Teachers.

Developing the professional FE teacher

Professional identity is gained through experiences, reflection and introspection. Reber (1985, p341) refers to professional identity as a person's essential, continuous self-examination, the internal subjective concept of one's self.

All FE teacher participants from all areas (professional, academic and vocational) foster the teacher-student relationship within the guise of the subject area. The participants referred to their own experiences of teaching and learning as a cycle, agreeing with Reber (1985) statement that they are responsible for interpersonal and intellectual development. When asked about their development, ethical practices, and interpersonal skills, all participants claimed these were not gained/developed from textbooks or course work. All participants are good at communication because they are good communicators.

One developing conclusion from this study is that there are three stages of professional development. The model outlined in figure 4.8 demonstrates the stages (although expressed in a linear format). Participants described how elements of teacher training moved from each stage of the model, often reverting to seeking definition and clarity. This model has been derived from the results of interviews and current models, for example Gibbs's (1982) reflective cycle. The model demonstrates the relationship between the definition of an event from a previous occupation, and the ways the event is conceptualised and transferred into teaching practice. The diagram/flow chart also demonstrates the ways participants refer back to previous experiences to further consider how those experiences influenced their teaching practice.
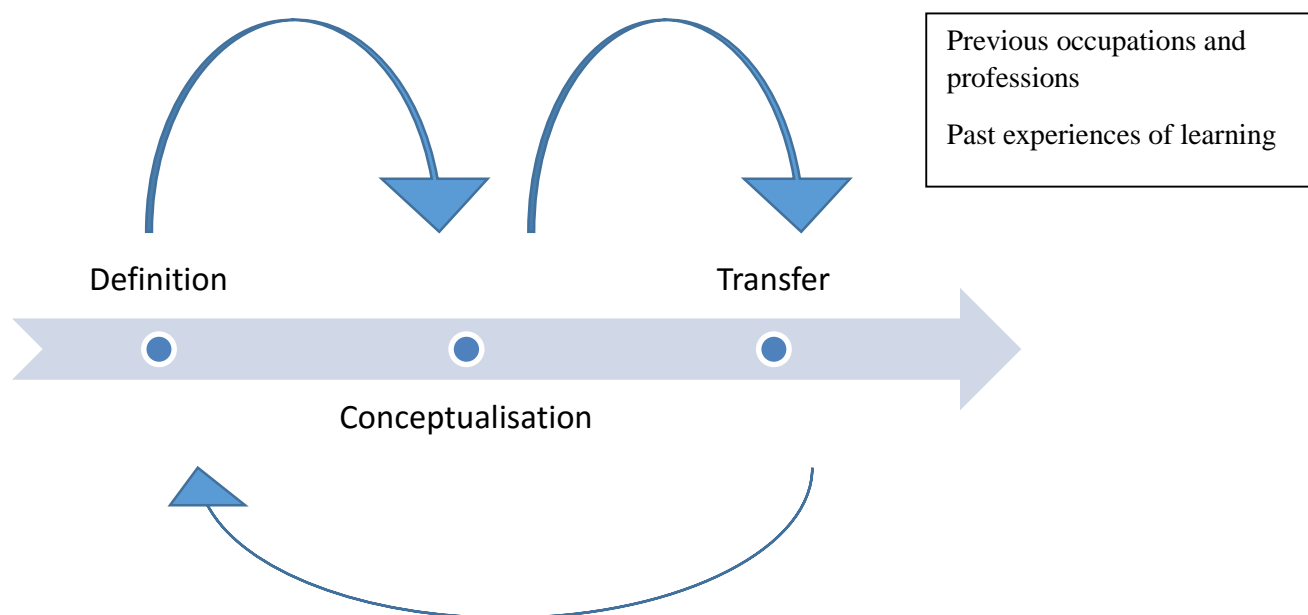
Figure 4. 8 Shows the three stages of professional development

Using feedback to develop the professional FE teacher

Data from the questionnaires provided details of how and who provided feedback to the participants on their performance and development. The feedback was from different individuals within the college team, and on a variety of topics, as indicated in Figures 4.9 and 4.10.

Person providing feedback	Frequency of feedback							
	Never	Less than once in two years	Once in two years	Once per year	Twice per year	Three or more times per year	Monthly	More than once a month
Head of School	17	0	1	2	0	0	1	1
Teacher Education Tutor	0	0	0	0	1	4	16	1
Subject Mentor	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	20
External Examiner	18	1	0	0	1	2	0	0

Figure 4.9. List of people providing feedback and the frequency of feedback

It was surprising to me that seventeen (77%) participants stated they had not received any feedback from their respective heads of school, even though this element is a requirement of the role, and eighteen (82%) participants claimed they had not received any feedback on their personal performance as a teacher from an external examiner/verifier. This result is consistent across the FE teaching sector within this study. Sixteen (73%) participants stated they had received some form of formative feedback from their teacher education tutor and twenty (90%) participants stated they had received feedback from their subject mentor more than once per month during their two years of initial teacher training. This indicates that feedback is occurring albeit from the restricted roles of teacher education tutor and subject mentor.

The table in Figure 4.10 summarises aspects of feedback to FE teacher participants in this study.

Feedback area	Importance given to this element of feedback			
	Not considered important	Considered of low importance	Considered of moderate importance	Considered of high importance
Students' results	8	4	7	3
Students' retention rate	0	3	8	11
Students' success rate	0	3	8	11
Students' feedback on teaching	6	4	7	5
Lesson observation results	0	0	5	17
How well s/he works within the team	0	0	18	4
Innovation in teaching	17	5	0	0
Responsive to change	19	3	0	0
Subject knowledge	14	5	3	0
Subject pedagogy	2	3	12	5
Teaching students with special needs	0	6	16	0
Teaching gifted/ talented students	22	0	0	0
Differentiated teaching practices	0	7	8	9
Extra activities (trips/visits)	20	2	0	0

Figure 4.10 Aspects of feedback

One interesting and surprising feature highlighted in Figure 4.10 was the lack of any notion of innovation in teaching practice. Much emphasis has been placed on teacher creativity and innovation by external agencies. Seventeen (77%) participants reported that the concept of innovative teaching (e.g. flip and cooperative learning) was not considered, despite the participants' best efforts to integrate

103

new and innovative teaching and learning strategies. Five (23%) participants stated that innovation was considered of low importance. Comments from people providing feedback revealed that the use of PowerPoint and the interactive white board were considered as innovative teaching. Both PowerPoint and interactive white boards have been available for many years, so it is surprising that these are considered as innovative strategies.

Related to the research questions of this study, nineteen (87%) of the participants stated that the feedback they received did not include their ability to respond to change. As outlined in Chapter 2, Askarov and Chong (2012) argue that teaching and learning is essentially about change. The FE teaching sector is rapidly changing in terms of curriculum, policy, philosophy and administration. However, participants did state that the feedback mentioned the participants' levels of resilience. Resilience is the capacity to cope with stress. Resilience is not a personality trait, it is an aspect of human behaviour, which develops as people experience different and difficult situations (Bond *et al* 2015). A measure of a person's resilience is self-management, knowledge and skills, all of which improve with time and reflection (Ovans 2015). Three participants (14%) stated their responsiveness to change was considered low importance. These comments related to a minor change in the participants' teaching timetable.

Another surprising result was the inconsistency between the results of teaching pedagogy and subject knowledge. The participants were very clear about their understanding of pedagogy, but claimed little attention was given to their personal subject knowledge. Participants also stated, within the focus group, that there was little opportunity for them to update or enhance their subject knowledge. Fourteen (64%) participants stated that feedback did not consider their level of subject knowledge and occupational expertise. Five (23%) participants stated that subject knowledge was considered of low importance. All participants stated their feedback had acknowledged the teaching of students with special/additional needs; although participants stated that the feedback focused on the teaching of students with learning difficulties (dyslexia) and little consideration was given to the teaching of students classified as gifted and talented.

Differentiation in teaching was considered in the feedback to all participants, seven (32%) as low importance, eight (36%) as moderate importance, and nine (41%) as high importance. The participants' understanding of differentiation in teaching differed with conflicting viewpoints of observing mentors and managers. Comments from observers and other people providing feedback were recorded on formal observation documents. An interesting feature which emerged from the observations was the inconsistency of the participants' understanding of differentiation in teaching; some claimed it was teaching the same subject/topic but in a different way, whilst others claimed it was addressing the differing abilities of students in the same class. The participants reflected on their understanding in the application of actual teaching practice.

Two participants (9%) reported they had received some positive feedback for their contribution and management of drama clubs and various educational visits. Eight participants (36%) stated that their students' results were not considered at all, four participants (18%) stated their students' results were considered of low importance. In contrast 10 (45%) stated their students' results were considered and used in formal evaluations. These results are consistent with sector results. Unsurprisingly, student retention and success rates were considered as part of formal evaluations, reflecting the college's organisational objectives and quality indicators. The participants felt some of the quality indicators used to judge their performance did not fully reflect their competence as FE teachers as they had little or no control over them. The statistical measures used are one indication of the whole learning experience and not that of the FE teacher. The indicators provide college managers with a focal point to investigate good and poor practice, including student recruitment and ensuring the FE student was enrolled onto an appropriate course. The student retention figure is often used unfairly by college managers to assess the quality of teaching and student support, without considering other sociological factors FE students face. The quality indicators are used in the allocation of college funding.

Six (27%) of the participants stated that student feedback was not considered, four (18%) stated student feedback was considered of little importance, seven (35%) stated student feedback was considered of moderate importance, and five (22%) of the participants stated student feedback was considered of high importance. The data shows a wide range of emphasis, and therefore inconsistency. In three cases out

of the five participants who stated that student feedback was considered of high importance, it was in cases where feedback had been negative and criticised the participants' teaching practice. Another interesting result was that seventeen participants (77%) stated that the results/grades of formal classroom observations were considered of high importance within the context of formal feedback. Five (22%) participants stated that lesson observation grades were considered in formal feedback sessions as being of moderate importance. Participants also stated, within the focus group, that there was greater emphasis placed on the negative aspects of their teaching captured in formal lesson observation reports.

Moderate emphasis was placed on the participants' ability to fit in with the teaching team. Eighteen (82%) participants stated feedback considered the assessment of the participants' emotional intelligence (managing emotions, level of personal motivation). Four (18%) participants stated levels of emotional intelligence and their ability and contribution to the work of teaching was considered of high importance. Feedback and judgements made by the people providing feedback was reported by participants to be generally negative.

The extent feedback has led to changes in professional practice

The data in the table in Figure 4.11 captures the participants' responses to the impact the feedback had on their professional practice. One question aimed to assess the impact of both positive and negative feedback on their professional practice.

	No change	Small change	Moderate change	Large change
Classroom management	0	3	14	5
Knowledge of teaching subject	16	5	1	0
Pedagogic knowledge	6	5	9	2
Personal development/action planning	11	4	4	3
Teaching students with special needs	0	17	4	1
Teaching gifted and talented students	12	5	4	1
Managing challenging behaviour	19	2	1	0
Attitude to change	21	1	0	0
Promoting equal opportunity	16	3	2	1
Improving student results	17	2	2	1
Developing strategies to improve student retention	14	4	2	2

Figure 4.11 The extent in which feedback has led to change in professional practice

The data relating to 'classroom management' and 'managing challenging behaviour' is interesting in terms of the validity and trustworthiness of the participants' responses. In theory, the responses to 'classroom management' and 'managing challenging behaviour' should be consistent but the participants have clearly viewed the two issues separately.

All participants reported some changes in their professional practice in classroom management in response to feedback. Some of the participants reported changes which are interesting in terms of answering the research question and highlighting areas for possible future study, including the role of the qualified FE teacher and the impact of their professional practice as new FE teachers. Fourteen (64%) participants recognised moderate changes and five (23%) noted significant changes because of feedback they received. Twenty (90%) participants reported no change in professional practice for managing student behaviour, suggesting that feedback related to managing student behaviour was ineffective in helping the participants manage student misbehaviour. Participants did however qualify their responses by clearly making a distinction between classroom management and challenging student behaviour. Classroom management was described by the participants as the whole classroom and learning environment and behaviour management was described as controlling students' conduct whilst in class. This is a thought-provoking response as feedback is viewed as a critical aspect of professional development. Chickering and Gamson (1987) discuss the relationship between constructive feedback and professional practice.

Sixteen (73%) participants reported no change in their practice in relation to feedback on subject knowledge; five (23%) reported a small change. This is an interesting but a contradictory response as some participants expressed concern about teaching subjects and topics they were unfamiliar with. The data in Figure 4.11 shows that the lack of change in this area is likely to link to the lack of feedback on this issue.

In terms of changes in pedagogic knowledge, the spread of the responses shows equality across the levels of change. Figure 4.11 shows that six participants reported no change, five reported a small change, none reported a moderate change, and two reported a large change in their pedagogic knowledge.

A requirement of ITT is for all student teachers to maintain a personal development portfolio. Eleven (55%) participants reported no change in the process of professional development planning because of

receiving feedback. Three participants reported a small change, four reported a moderate change, and three reported a large change.

Twelve (55%) participants stated they had noted a small change in professional practice relating to the teaching of students with special needs. Four participants noted a moderate change (two participants stated they had included teaching gifted and talented students as students with special needs). The data in Figure 4.11 is consistent with the data reported in Figure 4.10. The complexity of teaching and supporting students classed as 'gifted and talented' is discussed in Chapter 5. In the first questionnaire participants stated their feedback did not cover the teaching of gifted and talented students. Participants also expressed concern about this aspect of formal teacher training in Focus Group 2. They were unable to accept the gifted and talented students as special needs students, claiming the term 'special needs' is linked with disadvantage

All twenty-two (100%) participants reported no change in practice in relation to their promotion of equal opportunities. Eighteen (90%) participants reported no change in practice in relation to the participants' attitudes towards change. Eighteen (90%) participants reported no change in helping students to improve FE students' results, and fifteen (68%) reported no change in developing strategies to improve student retention.

In the first questionnaire the participants responded to the nature of their feedback in two distinct areas. They commented on whether the feedback contained a judgement on the quality of work, and whether the feedback contained action points to help improve the quality of work. Fifteen (68%) participants stated their feedback did not contain a judgement on personal development points. Conversely, six (27%) participants stated they had received both feedback and development points.

The current practice of teacher training is considered as constructive education and reflects the philosophy and focus of student attainment. This chapter uses the data captured in Figure 4.10, aspects of feedback, and Figure 4.11, to show the extent feedback leads to changes in professional behaviour.

The results and readings suggest that one aspect of being an effective teacher is the ability to apply feedback to one's own professional practice and to provide feedback in the process of applying change

(Chickering and Gamson 1987). The participants' responses and readings confer peer, mentor, manager, and tutor feedback is an essential and powerful change driver. It is the extent of the change driver and the ways the new FE teachers develop professional practice that is of note.

The participants expressed concern about the formal teacher training assessments. They stated that written assignments are organised in a fragmented and disjointed way. Participants also stated there were aspects of ITT that were irrelevant within the context of their own teaching. Two participants concurred that they were not prepared for the challenges of formal classroom teaching and varying demands of craft (vocational) teaching.

The participants discussed the varying types and quality of feedback they received from different people concerned with their professional development. An overview of the nature of the feedback is reported in this chapter. Figure 4.9 shows a list of people providing feedback on the participants' performance. Twelve (55%) participants stated their own students' results were not considered when they received feedback during formal and informal reviews. In contrast, nine participants stated their feedback did focus on their own students' results, a significant factor revealed was that the nine participants all taught academic subjects to A level standard (level three). The participants who taught vocational programmes stated their students did not fail any assessments; they were allowed to re-take assessments until they were successful.

All participants stated that the feedback from their respective curriculum managers focused on student retention. Student retention is one key performance indicator used in FE to assess the quality of student recruitment and student satisfaction with the course. Managers and mentors expressed concern about the participants' skills and tutoring ability in cases where the number of students withdrawing from courses exceeded college targets or national benchmarks. The participants described situations where their own students had withdrawn from their course before completing their respective courses and how managers attributed poor tutoring and a lack of tutor support as the only factor. The participants also claimed their managers' perception of successful student retention was directly related to managers intervening in the tutoring process. Nine participants expressed concern about their managers' and

mentors' focus on 'customer care' (Field Notes, 16.5.12). There is a changing power relationship between the FE teacher and their students; participants described situations in which they found themselves feeling vulnerable and open to embarrassment. One participant quoted a manager as referring to FE students as "funding units on legs", and saying that: "students are customers and while customers are not always right they are always the customers". The participants gave this as one example of the consumerisation of FE, and a factor in the de-professionalism of FE teaching. In Chapter 1, I mentioned the reduction in pay and status of FE teachers compared with other teachers from different sectors. Figure 1.4 compares teachers' hours over the three sectors of UK teaching, highlighting inequalities within UK teachers' pay.

Participants stated their own FE students' feedback on their learning experiences had been included in the formal evaluations of FE teacher performance. The FE students were required to complete 'Student Perception on Course' (SPOC) questionnaires. The participants were asked to agree or disagree with a range of statements based on a Likert scale (1= strongly agree – 5= strongly disagree). The data is used to inform the college self-assessment report and teacher performance appraisals. Two participants who stated that student feedback was considered in formal reviews also taught higher education programmes, but expressed concern about this process being abused by students as a vehicle for achieving retribution for a teacher's actions and assessment decisions: one participant described a higher education student complaining about a lower grade awarded that did not match her expectations or ego. Participants also stated they felt pressurised to award higher grades and were consistently challenged on assessment decisions. Students are quoted: "I need 60% plus" (Field Notes, 25.5.2011).

A highly contentious issue for all participants was the issue of formal teaching observations. Twenty-two participants were subjected to six formal lesson observations in a two-year period. Participants had mixed views of the effectiveness of the lesson observation process. Some participants described the process as useful and informative in terms of helping the participants to develop their professional practice; in contrast, seventeen participants stated that observers used the observation process to exert power and create unnecessary stress and anxiety. Sixteen participants also stated that formal lesson observations reduced their morale and had, as a result, considered withdrawing from teaching. Twenty

participants questioned the professionalism and ability of the observers to make an informed and fair judgement. They expressed concern about the ability of observers to make professional judgements when they were not subject specialists. The participants did accept that observers were able to make a judgement on the general quality of planning and delivery of a lesson, but felt the result was negated by a lack of pedagogic appreciation. College managers and policy makers claim the purpose of lesson observation is to help teachers improve the quality of learning for students and pupils. In contrast, all participants strongly expressed concern that too much emphasis was placed on a series of forty-five minute observations and the impact of the judgements on the participant's professional development. Participants described a range of physical symptoms synonymous with severe stress and anxiety when preparing for formal lesson observation.

Results from focus groups and participant reflective statements revealed a series of expected teacher competences of the participants in relation to their contribution to team working. Feedback to the participants in this area of professional practice varied in quality and frequency. Feedback on team working was a feature of performance reviews which was given moderate importance. It is clear from the results and participant reflective statements that much of the feedback was based on the subjective opinion of the provider and failed to provide the participants with meaningful and objective feedback. The focus group provided examples of missed opportunities to provide quality feedback on a framework of team development. One participant described an occasion when she had contributed to the development of the teaching team. Another participant took part in a quality audit of her school management; she was able to see how each element of the various teaching and administrative roles contributed to the management of the whole school. The participant was also able to contribute to the writing of a whole school development plan. Figure 4.12 show the omissions from feedback. The data was captured from Focus Group1 and analysed by naturally occurring themes (Silverman 2011).

Recognising the role of the teacher, tutor and internal moderator	Contributing to the teaching team development
Taking on marketing roles – College open days	Developing course management and leadership skills

Figure 4.12 Omissions in feedback

The concept and consistency of feedback to the participants on their development proved to be a valued feature. In some cases, participants felt the quality of feedback was compromised by the agenda and objectives of the person providing feedback. Examples included the participants' strategies of improving FE student retention rates and elements participants found difficult to contextualise in their own practice. Peer and expert feedback is used throughout each phase differently for each trainee teacher. Peer feedback is used explicitly, with original and specific criterion referenced checklists. There are many missed opportunities for the people providing the feedback to capture areas of expertise and development beyond published criteria.

The quality of peer and mentor feedback is in some way monitored by ITT tutors, although participants described this process as a box-ticking exercise. The value of producing reflective statements by teacher trainers and trainee teachers at the end of each stage of training or module has clearly been missed.

Participants stated in the questionnaires and interviews that the quality of feedback differed. Those responsible for providing feedback were confused about the concept of formative and summative feedback; participants felt that experts' (teacher trainers) feedback should only come at the end of a stage. They provided further explanations and argued that their teaching practice was based on concepts of continuous assessment, feedback and developmental planning.

In cases where the participants challenged the legitimacy of the classroom observation, college managers provided a mediating role between the observers and themselves. In deconstructing the participants' narratives, it became clear that the legitimacy of feedback is more complex for some than others. The participants described legitimate feedback as being the vehicle for progression through the initial teacher training and subsequent career. The quality of observer feedback varied. Some feedback was useful in helping the participants to develop teaching practices; some feedback on lesson observation was merely a statement of satisfactory/unsatisfactory performance. Some participants stated that the feedback in some cases was unhelpful; most stated that they used the grading criteria of the common inspection framework to judge their own performance. All participants agreed the grade 1 to 4 was the significant factor of lesson observation. One participant said:

> *"It is not a good idea to get a Grade 1 in formal lesson observations (1 is judged as outstanding in terms of teaching and learning quality) as college managers give you more to do. A lesson judged as a 2 (very good) is the new 3 (judged as satisfactory)."*
> (Focus Group 2, 23.3.12)

Planning documents are produced for inspection and audit purposes only, causing extra pressure ("never use a detailed plan for normal teaching").

> *"Takes me two days to plan for an observation – not sure I want to teach – might apply for a lab technicians job, more free time and less stress."*
> (Focus Group 2, 23.3.12)

Throughout 2012, results were gathered from discussions with the participants who also maintained a log/record of work activities and a reflective diary. One interesting theme arose from the participants' reflective accounts relating to the time and pressures placed on them when preparing for inspections and observations of teaching. Although the participants accepted that constant surveillance and assessment of their developing professional practice was a necessity, the theme of continuous surveillance and evaluation continues beyond initial teacher training.

Avis (2005) strongly believes that excessive observation/surveillance of teachers' professional practice, working within constraints of an audit culture, and an ethos of blame, sits with a low trust model of work relations and organisational culture. Holding new FE teachers accountable for students' summative examination results is deemed as unfair and unreasonable. Limited support and a second-class ITT programme are contributory factors in reducing professional status, teacher motivation, and teacher creativity in terms of developing interactive and engaging teaching and learning resources. Some participants who did attempt cooperative and student-centred learning activities were accused of not teaching their students using the traditional teacher-centred methods. Results from this study suggest the current bureaucratic system of initial teacher education restricts the development of social and intellectual capital of FE teachers and students. The concepts adopted by the current ITT programme mirror elements of performance management. Huczynski and Buchanan (2013) argue that performance management programmes often stifle peoples' creativity and innovation and promote conservative work practices and principles. Gleeson and Husbands (2003) concur by claiming that performance

management based on individual accountability runs contrary to the development of creativity in teaching. The results of this study also reveal a series of role conflicts and tensions between the participants' desire to think and act in a creative way and their contributions to organisational performance. In contrast, and somewhat contradictory, some results of this study also show that concepts of creativity are woven into the teaching, learning and the curriculum. The participants felt the focus on performance management and teacher accountability by managers severely restricted teacher and student creativity and innovation. Participants of this study were highly motivated to improve the quality of student learning and creative skills by developing their own level of innovation and that of their own students. Heavy workloads and limited teaching resources negated and suppressed the participants' initial enthusiasm for teaching and suppressed their creative thinking. Other factors highlighted by the participants of one focus group included inspection of teaching by external agencies of the college. Inspection regimes of teaching and the hysteria leading up to inspection severely limited the participants' ability to think creatively and act autonomously.

Using reflective activity to develop professional status of an FE teacher

The reflective activity of the participants enabled them to draw on previous experiences enabling a greater understanding of the present to shape future practice, achieved through processes of self-evaluation. Reflective practice is not a solitary or a relaxing activity; participants agreed it was challenging and hard work. The results from interviews and observations revealed reflective practice was more successful when completed as a collaborative effort. The data generated by this reflective activity was analysed by thematic analysis using elements of Gibbs and Johns reflective cycle models. Thematic analysis was used and I was able to code the participants' responses. Reflective practice was viewed by the participants as a way in which professionals can develop enhanced levels of self-awareness about the impact of their performance, highlighting opportunities for growth and development. Teachers need to understand the complexities of their own behaviours by developing a conscious awareness of behaviours of their students. Academic models of reflection are not easily put into practice. Schon (1983) describes reflective practice as a process within the context of the chosen profession, focusing on the ways professional knowledge is grounded within professional experiences.

Schon (ibid.) also claims competent practitioners know more than they can say, exhibiting traits of knowing in practice. Schon (ibid.) also highlights the plight of mastery, claiming practitioners are unable to identify the specific components of their work that lead to successful outcomes. Practitioners wishing to improve their performance are often unclear about the actions that also prevent them from being successful in practice. The process of reflective practice is to enhance awareness of thoughts and behaviours as a means of professional growth. Deciding on the starting point of the reflective cycle for the participants was the main challenge. Reflective practice is located within the concept of experiential learning (situated cognition). Dewey (1972) argue that learning is most effective when it begins with experience. The participants drew on problematic experiences, explaining they were more likely to learn when purposely engaged. Bridges (1992) highlights the values of problem-based learning arguing that learning is relative; changes in behaviour, attitude and skills are more effective through active, social and authentic learning. Chiriac (2009) claim effective learning takes place in a collaborative activity. Experiential learning theory developed by Kolb (1982) is a four-stage model. Johns model also reflects four stages

of reflection; an aspect the participants were very clear about.
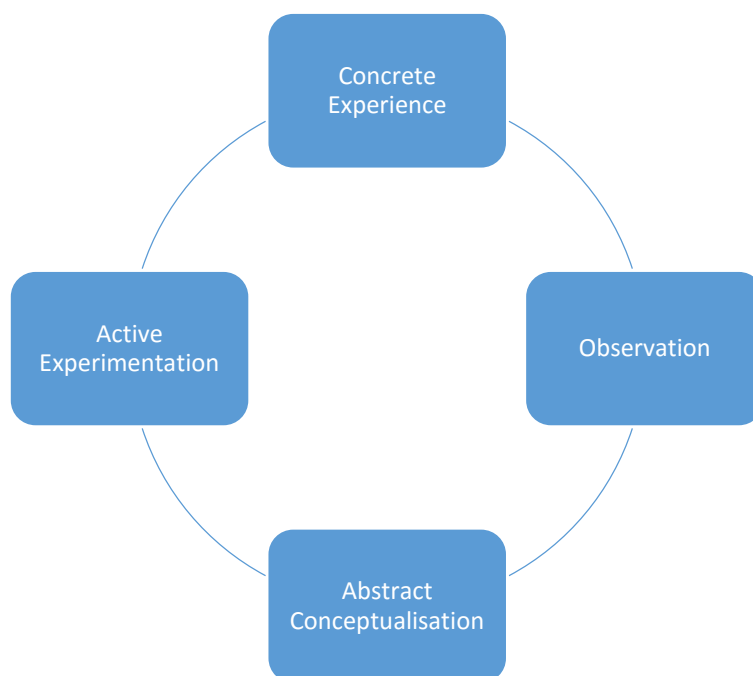
Figure 4.13 Kolb's reflective cycle

116

"Dialogue of thinking and doing through which I became more skilful."

(Dewey 1975)

Dewey (ibid.) describes the first stage of the reflective cycle as problematic, a troublesome event or experience which cannot be resolved by using normal operating procedures. Using Dewey's model, the following questions posed to the participants yielded interesting conclusions about the development of their teaching skills. The model below shows the process and questions used as a framework for the participants to respond to. Following stage four of the model the participants were able to reflect on the incident/situation and develop personal plans to manage future similar situations and develop new meanings.

| Stage One: what was the nature of the problem? | Stage Two: what were my intentions ? | Stage Three: what did I do ? | Stage Four: what happened? |
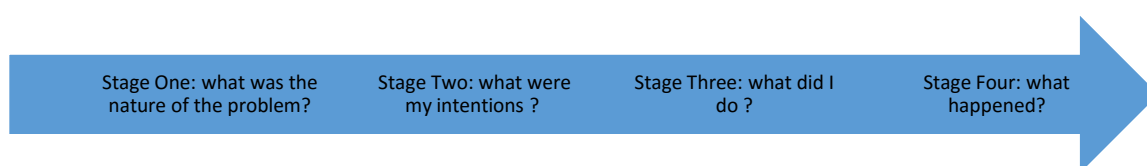
Figure 4.14 Four stage model of pre-reflection

Summing up the process, the participants of this study explained the ways by which they relate new meanings with existing theoretical perspectives: the assimilation of new and existing ideas, skills and thought. I discovered that making connections between the past, present and future professional practice is not always completed in a linear fashion. Participants discussed their internal conflicts of conscience, not just learning new skills but unlearning and re-learning knowledge, skills and thought, referring to a process in which learning is retrieved in future situations. Schon (1983) discusses learning in action, and with the results from this study I have taken elements of Schon's (ibid.) work further by merging existing and new skills and knowledge to create richer concepts of professional learning. The interesting themes revealed throughout the analysis stage included the participants' awareness of increased personal knowledge, memorising, and in some ways reproducing, personal changes by mediating between theory and professional practice, making sense of a new identity. The concept of reflectivity involved the continuous process of reflective classification by the examination of a new identity as a teacher and the relationship with the participants' previous occupations. The conflict identified between traditional classroom-based learning and work-based experiential learning, whilst encompassing

117

practical skills development, was problematic for most participants. New FE teachers are concerned about how the meanings of their new roles and identity are produced within each of the three professional teaching areas. They recognised that the process of teaching and being taught requires interpretation and reflection. Reflectivity involves making the learning process a focus of a new teacher's professional development, challenging pre-conceptions of teaching and being aware of the complexities of the student-teacher relationship. The participants realised that aspects of their new identity and professional roles throughout the data collection period, including the findings/realisations, informed subsequent questions and lines of enquiry. The reflective process provided opportunities for the participants to re-consider their intended future actions and plans.

Professional role conflict

Throughout the data collection period, some participants experienced difficulties in their relationships with their respective line managers and some of their own FE students. Wirt (1981) provided a five stage instructional model of the process of professional conflict.

> ***Quiescence*** *– professional dominance*
> ***Issue emergence*** *– growing number of student complaints*
> ***Turbulence*** *– challenges made by pressure groups and some militants within the professional ranks*
> ***Resolution*** *– debate within the professional ranks*
> ***Closure*** *– reduction of conflict, accepting some redefinition of professional actions: imposed or voluntary*

The difficulties experienced by the participants with their own students' requests conflicted with college requirements, which could not be explained away in terms of recalcitrance of awkward individuals. The main issue described by the participants is the strain between the participants and the college managers, although the participants claimed they experienced strains and conflicts of interest with external agencies as well. The results from this research support the position of Helsby and Etzoni (1992) that teachers are semi-professionals, describing them as 'compliant technicians'. The results also suggest the participants are more amenable than other professions to bureaucratisation, as the participants displayed actions of compliance when dealing with their own students in difficult situations. One participant explained her approach to behaviour management. She claimed the teacher training tutor

recommended the concept of transactional analysis. Although theoretically useful, the participant stated it was her role to instil the professional principles of the hairdressing profession. The participant stated her role was one of an adult and parent in the three-stage process.

Results gained from the participants' narratives highlight key changes in terms of differentiation of FE teaching and training roles. Vocational teachers, by the nature of competence-based education, have a reduced role when compared to the roles of academic teachers. The vocational teachers strongly contested the argument stating they had responsibility comparable with those teaching academic and professional subjects. Lucas (2007) describes how FE competence-based tutors' status, pay and conditions are significantly worse than those teachers employed in schools and sixth form colleges.

> *"I understand, I do hold a university degree, but it does not affect my ability to teach my subject and trade. The college should respect my skills are different, but at the end of the day, my course results are good and above the national average . . . I cannot see the relevance of being able to write 2000 word essays, and reference them, makes me a better teacher"*
> (Extract of Interview Transcript May 2013)

The position of the vocational teacher is derived from the nature of vocational training. The qualities of vocational teachers focus on preparing FE students for the world of work and, in some cases, the perception of vocational teachers assumes greater importance than that of academic and professional vocational teachers. All participants described the importance of their practice and having a positive impact on the local and national economy.

Participants also felt an overwhelming sense of responsibility for their FE students in ways which do not match the current professional standards. Although the concepts of pastoral care are addressed within the current initial teacher training, participants often supported their FE students with their personal issues, beyond the scope of formal teacher education and training. It is the point at which the participants recognise when to pass on/refer the FE students to external organisations or specialist support workers within the college that is important to recognise. One participant stated she had written to a Member of Parliament on behalf of a student who was experiencing difficulties with student finance. This action was closely linked to the concept of altruism; the participants often placed themselves in difficult and vulnerable positions, believing they were acting in the students' best interest.

The perceptions of acting professionally (compliance with organisational policy and procedure) is often negated by many of the unplanned meetings with other colleagues and support workers. The participants explained the ways students are able to access a range of support services often brokered by the participants. They clearly valued the work of specialist support workers in the college, but neglected key aspects of their teaching. The participants who teach vocational subjects reported significantly more FE students' welfare and social incidents. Although the sociological and welfare issues relating to non-traditional FE students is an interesting concept, this is an area beyond the scope of this study and a subject for future research.

Learning Cultures

The process of becoming a teacher

This section of my thesis reports the augmented results from focus groups, my own observations and the findings from personal interviews. The data has been analysed by thematic analysis drawing out the themes relating to the FE culture and subsequent sub-cultures.

During Focus Group 1, I asked the participants to discuss the reasons why they choose to become an FE teacher and to describe any notable changes personally and professionally. The participants wrote a short paragraph, some in bullet points, outlining the process of becoming an FE teacher. The participants' responses were captured on a marker board. The data was analysed by themes, separating the marker board into the areas listed in table 4.15.

Subject knowledge	Patience and resilience
Passion for learning	Excellent communication skills
Success as a student	Creativity
Sense of humour	Experience
Like students	Encouragement from others
Tolerance of others	Desire to serve
High levels of emotional intelligence	Natural progression from existing occupation

Figure 4.15 Participant reasons for joining the FE teaching sector

The participants agreed that the process of becoming a teacher does not begin at the point of entry to teacher training. When asked/challenged about the influences on their chosen pedagogical approaches seven of the ten respondents highlighted their own experiences of post-compulsory education as the most significant factor. Responses indicate that previous learning experiences have helped the participants develop strong and embedded opinions and lasting teaching practice frameworks which have influenced the participants' pre-conceptions and professional teaching practice. The participants

were very clear about their opinions on teaching and learning and were resistant to change when confronted with new ideas. Field Notes (11.3.2012), concerning the use of a co-operative learning exercise, record that one participant stated he would not use this innovative teaching method as it could not work with the type of students he teaches. When asked why, he replied: "it just won't work, the students will take the p***". The other respondent challenged him to try this this new approach. The participant did try, but reported that it was a disaster, failing to engage students in purposeful educational activity (Field Notes, 18.3.2012). Thus, some of the new FE teachers demonstrated reluctance to change, and yet being able to change and adapt teaching and learning practices is vital to professional development.

New FE teachers

The perceived negative characteristics and behaviours of some FE students led to a discussion in the focus group about the ways in which the participants dealt with students who displayed negative aspects. Focus Group 4 discussed the concept of developing the emotional intelligence of new FE teachers. Goleman (2001) describes the components of emotional intelligence as self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills, and being aware of one's emotions and how one's emotions affect others. The participants agreed that developing emotional intelligence during the ITT period would help new FE teachers cope with FE student behaviour management and any other stressful situations new FE teachers face. One participant stated that he maintained his passion for teaching by remembering the reasons he chose to enter the FE teaching profession. The participants raised several areas of concern and questions they felt were very relevant but unanswered by the formal ITT programme:

1. How do new teachers manage the students' home environment and motivate them to learn and behave in class?
2. How do we deal with the students' lack of attention in class?
3. Why do some students appear not to want to learn when clearly they do?
4. At what stage should we involve home life to influence students to engage with college (appropriate for students aged 14 to 18years)?

"About one 5th of my students are from families whose English is not their first language and over 60% of these families are in receipt of some form of social benefit. Students (mainly boys) from this social group have a reputation for low educational achievement, high absenteeism and poor behaviour in class. I remember one class, students were ready to learn, they wrote down the lesson objectives and some (at the back) threw looks of disgust and engaged in other conversations. One girl decided to braid the hair of the girl sitting next to her, two boys decided to look out of the window, one boy yawned and placed his head on the desk and one girl walked to other side of the classroom to show her friend a facebook update. One student said to me I am fed up using Google to look up those big words your use."
(Participant Reflective Statement, March 2012)

The theme of this participants' statement is not uncommon and demonstrates the complexities of class management which new and existing teachers face. Participants strongly complained about the lack of preparatory work in the formal training for managing student behaviour and motivating students. The participants stated that their students adopted different behaviours when subject mentors or external agencies (Ofsted) formally observed the participants.

The one task I asked of Focus Group 4 was to list their views on FE teaching. I provided four blank flip charts and asked the participants to capture their reflections and viewpoints of FE teaching and arrange them in four distinct areas: Core Standards, Differentiated Standards, Teacher Knowledge, and Professionalism. Figure 4.16 shows the results of the group's contributions which capture elements of professional practice not addressed within the current teacher education programme.

Core Standards

Subject knowledge and occupational expertise

Committed to student learning

Knowledge of human development and learning theory

Managing and monitoring of student learning

Adapting teaching and learning methods to meet individual needs

Expertise in teaching methods

Managing student conduct and maintaining motivation

Advanced communication skills

Accurate and purposeful Programme planning – lesson plans and schemes of work

Assessment of students' work and learning

Professional commitment and responsibility

Team work and collaborate working

Promotion of a learning culture

Differentiated Standards

Teaching standards to meet the requirements of the awarding body

Justification of teaching methodologies

Apply effective teaching methods for those students who are at different levels – within the same group or not

Reflect on professional practice in a systematic and or conceptual way

Professionalism

Reflecting on teaching

Maintain accurate record

External communications

Making positive contribution to the whole college

Commitment to furthering individual development

Teacher Knowledge

Subject and pedagogic approach

Knowledge of students – background, literacy, numeracy and ICT levels and abilities

Students' targets, goals and career aspirations

Knowledge of teaching and learning resources

Designing coherent teaching presentations and activities

Promotion of equality of opportunity based on respect, responsibility and relationships

Figure 4.16 Participants views on FE teaching (completed flip charts)

To summarise, the participants from each section shared similar perceptions of FE teacher professionalism. The participants who teach academic subjects claimed they were able to make the transition from an academic/student to that of a teacher with relative ease. Participants who teach vocational and professional courses claimed they had experienced radical changes in organisation, culture, behaviour and structure. The data recorded on the flip charts (Figure 4.16) demonstrates the participants' knowledge and perceptions of the new FE teacher.

Avis, Bathmaker and Parsons (2003) examined the experiences of new further and higher education teachers. They highlight several significant issues contributing to the new teachers' high levels of dissatisfaction. The participants of this study expressed statements of complete dissatisfaction with the concept of new managerialism (the introduction of formal line management) and overwhelming administrative duties, including the challenges of responding to new institutional and sector initiatives. The authors suggest there are many similarities between FE and HE teachers. Their research asserts a negative viewpoint of new teachers entering the profession but fails to discuss and explore the new entrant's prior knowledge, experience or qualifications. Avis, Bathmaker and Parsons' (ibid.) position was initially refuted by some of the participants' responses to excessive administrative duties, in most cases the participants accepted that administration was inevitable.

Lucas (2007) claims FE teachers are viewed as vocational specialists rather than professional educators. Although accepting Tolin's (ibid.) claims, there is conflict emerging between Lucas's findings and the three communities of practice highlighted in this study (vocational, professional and academic teachers). Participants identified three significant areas of difference between participants who teach vocational subjects and those who teach professional and academic subjects.

1. *Prior experience, qualifications and exposure to higher education*. Participants who teach vocational subjects felt they were at a significant disadvantage in terms of academic experience.
2. *Perceived disparity of workloads between the three distinct areas*. The participants who teach academic subjects claimed their workloads were significantly greater than those who teach vocational subjects, in terms of lesson planning, teaching contact with students, and student assessments.
3. *Stratification of the three areas*. It was felt that academic teachers were held in higher esteem and had a higher status.

The conflict was negated by the benefits of learning within a heterogeneous community of practice by means of sharing experiences.

Within the UK higher education sector, the 2003 white paper '*The Future of Higher Education*', attempted to provide new lecturers with a set of teaching standards. This initiative failed to improve teaching standards as it did not consider other significant factors of new lecturers' teaching contexts and subjects. Moves made by higher authorities and the National Teaching Fellowship (NTF)

programme to raise the standards in higher education teaching were based on teaching tactics, lacking solid theoretical foundations in teaching, learning and change. Skelton (2004) explains that the NTF scheme was viewed as a group of twenty experts who disseminated good practices within the HE sector. The approach adopted by NTF was based on transfer of theory, failing to recognise the complexity of educational change. Skelton (ibid.) also recognises that teachers will not accept change unless they can identify with the educational values and beliefs related to change. Despite the moves made by higher authorities to capture good teaching practices, the FE sector fails to account for and prepare new FE teachers for the challenges of modern teaching. All participants from each community of practice agreed that a comprehensive recruitment and induction programme would have helped them to adjust to their new role and adopt a new professional identity. All three communities of practice also agreed that tutoring was one area of teaching practice they felt unprepared for and not addressed in the current ITT (Field Notes, 12.3.12).

Most interactions between the participants and their FE students were conducted when tutoring the students on a one-to-one basis. These tutorials involved discussions about their progress. However, the participants argued that the current teacher training programme does not provide the necessary tutoring skills and sociological and psychological knowledge of developing FE students in helping them to realise their career aspirations.

Considering what contributed to teaching success, one interesting result generated from questionnaire one is that five (23%) of the participants claimed their teaching success and their new career was credited to the support of their subject specialist mentors. In contrast, eight (36%) participants stated their teaching success was due to their own experiences and the inspiration of former teachers. Nine (42%) participants were unable to credit a single factor that influenced their professional practice.

Culture is viewed as shared values and views by members of an identifiable and homogeneous group (Frieddson, 2001). Holye and Wallace (2005) claim that members of a professional culture share values, attitudes, and ideologies specific to a profession. Lynch (2004) describes professional culture as "the skills and abilities to meet the relationship centred expectations to practice" (Lynch ibid., p366).

FE students and the participants have varied social backgrounds, which in some ways influence the philosophical approaches to FE provision. FE colleges are essentially responsible for vocational education and training. The cultures within the context of an FE college represent the variety of vocations, crafts and academic subjects taught.

Culture and subcultures within FE provision

Continuing themes arose from Focus Group 3, and I posed the following further questions to gain an understanding of the participants' perceptions of how society views the FE teaching sector.

> **Michael: "How does society view FE teachers and teaching?"**
> *Participant A: "With distrust and not really respected by the other sections of the education community. Employers believe we are behind the times and fail to promote the basics in terms of employability skills. Students hold a perception of entitlement; they feel have a right to fulltime employment or access to higher education. Everything in college is on their terms. There are no consequences for poor time keeping, high absenteeism . . . ."*
> **Michael: "What drew you to FE Teaching?"**
> *Participant B: "A passion for the subject – to challenge opinions of the world, making a difference to wider society, put something back, Teaching is my purpose in life – feels good being a teacher."*
> (Transcript of Focus Group 3, March 2012)

Five participants stated that their decision to become a teacher was because of their own experiences at college or school. The life of teachers was appealing, as was belonging to a profession. One participant described how his college experience had provided him with a second chance, turning his life around following a misguided youth.

Einstein regretted not teaching, stating he would have liked to have had more contact with children in order to explain the basic laws of nature.

> "When you reach them at their level, you can read in their eyes their genuine interest and appreciation."
> (Einstein 1879 -1955)

Participants of Focus Group 3 claimed that they often discussed their enthusiasm for teaching the learning process, stating that the process was important, and in some cases teacher enthusiasm and humanistic care of students was more important than the subject knowledge.

Faber (1991) discusses the broad repertoire of moves teachers are able to draw on in challenging situations. Two participants claimed they were born teachers; early life experiences encouraged them to enter the teaching profession. One emerging conclusion is that those who become teachers were influenced by their own teachers as people, rather than subject experts, referring to the human dimensions of teaching. Most participants chose to enter FE teaching because of a desire to serve others, further claiming a need to expand their professional needs beyond providing support for themselves and their families. Three participants holding first degrees or master's degrees previously worked within their respective industries following graduation. Their decision to join the FE teaching sector was based on a desire to teach part-time as a means of testing their suitability, whilst working full-time in their primary occupations, accountancy and law. Zehm and Kottler (1993) claim very few people go into teaching to become rich or famous. Most are enticed by the sense of helping others:

> "The teachers who flourish are those who are loved by their students and viewed by colleagues as those who feel tremendous dedication and concern for others; it's not just because they are paid to do so, but it is their nature and ethical responsibility."
>
> (Zehm and Kottler 1993, pp8-9)

Two participants were influenced by their former jobs – roles in education as classroom assistants – and were motivated to teach by their success in their former professions.

In this college there are emerging subcultures characterised by the different departments and schools. Appreciating the three distinct subcultures challenges the established organisation structure, by separating academic teaching from professional and vocational teaching. Further elements of college culture are further characterised by the way people present themselves in official and unofficial manners: the language used, interests, socialising, the groups students and teachers belong to and the associated territories. Participants often described the ways inter-group conflict between groups manifested, and the ways the conflict was settled. Conflict was normally settled through dialogue or external intervention (Field Notes, April 2012). An emerging theme related to conflict between groups was the allocation of resources and budgets between the different departments. Continuing on the theme

of resources, participants identified the quality of physical resources as an indicator of the sub-culture, portraying a level of professionalism. Five participants from Focus Group 3 expressed concern about the physical buildings, claiming that some areas of the college are drab and bland, failing to reflect the participants' enthusiasm for the subject and curriculum area. The participants were asked if they promoted a positive learning environment, and about the ways they did it in the classroom. Woolfolk (2010) provides a rationale for these questions claiming that the learning environment is somewhere students and teachers interact, and each interaction affects others. Woolfolk's (ibid.) views of the physical resources are one ingredient to building successful working relationships. Participants were very clear about the value of student-teacher relationships with their FE students as the base for effective learning; however, the student-teacher relationship is influenced by the quality of the resources and the teaching and learning environment.

Participants believed the effective FE teacher focuses on the completion of tasks and gaining good class statistical data (student retention, achievement and success). Two participants stated the class management approaches were so ineffective, the consequence was a negative learning culture based on a sense of fear because of a shift in power relationships to the FE students. Some participants stated that they could relate to their students, although some FE students were particularly demanding of the participants' time. Most participants stated they enjoyed a positive working relationship with their FE students based on the FE students' achievement and contribution to the class. In most cases, participants were unaware and paid little attention to the importance of developing positive working relationships with their students and failed to recognise the relationship between a successful student-teacher relationship and how a positive working relationship with students can promote successful learning.

Continuing with the theme of success, I asked the members of Focus Group 3 to comment and identify the features of a successful college, a teaching department, and a class. One measure was student success: the number of students who passed the course compared to the number of students who enrolled onto the course. Most participants knew the predicted success rates of their own classes and the college target (85%) and some were aware of the national benchmarks. The general conclusion of the group was that all students benefit from being in the education system by improving some or all of the

following: communication skills, literacy, numeracy, and ICT levels. One aspect was the improvement of FE students' employability skills and the development of personal work ethics. Employability and developing positive work ethics was a theme throughout this study. One participant stated that developing employability should be, and in some ways is, a naturally occurring feature of any vocational course. However, the participants of one focus group (Focus Group 3) strongly disagreed, stating the concept and process of developing students' employability skills was overlooked within the current ITT programme. Developing and encouraging FE students' ability to think and act creatively was also discussed at length. Figure 4.17 summarises the participants' contributions when considering the features of a successful college.

1. Strong leadership, management and communication	At all levels of the college. Participants wanted much more emphasis placed on leadership skills within the ITT process. Excellent commination was an overwhelming feature of this discussion; participants felt very strongly about the non-teaching (73% of the total staff) staff responsibility for promoting effective and positive learning cultures at the college.
2. High expectations of students	Regardless of students' social class, prior achievement, experience and special learning needs. In qualifying this statement, participants felt those teachers who convey high student expectations, also demonstrate an ability to challenge the more able. One participant stated modern teachers should also be able to support and strengthen the gifted and talented students whilst supporting the less able students.
3. Providing opportunities to develop the students' basic skills	In literacy numeracy and ICT. Colleges should place much more emphasis on employability, creativity and innovation (there was a considerable disagreement between the three teaching areas.)
4. Clear sense of purpose, direction, and vision	With its foundations in students' achievement and destinations. Promotion of ethical and shared values. Collegiality and a sense of community, working together in all sections of the college. Participants felt the need for strong and unambiguous systems of work, transparent service level agreements, positive promotion of teamwork, to reduce the sense of teacher isolation.

Figure 4.17 Features of a successful college

Focus Group 3 summarised on flip charts the features of a successful college culture.

Student Learning
Effective course and lesson planning
Implementation – teaching and learning
Evaluation

Pedagogic Approach
Requirement for thinking
Solving problems
Community projects
Working with employers and universities

External Support
Department for Education
Higher Education Funding Council
Professional institutions
Awarding bodies
Commercial sponsorship
Collaboration with other colleges, schools and HEIs

Strive for Continuous Improvement
Sharing ideas to improve teaching
Actively seeking student and external feedback
Employer representation
Total quality management and quality assurance

Figure 4.18 Flip charts showing features of a successful college culture

The flip charts below capture the participants' views of personal goals and college objectives. I aimed to reveal factors which complemented and conflicted with the participants' personal goals and college organisational objectives. College objectives are the views of the participants. The data reveals little consideration for change in both areas.

Personal Goals
Pass ITT
Be a good or better teacher
Fit into the teaching team and make a positive contribution
Aspire to be a programme manager/senior tutor
Help students achieve their qualifications

College Objectives
Task orientated
Increase the levels of accountability of teaching staff
Responding and anticipating requirements of inspection regimes
Income driven
Much more focus on peripheral/ non-teaching activities

Figure 4.19 Flip charts comparing personal goals of the FE teacher and college objectives

The Concept of Learning Cultures

The concept of learning cultures evolved from the work of Argyris (1992), and in earlier times Schon (1978), who described learning cultures as formal and informal organisations which help people to learn and become more effective. Weik (1993) argue the concepts of formal organisation and learning are contradictory; organisation by its own definition implies structure, order, line management and stability. In contrast, learning implies change (permanent change in human behaviour and attitude). Huczynski and Buchanan (2013) refer to knowledge as a form of raw material in education. Throughout the period of this study, the college lost considerable kno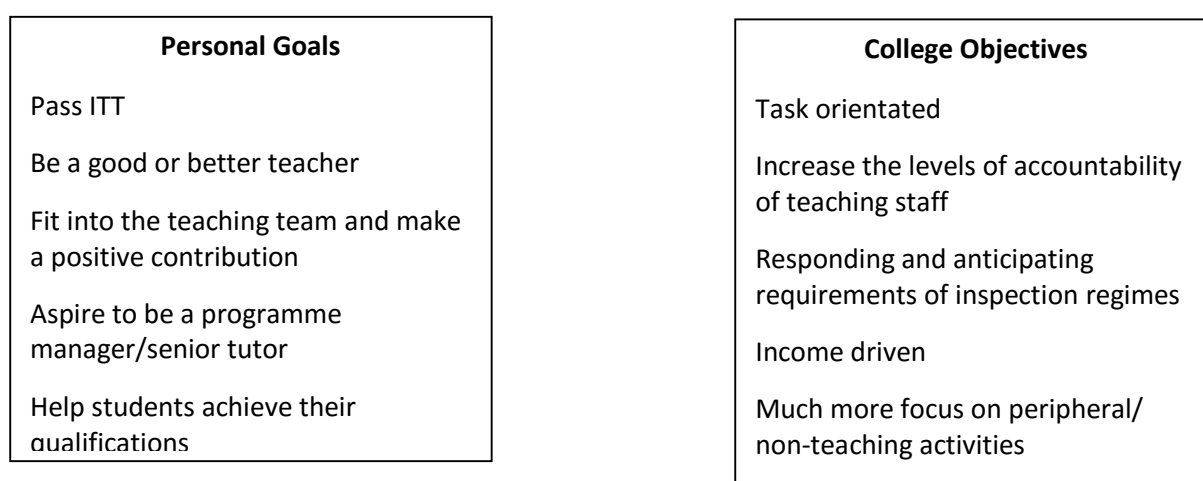wledge due to two participants withdrawing from the programme. High teacher turnover is not uncommon across the UK FE sector (Office of National Statistics 2013).

Argyris (1992) describes management as being concerned with best practice, predictably within an autocratic organisation. An emerging finding from the focus group meetings was the lack of opportunity for the participants to speak freely about challenges, new ideas and observations about their roles. They did however explain that within the context of formal teacher training classes and mentor meetings, they were encouraged to share their reflections from teaching practice. The participants were clearly frustrated by the lack of opportunities to try new ideas within the context of their teaching or even comparing their own performance with that of other teachers or benchmarking against best practices. The participants expressed concern about the emphasis placed on the development of analytical skills within practical teaching skills. The professional development of FE teachers and lecturers is not achieved by standardising their development. The three areas of FE teaching identified in this study require different approaches to enable an effective, successful and responsive education system. The participants of this study were able to share information and learn in an informal way by means of social media. A feature of the participants' learning culture was the popularity of social media. Participants were able to draw and reflect on shared and personal experiences. The participants made use of mobile technology as a means of providing peer support, disclosing an underworld of communication networks, invisible at the start of this study. Hodginkson (2004) recognises that the way to improve FE teaching in the UK is to change the learning culture, acknowledging that effective learning is often realised

through context-specific learning and the sharing of experiences with other likeminded students. Although technology and mobile technology support the development of learning cultures by means of establishing and maintaining a connection, purposeful learning cultures require much more than technological means of communication.

Further development of learning cultures within this group of trainee teachers was apparent within the areas of teaching and learning. Teaching and Learning Regimes (TLR), developed by Trowler (2002) provide dimensions of learning cultures. According to Trower (2002) there are nine components of TLR and change in education. Because the participants were engaged in formal ITT, and by means of them making sense of the academic assignments in relation to their developing professional practice, this enabled the *development of meaning*. Adding to this, participants were able to identify *codes of significance*, by means of accepting permanent changes in attitude by responding to formal lessons and evoking emotional changes. The participants of this study completed personal reflective journals and in some ways provided *discursive repertories*. Although heavily reliant on socially constructed discourse, participants' reflective statements were clearly commodifying education and shaping their way of viewing education and training as a commercial activity. As the learning culture of the participants developed so did the development of what were perceived as *recurrent practices*; the ways things are done are often taken for granted and rarely evaluated. Participants' examples included how feedback was received and used to inform future practice – tutorials with their own students and personal tutorials with the participants' tutors. Ways of working were also discussed by the participants in terms of the ways their behaviour changed in different circumstances. The participants described the challenges of being accepted by other teachers as credible colleagues: *subjectivities in interaction*. The themes from focus groups suggest the participants retained aspects of their professional identities, although as a result of working in several learning cultures new identities were often negotiated. At times during the investigations there was evidence of *power relationships* developing between the group members based on subject expertise and, more evidently, between the participants who taught academic and vocational subjects. Each participant provided details of tacit assumptions based on the participants' perceptions and experiences of previous education. It is recognised that all members of any social group hold

collective assumptions, often with no theoretical basis. Participants expressed concern about their expected behaviour outside of college, claiming they could be challenged for any external activities they choose to engage in which the college management deem as inappropriate. They accepted there are *rules of appropriateness* associated with their new roles as FE teachers; the way they behave in class and in college often reflected college procedure and documentation. Participants reported they found it difficult to apply theoretical models of teaching and learning, although the *implicit theories* used in their professional practice included the debate about constructivist and transmissive teaching. There are notable differences between the participants who teach academic subjects (transmissive methods) and those who teach vocational subjects (constructivist) (Kugel 1993).

The learning cultures developed by the participants and those learning cultures the participants join are clearly interlinked; adopting a functionalist model, each learning culture is interrelated and dependant on the other. During the twentieth century, Durkheim (1938) introduced the concept of functionalism, which was further developed by Talcott-Parsons (1960). The authors referred to society as a series of interrelated and dependent parts. Talcott-Parsons (ibid.) uses an analogy of the human body as a system, each organ dependent on the other in order for the human body to function. The concept of functionalism applied to aspects of this study began with observations of the teachers' and lecturers' behaviours within the FE teaching profession. Members of the three learning cultures within this study are organised by rules and norms, stipulating how the members are expected to conduct their professional lives. Participants who taught vocational and professional subjects stressed the importance of maintaining links with their previous vocations, often undertaking part-time employment or industrial updating ensuring their skills and knowledge are up to date. From a functionalist perspective, the FE sector is regarded as a developing system as FE colleges aim to establish working partnerships with a wide range of stakeholders, including employers. In order for the FE sector and its teachers to survive or thrive, the various parts must have some degree of compatibility. Haralambos and Holburn (2004) claim the educational system is partly concerned with supplying society with skills and knowledge required for economies to grow. Thus, the participants' links with external organisations, and the ways they augment their vocational expertise and experience, is important but challenging due

to the demands of FE teaching. Participants who taught vocational and professional subjects described conflicts of interest between the values of FE teaching and those of their previous vocations, but viewed them as minor disturbances (Focus Group, March 2012).

Developing Teaching Practice

Data generated from Focus Groups 3 and 4 suggest high and varied levels of inequality of opportunity in FE. The participants gave examples of how educational field trips overseas were financially and socially beyond the reach of most FE students (but attributing mainly financial pressures). The participants offered a reasonable rationale, claiming educational visits enhance the quality of students' learning and act as a form of social glue in the creation of a sense of belonging to a group. The participants felt that two extravagant visits to the Middle East and North America divided the student groups into those FE students who were able to afford to attend and those who were not. This issue caused resentment between the FE students. The participants stated they sought a range of additional funds and organised fund raising activities in an attempt to overcome the financial barriers. Recent central government initiatives and legislative developments have removed barriers, including the introduction of student loans for level three access courses to education and vocational training. Although the participants felt this superficially dealt with discrimination based on race, ethnicity and gender, they felt there was much more work to be done in creating an equal FE society, removing social stratification between the three distinct areas of FE teaching. Participants agreed that all FE students should receive a quality educational/vocational experience, so that they are able to make a positive future contribution to society. Durkheim (1956) stated:

> "the education of our children should not depend upon the chance of their having been born here or there, of some parents rather than others."
> (Durkheim 1956, p176)

Colleges and their teachers thrive on the diversity of FE students and the wealth of knowledge, experiences, and contributions they make to FE. Celebrating diversity has distinguished UK colleges from similar educational intuitions in other countries. Since the period of unrest and demonstrations in the 1980s', UK colleges and universities have been concerned with actively promoting equality of opportunity for all in education.

The participants of Focus Group 4 identified the philosophy of FE colleges as metaphorical, referring to colleges as factories, using students as raw materials, moving them through the assembly line (the curriculum) in a structured manner, until they exit as finished products. Lucas (2004) uses an analogy of FE colleges as shopping centres: there is something for everyone and students are the consumers. This perspective was relevant in 2012/13 when higher education students were seeking the best value for money. Participants who teach on higher education courses stated students are deeply concerned about the kudos of the degree and qualifications they receive.

> *"Employers are aware of the strengths and limitations of further education colleges who also provide higher education programmes. Employers are using their influence in consultation and new programme validation process to influence the content of the increasing number of vocational degrees."*
> (Interview Transcript, March 2013)

Participants described this phenomenon as a club/clan tied with emerging traditions and reputations.

The theme of Focus Group 4 was to explore the ways colleges mirror wider society, its culture and traditions, and the impact of professional developing teaching practice. Emerging opinions from this focus group revealed contrasting viewpoints. Some participants shared the view of Lucas (2004) who argues, colleges are not simply puppets of the dominant mainstream society – they have their own unique concerns and perceptions of people and events.

Although many moves have been made to promote equality in FE, some participants felt one of the college's functions is to ensure that features such as inequality of capitalism and patriarchal society are maintained. The college presents at least three different types of educational experience. These are reflected in the three distinct areas of FE teaching identified in this study (academic, professional and vocational) which can be traced back to social class. The participants who teach academic subjects, and their students, in the main come from middle class families; professional and vocational teachers and students mainly originate from working and lower class backgrounds. As a result, the college system promotes a social stratification system similar to wider society. Participants agreed the FE systems of work are preserving the differences between those who have and those who do not. Affluence protects educational advantages. Harelmbos and Holburn (2004) describes the process of people following in

the footsteps of their parents as 'financed success'. Consequently, new FE teachers reflect on these social class systems and agree that colleges are social institutions or organisations constructed by government to maintain or improve the quality of life. Participants stated the FE colleges and teachers should not exist in a void, the FE sector must respond to the changing expectations of students, employers and teachers.

The participants of Focus Group 3 felt wider society expects a great deal from education and teachers and they recognised that their students represent the future of society. Participants expressed a sense of urgency in terms of preparing FE students for future roles within wider society.

The participants created their own context for learning by reflecting on personal values and perceptions, developing their own personal learning activities to address the contents of Figure 4.19.

Figure 4.20 Summary of suggested developmental activities

Berger and Luckman (1966) claim the social construction of reality is produced and maintained by people in their on-going activities and interactions. The participants explained how they reinforced the elements of Figure 4.19 as a naturally occurring theme of teaching, examples included student role-play and group work using 'what if' scenarios, requiring the FE students to visualise and use their creativity

skills. This is another example of the ways the research activities addressed one or more of the research questions one and three.

The participants also experienced their own social reality which was reflected as an objective of ITT; they encountered experiences of other people and the institutions to which they claim to have been socialised into.

There is evidence generated from interviews and observations of overreliance on FE teachers' learning experience; however, the participants of this study agreed that learning from experience could only happen if those experiences were reflected upon. Reflective practice is one established method of teacher learning, the participants felt much less emphasis was placed on recording reflective statements and very little on the development of those statements in terms of putting them into practice. Reflectivity is described as acting on reflections (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2001). The process of reflection identified key areas of an FE teacher's work not addressed in formal ITT.

Participants were very clear about the quality of feedback they received about working with others. One participant stated that one of her personal performance reviews had contained elements of effective team working; they completed the Belbin (1981) team roles questionnaire and reviewed the ways they work within a team. This review also included an informal discussion about their roles, responsibilities, and the purpose of teaching. The participant stated she felt under pressure to show elements of her practice, but felt cautious in doing so due to lack of professional experience and confidence.

All participants stated their feedback from their respective performance reviews did not assess their ability to respond to change. Three participants from the school of higher education stated managers reviewed their ability to respond to change following a series of degree revalidation meetings. In eight cases, subject mentors assessed the participants' level of subject knowledge following formal lesson observations. Two participants stated they were the only specialist practitioner within the area and judgements made on their subject were guesswork. All participants expressed concern about the lack of development opportunities in their respective subject/vocational areas. In contrast, seventeen (77%) participants stated their subject mentors did review the participants' teaching methodologies and

pedagogic approaches, this aspect was considered of high importance within the vocational areas of teaching (see Figure 4.10).

Much emphasis was placed on teaching and supporting FE students with learning difficulties and behaviour problems. This aspect of feedback was considered under a general heading of classroom management. The participants were confused about the concept of differentiation in teaching and learning practices as were the ITT tutors (Field Notes, April 2012). All participants stated that differentiation was considered throughout their feedback sessions. However, when the participants were questioned about the ways differentiation applied to their own professional practice, responses varied in terms of accuracy and quality. One participant stated they were subjected to different and conflicting explanations of differentiation in learning and teaching.

The participants reflected on the extent that feedback led to changes on their professional practice (Figure 4.11). Given the strongly argued responses captured in Figure 4.11 relating to differentiation in learning and teaching, all participants reported they had not noted any changes in the way they managed the classroom. Fourteen (64%) participants noted a moderate change in professional practice relating to classroom management, but attributed this change to teaching experience rather than to reflections from feedback. Five participants reported a significant change in professional practice because of feedback from subject mentors and managers. Sixteen participants reported no change in terms of teaching-subject knowledge, while five participants stated they had noted a small change but attributed this change to teaching new subjects within the curriculum area. This pedagogy includes high levels of teacher flexibility; teachers who are willing and able to expand their personal teaching portfolios.

The responses to changing professional practice within the context of pedagogic knowledge were inconsistent with the responses captured in Figure 4.10 (aspects of feedback) casting some doubt over the trustworthiness of the data. A series of small group interviews followed the analysis of the quantitative data collection from the questionnaires. Two participants stated they had relied on their own experiences of learning the subject and their own preferred learning style to develop their pedagogic knowledge and practice. Four participants stated the methods of teaching a subject were

dictated by the nature of the subject. Participants provided examples of how engineers and hairdressers preferred to teach their respective subjects by demonstration, whilst drama and physical education teachers used practical activities and role-play as preferred teaching methods. Participants who teach academic subjects were more likely to use formal lecture and seminar approaches. All participants stated they would like to have more time to meet with individual students to review their progress.

The responses to changing methods of professional development planning were varied, although eleven participants reported no change in practice. The follow-up interviews revealed that all participants were fully aware of the processes and importance of continuous professional development planning but omitted to follow subject-specific development plans. Their focus was on meeting the demands of teaching workloads and assignment deadlines.

The teaching of FE students with special needs was a highly contentious issue for the members of Focus Group 3. Seventeen participants claimed only to have noted a small change in their professional practice when teaching and supporting FE students with special needs. The participants described the changes as attitudinal rather than changes in teaching practice. The focus group agreed the teaching of students with additional and special needs was not fully addressed in the ITT curriculum. There was some concern about the lack of training and development for those participants who practiced alongside teaching assistants, learning supervisors and other professionals. One participant expressed concern about working with external agencies; he explained how he felt unprepared and lacked knowledge of systems and protocols of case conferences. The case conference was a meeting of a range of professionals including social services, the police, health workers and teaching professionals.

The participants felt very strongly about developing their skills to support and further inspire gifted and talented FE students; twelve participants reported no change in professional practice. Two (9%) participants argued the concept of regarding gifted and talented students as special needs was not appropriate. The current ITT curriculum does not include challenging and inspiring gifted and talented FE students in all learning environments nor is it recorded on the official lesson observations.

Managing student behaviour in the classroom was a significant factor relating to the quality of ITT. The perception held by the participants was the FE students generally wanted to learn and attend college, narratives gathered from reflective statements highlighted contradictory student behaviours.

Participants stated they were generally happy with the conduct of their own students, however in the follow-up interviews the issue of inappropriate and poor student behaviour was a significant factor when deciding to withdraw from the teaching profession. The participants who teach higher education courses complained about the pressures students placed on them by using the level of fees paid to assure teaching quality. Balancing pressures of teaching, supporting students, exercising customer- care practices, and meeting the demands of ITT assignments, are factors contributing to early withdrawal from teaching.

This thesis is about change and all participants claim their attitude to organisational, professional and personal change had not changed. They remained open minded throughout the process.

Promoting equal opportunity for all FE is part of the participants' professional behaviour. Participants claimed they possessed a sound understanding of the concept from previous professional roles. However, participants stated they felt patronised by the ITT tutors. One participant stated:

> *"The current curriculum highlighted racism, sexism as issues for teachers by raising the issue it became an issue."*
> (Transcript of Interview, April 2012)

Further discussions took place about the perception of gender roles in subject areas. For example, the focus group felt that engineering is a male dominated subject, and hairdressing and childhood studies remained female dominated vocations. All participants recognised a shortfall in the treatment of diversity and the promotion of equal opportunity within the current process of ITT, missing many opportunities to capture, embrace, and celebrate diversity in the classroom and college.

All members of Focus Group 1, and the respondents of questionnaire two agree that direct and indirect discrimination and prejudice in teaching is a complex issue and should be explored and studied in detail whilst meeting the complexities of the curriculum and meeting their legal obligations. Participants expressed concern about the strategies used to improve the FE students' results and achievements.

College managers insist the quality of teaching is judged by assessing FE students' results in formal and public examinations. Public authorities and colleges refer to this measure as success, using a simple formula to calculate the success rates of courses (enrolled students divided by the number of students successfully completing the course). Participants suggested a model similar to the A level prediction scores (ALIS) to assess the individual progress of FE students rather than concentrating on the course or generic achievement. In Chapter 5, I discuss the appropriate measures of assessing teaching and learning, drawing on models from the human resource management school. Whilst accepting a need for threshold qualifications and occupational standards in FE teaching, the participants felt a sophisticated appraisal system would prove to be more useful in helping to construct teacher development plans and assessing teacher performance. They also described a sense of frustration about the obvious omission of developing their tutoring skills and the importance of this aspect of ITT. Although there was some disagreement within the focus group about the most appropriate strategies, the list produced on the flip chart below incorporated new approaches not considered before.

Social Networks – contact through Facebook

Mobile technology - text messages

Telephone

Development of early warning systems – student absenteeism, missed deadlines

Target setting

Parental involvement
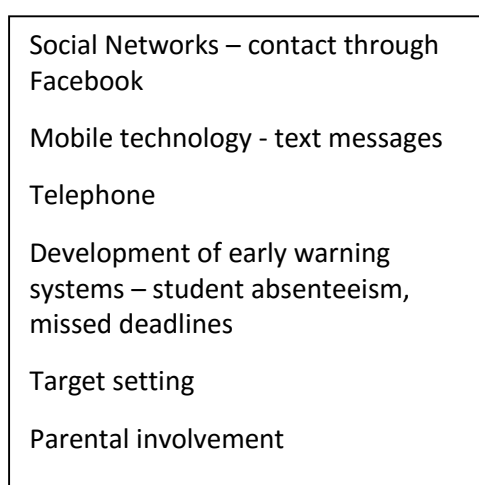
Figure 4.21 Flip chart: improving communication

Although each element was discussed and captured on the flip chart, the participants agreed that establishing a tutor/student relationship was crucial in maintaining a positive working relationship with FE students. However, the following statement captures the complexities and difficulties the FE teachers face when attempting to develop a productive working relationship with students within the current ethos of consumerism.

"In the beginning, I made a big mistake. I wanted to develop a friendly relationship and be their friend. I think this was to hide my nervousness and because I did not feel, I knew enough about the subject to teach it. Being a friend would be difficult for students to report me if I made a mistake. I purposely engaged in class jokes and fun. On reflection, this did waste too much class time, and the students became unmanageable. I resorted to shouting at them, I did feel very uncomfortable, one student asked if I suffered with bipolar. I realised FE students need consistency in management, teaching and learning. They and also need to be aware of professional boundaries…"
(Reflective Statement, April 2012)

Focus Group 1 addressed two research questions, questions one and three. The data was recorded on flip charts and subsequently analysed by content analysis (Silverman 1993). The participants claimed their respective subject mentors spent a great deal of time assessing and grading their classroom performance through formal lesson observation rather than action planning, supporting and guiding their professional development. Avalos *et al* (2011) confer with the concerns expressed by participants of this study about the quality and clarity of the teacher/mentoring role. The Diploma in Teaching in the Lifelong Learning Sector (DTLLS) course provides well-documented, highly structured college/workplace activities. The participants consider the structure and content of the DTLLS programme to be biased towards formal academic subjects and that it fails to address the needs of vocational and craft teachers. Participants also expressed concern about how some subjects take priority over others; there is heavy influence on academic learning, for example learning theory, and less focus on the teaching of academic classroom-based subjects. Participants from Focus Group 1 agreed that the emphasis of classroom pedagogy and subject/craft knowledge should dominate college teaching practice and teacher training activities. This statement is relevant in view of the 2003 Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI) recommendations ensuring workplace mentoring should focus on developing the trainee's skills in teaching their respective subjects. An emphasis on subject teaching presents issues for new FE teachers by means of restricting networking and the sharing of professional development experiences.

One Participant stated:

> *"My mentor is a pivotal feature in helping form or even reinforce my values about teaching; there were times when I felt overwhelmed by the pressure of the job and the requirements of formal teacher training – my mentor extended a helping hand."*
> (Focus Group Notes, March 2013).

In contrast two participants expressed concern about the professional conduct of their respective mentors. They stated some mentors did not follow the approved methods of working (not working with/to a scheme of work; no lesson planning). One interesting emerging result generated from questionnaire one is that five (23%) of the participants claimed their teaching success and new careers were credited to the support of their subject specialist mentors. In contrast, eight (36%) participants stated their teaching success was due to their own experiences and the inspiration of former teachers. Nine (42%) participants were unable to credit a single factor that influenced their professional practice.

Summary

The purpose of FE is to introduce students to wider society, specific industries, and higher education. Participants referred to and support the emerging recommendations as to the development of FE students 'soft skills', including citizenship, work ethics and employability. The role of FE should be to provide opportunities and encourage students to make a positive contribution to their culture and way of life. Participants of this study agreed that the purpose of FE is to educate and train people in to their chosen vocation. The literature and philosophy of FE as a societal institution has a primary function to educate; however public opinion often disputes this concept. Other societal institutions, including health and the legal system, use further education as a vehicle to promote their social objectives, examples include crime reduction and health campaigns.

There was considerable disagreement about what/who constitutes an educated person. Academic teachers said it referred to someone who has a degree, whilst other participants felt it was the human skills such as care, compassion, integrity and humanity that marked out an educated person. All participants agreed that FE teaching benefits from the new teachers' life experiences.

Further philosophical debates about education are not new, Aristotle in the fourth century stated:

> "The existing practice of education is perplexing, no one knows on what principle we should proceed, should the useful in life or should be higher knowledge be the aim of all training? All opinions have been entertained."
>
> (Aristotle, 4th Century AD)

Although there was some disagreement within Focus Group 3, emerging philosophical themes about FE became apparent.

1. FE provided a gateway for people to access higher education.
2. FE provided industry with a skilled work force.
3. FE provided society with compliant, compassionate contributors to a progressive changing society.

The participants did agree that FE colleges should be concerned with academic achievement, the teaching of ethical practices, and third-stage socialisation, helping FE students to realise their full potential whilst promoting equal opportunity for all members of society. Amongst the philosophical arguments, most participants felt that FE colleges focused on the quantitative measures to assess and judge organisational performance. These measures are:

Recruitment – *the number of students enrolled onto a course against a college set target;*

Retention – *the number of students who remain on the course;*

Achievement – *the number of students retained who pass the course;*

Success – *expressed as a percentage, the number of students who passed divided by the number of students enrolled.*

Policy makers and college leaders judge the quality of teacher performance based on the statistical analysis of these four elements. Although the teaching of socialisation and soft skills is important, the participants stated that the focus of FE should be on student achievement. Results from this study demonstrate a lack of congruence between the values of policymakers and college leaders and the values held by the lecturers. Debates will continue after this study about the future focus of FE – whether it is about educational attainment or providing employers with a skilled workforce. Participants also agreed that FE should reinforce society's values and expectations – such as honesty, fairness, creativity and innovation. FE teachers respond to a range of social issues and changing values in wider society, new

FE teachers' practice and attitudes are influenced by their own educational philosophies, experiences and their sense of right. As a result, these factors find their way into formal lessons, teaching resources and assessment instruments. Changes to the curriculum are made by new FE teachers in the hope that what FE students learn will help to change the way society works and improve the quality of life for all members of society. The UK is more culturally diverse than ever before, changes in FE reflect divergent values. Participants of this study alluded to the possible controversies in teaching practice. Traditionalists in FE teaching complain about teaching practice and methodologies often reflecting feminist viewpoints. Participants described how contemporary textbooks and academic journals avoid bias in their writings by avoiding genderisation, religion, class, race, and ethnicity. They also expressed concern about the focus on globalisation and capitalist values.

I argue that an FE college's curriculum provides a second chance for people who were unable to realise their potential, regardless of their socio-economic profile. The changing demographic profile calls on FE teachers to assimilate people from different and changing cultures by considering differences in race, ethnicity and language. Results from this study indicate that FE teachers would value greater input into the ITT programme to support them in this role.

Colleges in the UK place value on the protection of individual students from any harm and strive to help them to realise their full potential. The concept of personal development focuses on the individual, unlike academic achievement, which is driven by tradition and the perceived needs of society, comparing the shift in philosophical paradigm. Goleman (2010) describes this philosophical shift as the development of emotional intelligence, further emphasising the five dimensions of personal development: self-awareness, managing emotions, motivation, empathy, and social skills. Goleman (ibid.) further argues that emotional intelligence is essential for people to succeed in life, along with physical fitness.

Participants expressed concern about the low levels of literacy, numeracy, and ICT skills of their own FE students; along with low level emotional intelligence, this was a significant demotivating factor for new FE teachers. The participants provided examples of poor FE student attitudes to towards college

and poor work ethics. Elias (2001) claims emotional intelligence has a rightful place alongside the IQ score in the conceptualisation of being intelligent. Participants in this study recognise the need for emotional intelligence in themselves in order to support the development of this in their students, and the need for this to be reflected in the ITT programme.

Two contrasting viewpoints emerged from the focus group interviews, the professional and vocational teachers felt a significant objective of FE is to address the needs of the local and national skills shortage and the wider social problems. Participants debated the responsibility of the FE teacher when addressing social issues, including teenage pregnancy, acts of violence and criminality. Contrasting opinions were discussed, for example, where the professional boundaries lay because of greater levels of uncertainty; some participants felt the teachers' responsibility is to refer, and withdraw from the issue. This sociological aspect of the role of the FE teacher is not included in the current ITT programme and clearly needs clarification.

Focus Group 3 brought up the concept of disabled teachers, claiming they were viewed as positive role models, increasing students' awareness of diversity and equal opportunity. The participants also identified some negative aspects of teaching. As with all professions, teaching has some unattractive or challenging aspects. Avalos (2011) states:

> "The complexities of teaching can be excruciating and for some that might be a sufficient reason not to teach and for others the most compelling."
> (Ayers 2011, p146)

All participants stated they had considered some of the challenges, as well as the benefits, of teaching they were likely to encounter. Challenges include limited repertoire of teaching strategies and resources. When asked about the challenges they face, classroom and student behaviour management skills were prominent. Participants were unprepared for basic classroom management. Through the period of this research, thirty-two incidents involving students and behaviour were formally reported to the college. Acts of verbal and physical abuse towards teachers is not uncommon in British schools and colleges and the number of reported incidents from 2009 to 2013 is increasing in some areas by 41% The

following quotation is one example of this issue; the participant quoted one FE student's conversation with her:

"Excuse me Miss, why are you so thick?"
(Interview Transcript, March 2013)

The increased possibility of acts of physical and or verbal abuse caused additional pressures and stressors placed on teachers, heightened by recent events of extreme violence in the USA.

Seventeen participants complained about large class sizes. Class sizes in excess of thirty-two students was not uncommon, although seven participants stated their class sizes were too small to facilitate flip and active learning strategies. Results from this study indicate there is a need to include behaviour management as a significant element of the ITT programme.

Participants from Focus Group 3 expressed concern about the lack of information about the FE students' various social and health issues. They were unprepared to deal with social issues, which clearly hindered the students' learning and progression. Social problems encountered by FE students included relative poverty, criminality, teenage pregnancy, family and relationship problems, illness, housing, and finance. Even when they recognised the issues, participants described a sense of frustration by the apparent wasted potential they observed in their own FE students. Five participants expressed concern about the lack of training when working with classroom assistants and other specialist support assistants. Some participants offered contrasting viewpoints by stating their subject specialist mentor had provided some limited support and guidance when supporting students with an array of social problems. Participants were generally unaware of the comprehensive range of support available from external agencies and charities. The teacher training programme has not traditionally included guidance about these elements, and yet the participants in this study would clearly value such information. A decision is needed to ensure that new FE teachers have specific development opportunities, either within or outside the ITT programme, to ensure that they are equipped for their role.

Change Agency

Introduction

There are few empirical studies into the concept of agency within initial teacher training. Edwards and Mercer (1987) suggest that student teachers who have not experienced a sense of agency are unlikely to promote the concept of agency within their professional practice. Change agents are those people within an organisation who implement change. FE teachers' work by its nature is about change; learning is fundamentally about a change in peoples' knowledge, skills and attitudes. Change agents are experts and advisors, often working together in collaboration with external agencies as do the participants of this study. Most literature, including Fullan (2007) refer to change agents as external consultants to an organisation acting as an intermediary within an organisation to effect change.

In this study I refer to change agents as both external and internal agents, as the participants are effecting change of the external environment as well as the internal environment. The participants were helping their own FE students realise their career aspirations through their teaching and tutorial support. Internally, the change agents (participants) are viewed as credible experts, but lack power to sustain their change efforts. The participants (vocational teachers) from Focus Group 2 expressed concern and vented their frustrations about the lack of application of knowledge to the real world of work, making further claims that the current ITT curriculum is outdated. Participants also expressed concerns about how the current ITT programme omitted to address the concept of change agency and the teacher as an agent of change. Findings from Focus Group 2 and the interviews revealed the participants were unclear about the concept and the roles of agents of change and the wider concept of the college as change agency within the FE teaching profession. Throughout the research process, responses from the participants highlighted their understanding of the complexities of tutoring and teaching. It is the distinct roles of the tutor and teacher that limited their ability to unknowingly promote change agency in the classroom. The participants stated the initial teacher training programme and teacher educators should play a significant role in creating social spaces for agents of change to function by reinforcing reflective practice.

The participants identified teacher competencies and readiness to change as the main attributes to change agency. Figure 4.21 illustrates four stages of developing change agency.
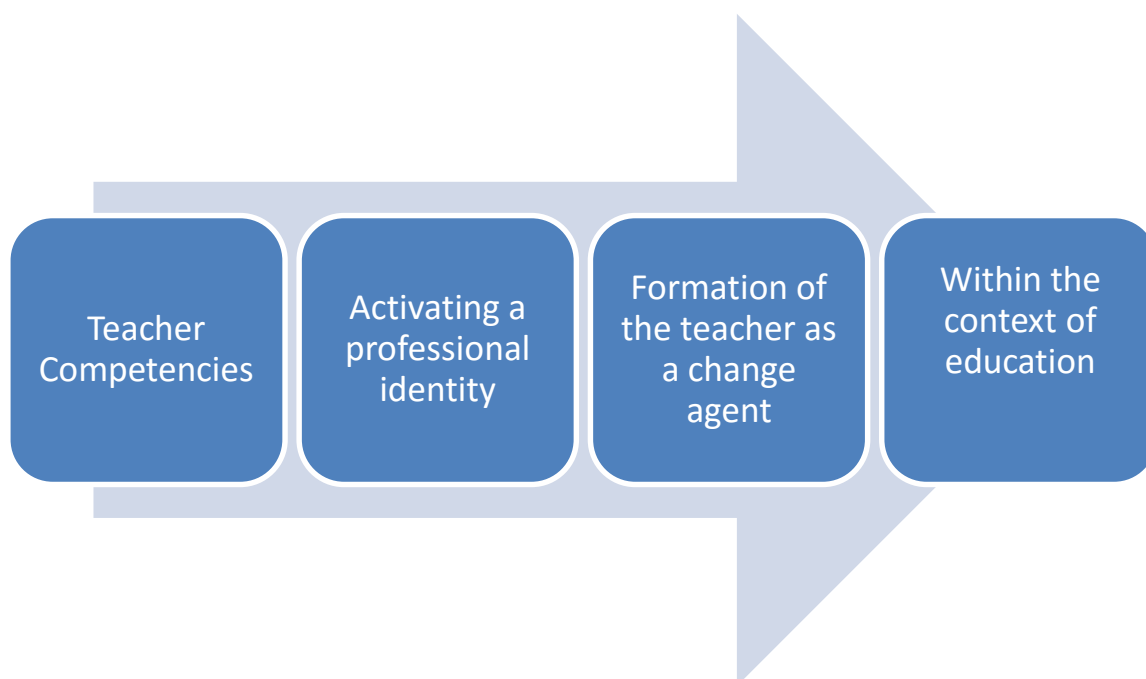

Figure 4.22 Four stages of change agency

Participants stated that the main drivers and focus of change is captured in the four following statements.

1. Teaching implies learning.
2. Student attainment of their chosen qualification is of primary importance.
3. Student welfare and wellbeing is secondary.
4. Teachers should not be held responsible for students' attainments/outcomes – (different result for those participants teaching in higher education).

A concerning statement is that student welfare and wellbeing is a secondary consideration. Reflecting on this statement the participants unknowingly reflected the college management philosophy of management by objectives in attaining high course pass marks. Colleges and college managers dispute this statement by claiming they have developed a wide range of student support services with the objective of helping FE students realise their full potential. Colleges also claim the support services are appropriately funded and resourced with specialist support workers.

All participants expressed their readiness to promote change within the college and within the context of the subject, although participants agreed the two areas are linked, responding to changes from within

the teaching subject and vocational areas. Two participants changed their respective teaching areas midway through their ITT and teaching placements. They explained the ways in which people influenced their decision by reinforcing the negative perceptions of teaching students of lower ability levels. The participants who teach vocational subjects stated they were ashamed of their lower academic skills and social standing, despite the participants' shared view that it is their responsibility and moral obligation to enhance the FE students' opportunities beyond those normally expected or required. The participants also viewed themselves as advocates for those students with additional educational needs, able to influence perspective employers in terms of providing additional training and employment.

The following are some examples of participant statements about their learning. They are reproduced with the participants' permission (pseudonyms have been used).

Tracy *wrote a paragraph to demonstrate the ways her teaching practice and teacher training experiences gave her an understanding of the complexities of education.*

Diane *used some basic learning theory she had encountered in the teacher training programme to make sense of students' learning when dealing with conflict and personal turmoil.*

Lorraine *wrote about how international students had created a learning community, not considered within the context of teacher training.*

Trevor *wrote how he had changed since becoming a teacher; he wrote with high levels of emotion, he offered a complex view of his own learning and that of his students. He used emotional language in his narrative to demonstrate the complexity.*

Annetta *decided to work and train in the UK to develop her mastery of English language and culture. She was not disappointed. She claims to have learned a great deal from her own students, but very little from the formal training programme in terms of curriculum content. She was able to process a holistic view of learning about teaching and learning, but felt she had experienced some form of de-skilling from her original subject/discipline.*

Natasha *described the impact DTLLS had had on her professional life and provided examples of how learning theory had helped her to operate differently in her professional life. She carefully explained the ways she had helped her own students realise their career aspirations.*

Tooba *explained how meta-learning (learning about learning) her definition of professionalism had changed since the onset of the teacher training programme.*

This activity enabled the participants to draw on previous experiences from their chosen discipline and realistic training scenarios. The purpose of the activity was to gain an understanding of the ITT content, through a process of evaluation, and to help the participants shape their future professional practice.

There were however conflicts in professional judgements when making a transition from the participants' vocational areas to FE teaching. The participants of Focus Group 3 listed activities and objectives they had used, or were aware of, in helping FE students to become successful and productive members of society. When asked about the concept of the expert/professional, the participants referred to themselves as continual learners, demonstrating a deep concern for professional development. One participant referred to learning in FE teaching as a:

> *". . . quest for continuous improvement and a desire to help their students grow in academic skill, vocational ability and confidence in an ethically sound way of conducting themselves."* (Transcript of Interview, April 2012)

Continuing with the theme of helping FE students develop social skills, the participants identified five areas of helping students become productive (as shown in Figure 4.22 below). Having identified these five areas, the participants were able to capture omissions from their own work. They were also able to list areas of work addressed in the ITT programme and compare these with their actual work.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Shaping students - using the subject│
│  matter as a vehicle to help students│
│            learning for life         │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                    ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Creating condidtions  that promote  │
│  the development of the whole person │
│   -intellectual, social and emotional.│
│      Creating connections to real life│
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                    ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Helping students understand the    │
│            values of life            │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                    ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Promoting a sense of freedom and   │
│            responsibility            │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                    ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│      Creating visions for the future │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
```
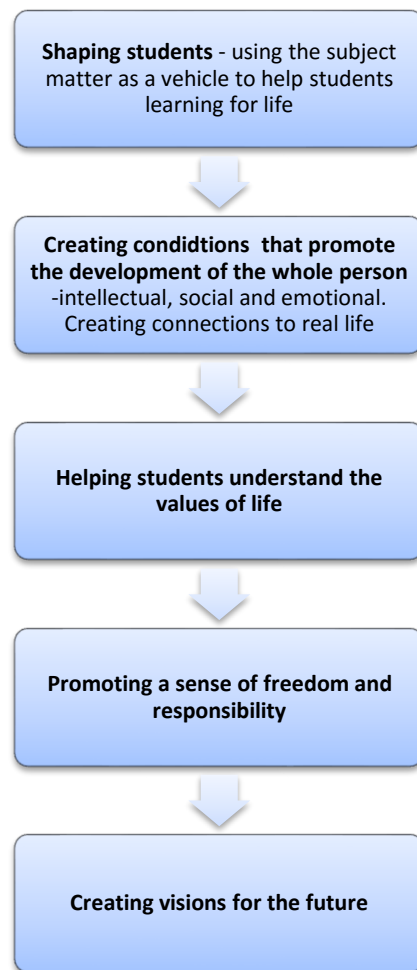
Figure 4.23 Process of becoming an effective member of society.

Although influenced by Vygotsky (1960), the participants placed an emphasis on the social context of FE students learning and their own professional development. The teaching and supporting of FE students with additional and/or special needs was discussed, but all twenty-two participants stated they had not discussed the teaching and supporting of gifted and talented students. All twenty-two participants reported that the organisation and management of additional trips and visits for the students was not considered, despite their clear understanding and appreciation of the value of extra curricula activities.

The ideological function of concealment discussed by Bourdieu and Passeron (1990) disclosed its main purpose and is reflected in one interview with the participants. They argued the priorities and purpose of FE. Two distinct positions became apparent: one was to equip the FE students with the skills required for them to contribute to society; the contrasting viewpoint is to provide educational opportunities and

improve the life chances for young people by educating them, and to provide a platform for FE students to progress to higher education.

In Focus Group 3, participants discussed the methods they employed for developing personal strategies to improve FE student retention rates, including stringent FE student recruitment practices and improved personal tutoring. Fourteen (64%) participants reported no change in professional practice relating to developing strategies to reduce the number of students withdrawing from college. Participants discussed a lack of preparation for supporting students at risk of withdrawing from the college. One participant stated:

> *"What can we do to stop them from leaving college? It is up to them. They are all adults and capable of choosing a path for themselves."*
> (Focus Group 3, May 2012)

Creativity in Further Education teaching

Creativity is about the making of and communicating new and meaningful connections; helping people to think about a variety of possibilities. The concept of change is linked to the concept of creativity. If creativity is stifled, then change agency is also stifled.

Within the ITT programme we consider and reflect on a range of experiences and viewpoints which may help teachers to think of new and unusual ideas and alternatives, all which must result in improving the FE students' experience (Bessant and Tidd 2011). von Stamm (2008) takes a very simplistic view, referring to creativity as coming up with new ideas. Supporting von Stamm (ibid.) She also claims that creativity is about originality and novel ideas. The participants unknowingly used elements of Osterwalder and Pigneur's (2010) model of ways of generating new ideas in their professional practice. They reflected on their own experiences as learners, and discussed the concept of the 'ideal situation' for many aspects of teaching and learning. 'Visualisation' was used by some of the participants who teach creative subjects, and most participants attempted to apply new models of teaching and learning – for example, cooperative learning and flip learning. Osterwalder and Pigneur (ibid.) refer to these actions as prototyping with an emphasis on the use of 'what if' scenarios.

Examining the participants' responses, it is clear the participants were also using elements of the DeBono (1985) model when thinking and acting creatively. DeBono (ibid.) used an analogy of six thinking hats. The thinking hats are portrayed in a variety of colours. White hat thinking focused on facts, data, figures and information gathering. When thinking in this way the participants were able to make an informed decision about their practice with some level of certainty. Green hat thinking is perhaps the most challenging for FE teachers as it requires them to generate new ideas and new ways of examining elements of professional practice. Green hat thinking often contradicts habits of recognition, judgement and is open to criticism. One participant gave an example of the difficulties she experienced when organising an offsite visit to a local hospital. She described the benefits of observing the work of health professionals in their natural setting, but became frustrated with the high levels of bureaucracy involved, and consequently gave up on the idea. This action refers to black hat thinking as it focuses on judgement and caution; however, if black hat thinking is used too soon in the creative process it kills the creative ideas with negativity. All participants used elements of yellow hat thinking, which concentrates on the positive aspects of an idea. Participants adopted an optimistic view, deliberately seeking benefits which were not always obvious. Red hat thinking is concerned with intuition, feeling and hunches. The participants described events when new ideas had been imposed on them by managers. They felt unable to project their feelings or express their reservations about new ways of working. Examples included the introduction of a cross-college student induction presentation which did not take into account the uniqueness of the courses the FE students were about to study. Blue hat thinking is concerned with the way the participants thought about their own thinking process. Participants were clearly using this approach when designing teaching and learning resources and constructing their own academic assignments and reflective statements. The use of DeBono's model here is helpful, and could be incorporated into planning for ITT courses, to ensure trainees are exposed to a range of experiences to support their creative practice.

Results from Focus Group 2 revealed some interesting factors which the participants claimed stifled teacher creativity. It is the intensity and increasing teacher workloads, along with limited control over their work and increased levels of surveillance, which have negatively impacted on their ability to think and act creatively. Creativity was described by one participants as:

> *"Thinking about new things and new ways of doing them, innovation is making it happen. Creativity in FE teaching is important because thinking about teaching practice ensures the courses and learning experiences are up-to-date and relevant to the subject and industry."*
> (Focus Group 2, March 2012)

The behavioural classification of creativity has enabled teacher competence to be commoditised, transferring the control of learning from teachers to managers. Current management practices of surveillance and auditing of teachers' work ensures (theoretically) they had an approved standard of creativity. Blessant and Tidd (1993) argue behavioural competences are a means of controlling expertise. Disaggregation and atomisation of occupational behaviours allows the skills of teaching to be technicalised, highly regulated, and subjected to public scrutiny. Edwards and Mercer (1987) refers to this phenomenon as "the divorce of knowledge from the knower". The data from this study and consequently emerging conclusions suggest the current model of ITT is unsuitable and inappropriate to professional and vocational occupations. Participants explained the ways they were required to capture all aspects of creativity within their teaching in a single planning document. The promotion of equal opportunity/diversity within the context of the participants' teaching was at odds with management practice. Managers do not trust FE teachers to treat all students with respect and dignity, as college managers expect an audit trail of evidence and supporting documentation. Fullan (2007) argues convincingly that the concept and practice of behavioural competencies in teacher education denies trainee teachers access to alternative perspectives, not by explicit censorship, but by filling the course time with auditable practice-related content.

Surprisingly, the UK cabinet office argue that failing to respond to the teaching of creativity and the promotion of innovation in education will lead to long term economic decline. This statement appears to be a decisive commitment to the development of entrepreneurship in schools (Holden 2014, This is not apparent in FE teacher training. Results from this study suggest creativity in FE is separated into

two areas. FE teachers should encourage FE students to think creatively, and FE teachers should use creative, imaginative approaches to make teaching and learning more interesting, exciting and effective Participants strongly argued that creativity in teaching is one way of enthusing their students to engage in and learn about the narrower and dull subjects. The participants gave 'Health and Safety' as one example of a dull subject. The development of the teaching of creativity in FE is one move to raise the aspirations, and support and encourage FE students to follow their chosen careers. Traditional views of FE were to provide society with a skilled workforce for specific industries or vocations. Contrary to Durkheim's view, education is not just an expression of economic needs, but reflects society's culture and values. Giddens (2013) adds further thoughts on the philosophy of education by claiming that, through education, members of society are able to raise their social standing. Richardson (2007), and Ainly and Baily (1997), argue that vocational education is viewed as inferior to traditional academic education. Participants of this study concur, claiming that vocational teachers require very different skills to those of academic teachers. They cited the physical dexterity skills often required in craft and vocational occupations, adding:

> *"We have to express ourselves in an academic way, this is very hard for those of us who have little or no experience of formal university education and needs high levels of creative thinking"*
> (Field Notes, March 2012)

Some teaching subjects require high levels of teacher creativity and some subjects, including media, art and design, by the nature of the subject, promote creative thinking as a naturally occurring phenomena.

Data from this study in some ways supports the recommendations of the Leitch Report (2006) which promotes the notion of a highly-skilled, creative, and innovative workforce as a vital aspect of national economic success. With such emphasis placed upon the FE sector to produce a national workforce, and the apparent failures to do so, has led to society's mistrust, high regulation and a centrally controlled education system. Menter (2010) claims that creativity is subjected to high levels of analysis using a functional analysis model. Capturing the creative behaviours of the participants was achieved through observation of practice; levels of creativity became apparent at differing levels, characterised by some occupations and curriculum areas. Although creative behaviours were captured throughout the data

collection process, in some subjects' creativity was a naturally occurring feature of the lesson. Menter's (1993) model suggests elements of teacher competence for the development of creative behaviour can be captured in a non-sophisticated way. This move supports the concept of behavioural competence in FE, associated with the perceived needs of employers rather than that of educationalists. The autocratic management style of FE colleges was inspired by behavioural competences of teachers and managers, which has discouraged new FE teachers from making connections between teaching tasks and assignments, stifling their creativity in teaching. The concept of the teacher as an agent of change is challenging for those vocational teachers and students as the learning outcomes are clearly prescribed by higher authorities. It is clear from the data and participant narratives that they were making unconscious changes to their students' lives whilst changing their own professional identity. The participants recognised the personal changes they have to make in order to change the current learning culture to one which helps FE students realise their full potential and career aspirations, as opposed to changing the technicalities of established pedagogic approaches. The participants recognised the individual needs of their students, by adapting the degree of difficulty in questioning and class activity. They attempted to foster a learning culture which is conducive to equality and support by means of helping the FE students realise their potential. Randal and Brady (1997) argue it is the culture and nature of FE which supports/reinforces the proletarianisation of FE. Results from this study show the stratification of FE teaching is taken further by separating the FE teaching sector into three distinct professional areas, each with its own needs and philosophical view.

Sociological influences

The ideology of FE teaching in the UK has developed based on the present needs of society and shaped by a history of technical and vocational education. Society is continually changing (change has never changed) (Giddens 2013). This study has revealed a need for the FE teaching sector to modify its understanding of and responsibility to the industries its serves, and the academic community, by providing a route for FE students into higher education and the wider society.

Teacher development is clearly influenced by social change. The responsibility for the development of students has moved from parents to teachers, described by Giddens (ibid.) as secondary socialisation.

The current FE ITT process has not prepared new FE teachers for this slowly shifting phenomenon. The participants of this study claim there is little pedagogic debate about the increased number of additional duties and responsibilities based on the complex needs of sociological change. Other factors influencing social change and highlighted by the participants was the shift to open access to education and training for non-traditional students to education and training. Non–traditional FE students often have a range of social problems, negative experiences of formal education, and lack some basic skills in literacy and numeracy. The participants were aware of these issues, but made efforts to help the students realise their full potential. Focus Group 3 discussed the role of FE in wider society. Participants who teach vocational subjects, stated the purpose of education is reproductive, ensuring working class jobs are filled by working class people. The participants' understanding of education in society is in line with the Marxist philosophical viewpoint of education and stratification of society. In contrast, the participants who teach specialist professional subjects, including Media, Communication Studies, and Art and Design, claim that the nature of such subjects and topics is highly creative and the role of the FE teacher is one of transforming ideas, designs and concepts into work practices. Participants who teach professional subjects claim they are able to help FE students realise their potential by a process of empowerment, allowing them to progress to higher education in their chosen field and to occupations deemed beyond their current social status.

Colley *et al* (2003) explain how some curriculum areas act as a site for social reproduction rather than a transforming agent. Participants who teach vocational subjects found themselves immersed in a vocational habitus in which FE students, teachers, and employers are all involved in the reproduction and reinforcement of social stratification systems, essentially based on social class, gender or race. The results of this study support Colley *et al* (ibid.) who claim that vocational teachers are immersed in the culture of the chosen vocation. Participants who teach vocational, and some professional, courses clearly and unknowingly support this philosophical position of education. It is difficult to teach, develop and inspire creativity and innovation in subjects which require exact answers or predicable outcomes, for example maths and science, although Petty (2004) and Race (1998) have developed teaching methods and class activities to teach maths in a creative way, by the use of stories. The findings of this

study suggest new FE teachers are open to changing ways of teaching; but results from the observations and the comparison of the participants' preferred learning styles with teaching methods suggest that new teachers often rely on those methods in which the teacher prefers to learn in a professional manner. Participants stated that society generally trusts its teachers and expects them to draw on specialist subject and pedagogical expertise to serve the best interest of the students and wider society. Developing the theme of professional trust, the participants were asked to consider trust within the context of their new professional roles.

Figure 4.23 captures the elements and comments relating to professional trust placed upon the participants. The data was captured from Focus Group 3 and recorded on a marker board.
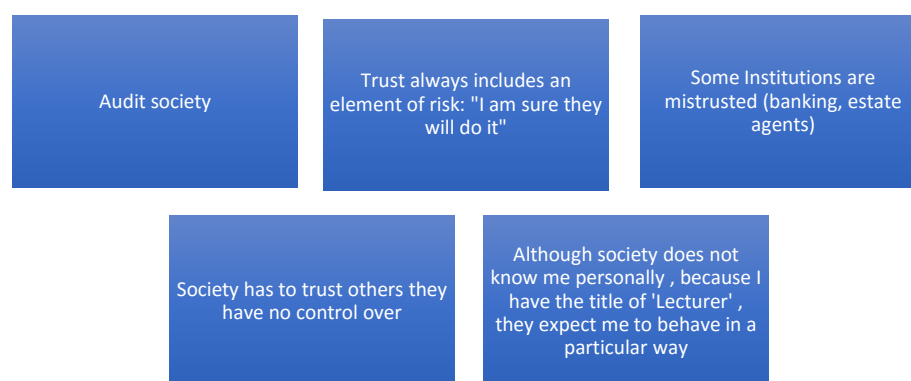

Figure 4.24. Elements of professional trust placed upon the participants

Professional trust is discussed elsewhere in this chapter; the main element of professional trust is the pressure participants felt from wider society to act in a professional manner.

Focus Group 3 discussed the role of FE in the wider society. The participants' role as an FE teacher is one of transforming the FE students' ideas, designs and concepts into real projects, and helping FE students to realise their potential. This is one example of how FE teachers act as agents of change. FE teaching requires new teachers to draw on previous experiences from other occupations, reflecting on current teaching practice whilst trying to predict the future developments in FE teaching and curriculum area. Toffler (1970) states:

> "All education springs from some image of the future; if the image of the future held by society is grossly inaccurate, its education system will betray its youth."
> (Toffler 1970, p172)

Toffler highlights the importance of FE teachers and colleges carefully considering the future provision of FE, based on the needs of society and its future teachers. The model below shows the external drivers placed on the FE sector; the results are captured from elements of the PEST (Political, Economic, Social, Technical) analysis completed as part of this study.
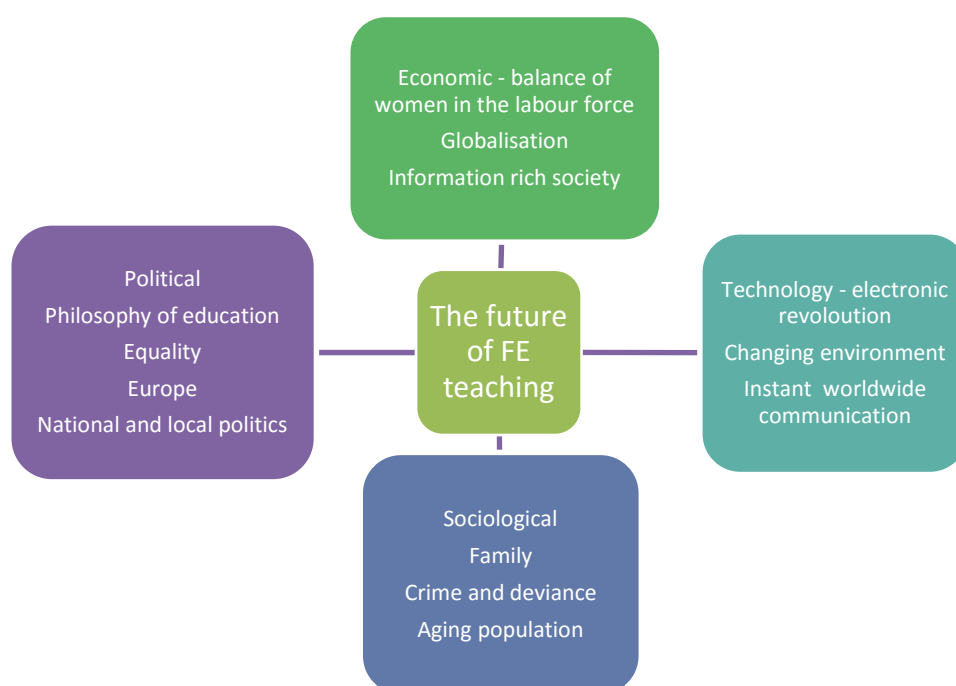

Figure 4.25 Thematic results (elements of PEST analysis)

The PEST model, developed by Porter (1989), is used to examine a range of factors affecting the provision of FE in the east of England.

Social factors

Participants from Focus Group 2 reported that more of their own FE students are from single

-parent families or re-constructed families – for example, someone living with one parent and one step-parent. Some participants reported some of their students were living independently and a few were classed as young carers. Although crime rates have decreased in the east of England (Office of National Statistics 2013), many of the incidents and criminal acts committed in the college are related to the sale and use of illegal drugs. Two participants stated they had been subject to acts of physical violence from

FE students. Seven participants stated they had witnessed acts of violence between students. Criminality and deviance were once associated with inner-city colleges; this social aspect has spread to the suburbs and rural areas (Office of National Statistics 2013). The promotion of citizenship, innovation, and employability skills of FE students were identified as three critical challenges new FE teachers face with the objective of addressing the rise in social ills. Although highlighted by higher authorities as priorities, these current issues are not addressed within the current ITT programme. Demographically the UK and the east of England is becoming more diverse than ever before (Office of National Statistics 2013) and there has been significant movement across European boarders particularly from eastern European countries. Free movement and the integration of second and third generation immigrants will culminate in an ever-increasing section of the total UK population. The phenomena of free movement across Europe and its impact on the future provision of FE has to be a consideration for new FE teachers. ESOL (English as a Second or Other Language) teaching has not been previously addressed in general ITT programmes; the teaching of ESOL is considered as a specialised aspect of teaching and currently has its own training programme. The UK population is steadily growing in size and is also aging (Office of National Statistics 2013). Advances in medicine and increased awareness of the consequences of life style choices are significant contributory factors to an aging society. Based on the analysis of historical data and current trends, members of the UK society will be better educated, more physically and intellectually active than their predecessors. However careful consideration is needed to respond to these changes by transforming the ITT programme for FE teachers in terms of content and philosophy.

Economic factors

Employee productivity is measured by how quickly an employee can learn and apply a new skill. Three participants who teach vocational subjects stressed the importance of continuous professional learning and skills updating in order to ensure their teaching practice is fit for purpose. Current economic trends suggest some traditional craft occupations in the UK may not exist in the future, causing a significant impact on the future of FE provision. All jobs and vocations have clearly been altered by developments in technology, and this is very apparent in FE teaching. FE colleges are subject to market forces and competition from other FE providers. The Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) stresses the importance of modern employees being able and willing to learn how to use the ever-

changing technologies and respond to the changing world of work. The composition of the UK's workforce is changing. According to the Office of National Statistics, more people are working part-time, flexibly and remotely (home working). More women are realising their potential, not only working in the labour market but moving through and up, breaking the glass ceiling, entering executive levels in business and public sector services. Workplaces are slowly changing to accommodate the career patterns of women, although most still consider UK society to be heavily weighted on the patriarchal side of equality. UK employers, through the encouragement of recent government incentives and the promotion of moral obligations, provide access to childcare, pre- and after-school clubs. A significant change in the UK is the shift from a manufacturing to a service- and information-based economy. Despite the efforts made by previous and present governments this shift pattern is likely to continue. This type of economy is not restricted to the UK; it is a global phenomenon. Success in this competitive, global economy is based on effective and instantaneous communication around the world. Information and data is becoming an essential resource for many UK companies and organisations. The ability to gather, learn from and use collated information has become a priority to the future FE system and subsequent teacher training.

Technological development

The participants of Focus Group 2 were unaware of the recent technological developments (mobile learning) and the potential impact on the FE system. The participants accept that computers, virtual learning environments (e.g. Blackboard), video equipment, and high-speed electronic communications are an integral aspect of FE teaching. They do, however, recognise the need to learn how to use these more effectively and be aware of potential future developments. The future of FE teaching is uncertain, although the participants agreed that more people will learn remotely, at home or in the workplace, unless new research reveals the continued need for traditional, class-based learning and direct human interaction. There are prototypes of advanced computer software which is able to learn and perform inductive and deductive reasoning. These developments may make new models of intelligence with significant implications for teaching, learning and assessment. The participants did, however, make use

of mobile technology and social media as part of their membership of their learning group and associated communities of practice.

The flow chart below summarises the participants' perceptions of sociological elements of successful teaching not currently addressed within the current ITT programme (Focus Group 2 and interviews).
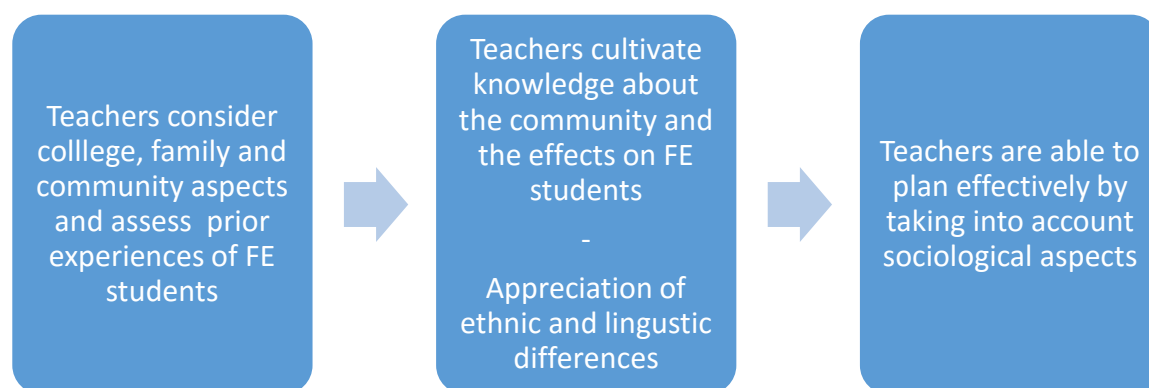

Teachers consider colllege, family and community aspects and assess prior experiences of FE students

Teachers cultivate knowledge about the community and the effects on FE students
-
Appreciation of ethnic and lingustic differences

Teachers are able to plan effectively by taking into account sociological aspects

Figure 4.26 Elements of sociology of FE teaching not addressed in ITT

Issues of social class and gender

Bourdieu and Passeror (1990) state:

> "The most hidden and most specific function of the educational system consists of hiding its primary objective function by masking the truth of its relationship to the structure of class." (Bourdieu and Passeron 1990, p208)

The participants discussed a class structure of teachers and the ways each class of teacher addressed the hidden curriculum. The vocational teachers claimed this was the true purpose of vocational education, by preparing young people for the world of work. They accepted not all vocational FE students move onto jobs within the chosen industry, but will have attained a range of transferable employability skills. The function of FE teaching is one way the participants concealed the social reproduction by modelling the perceived traits and skills of the vocation. Observations also highlight significant gender bias; there are subjects and vocational areas dominated by one gender. FE student enrolments in Hairdressing and Beauty Therapy remain predominantly female, while enrolments in Engineering are male dominated. Regardless of the curriculum area, there were some academic subjects dominated by a specific gender. Participants raised concern about gender issues in terms of FE students' educational attainment, behaviour, and attitudes in class. Participants agreed female FE students were generally more attentive

164

and displayed higher levels of maturity. The participants discussed an array of sociological and psychological issues affecting some male FE students' performance and attitudes and generally agreed some male FE students had had a general lack of male role models throughout their lives, which may have negatively impacted the young male students' performance at college (Giddens 2013). All participants agreed student behaviour and engagement in class was one feature of the formal lesson observation process which caused elevated levels of participant anxiety.

Summary

This section of my thesis considers changes made by FE colleges in response to the UK government's austerity measures. FE colleges have adopted new organisational and management structures, which are characterised by new forms of flexibility by means of responding to a range of societal drivers classified by complexity, general chaos, and extended periods of change. The nature of change has become fundamentally problematic for those professionals operating in such a complex organisation. Although the UK FE sector recognises and, in most cases, responds positively to societal changes, the concept and practices of initial FE teacher education remains unchanged. A rationalist view reflects the early work of Lewin (1947) whose concept of the change agent and change agency was as an expert facilitator of a group of processes of planned change; although Lewin's (ibid.) original concept has gone through many reformations within various traditions of organisational development. Challenges to rationalism, planned organisational changes, and expertise of those responsible for the successful implementation of change, have emerged from transformations in UK colleges over the last two decades. Developments in information technology have transformed many if not all areas of teaching and learning in colleges. Teaching techniques no longer take the traditional role of imparting information, instructing, directing and controlling students learning. The emergence of interactive teaching and learning technologies encourage FE students to take control of their own learning, and promote student commitment to learning through a process of empowerment. FE students have high expectations in terms of the quality of teaching and of those responsible for teaching. The participants in this study stated FE students have adopted a consumer attitude towards their educational experiences, demanding teacher accountability for student failure. The participants felt this was a demotivating factor

and one that caused two participants to withdraw from teaching. The two participants claimed colleges would not be able to prepare FE students for working in their chosen vocational areas to the standards expected of the employers. Despite the participants' efforts, FE students attributed failure to poor teaching; empirical observations refute this claim. Participants adopted various techniques and strategies when working with their own students, from befriending to adopting an autocratic style of classroom management. Both participants complained about the lack of support from their respective subject mentors and line managers. The participant who adopted a friendly, approachable style of teaching was accused of fostering inappropriate relationships with their own students. At no time was I concerned about the behaviour, gestures, or language used by the participant with the group.

The participants argued the vehicles used in FE teaching to change and help the FE students realise their own career aspirations should include the FE teacher's autonomy. Participants identified a range of strategies which could be employed to help FE students realise their full potential, including concepts of self-managed teams of teachers, quality circles, and specific project teams acting as a combined agency of change. This shift in perceptual concept was popularised by the participants as the concept of a learning organisation and more recently described as a community of practice.

The participants rejected the term 'community of practice', stating it is a bureaucratic and mechanistic idea that colleges need change agents. The participants also stated that the leaders and managers drive change within the FE sector and teachers are required to reflect the wider societal changes. Beerel (2009) claims leadership and change agency become synonymous identifiers with the systematic forms of learning by broadening leadership theory to encompass potentially participative models of learning across the whole college.

The growing diversity and plurality of the college and its curriculum means the concept of agency can be plotted in relation to transformations of and within workplaces. The overall transition from rationalist epistemologies of agency to the increasingly fragmented discourse of social constructivists has become apparent in terms of change agency within the colleges of FE. The rationalist epistemologies of agency have a long and complex intellectual genealogy in philosophy, however they can be broadly

characterized by a belief that social beings (teachers) are rational and/or autonomous actors who act in an intentional, predictable and responsible manner within an objective to work towards organisational goals. These assumptions of rationality are essential in creating universal ideals of ethical behaviour. Rationalist epistemologies are scientific, prescriptive and interventionist. In contrast, the multi-various forms of social constructivism undermine the science of rationalism and with it ideas of agency and the management and leadership of the college. The knowledge of the natural world has provided a predetermined structure or laws, discouraged by rational investment; but also ideas of human action, personality, intentionality and agency are equally problematic. Social constructionists claim all forms of knowledge, understanding, and actions are culturally and historically relative and must therefore be situated with competing discourses. The actions of the participants support a discovery transformation from a position of great optimism regarding the practical efficacy and potential emancipatory role of rational action and expert knowledge.

The impact of new managerialism played a significant role in the development of the participants' professional identity. The practices employed by some college managers had a negative impact on the participants' understanding of their new role as a FE teacher. The data from participant interviews revealed three reoccurring management practices, including: management by objectives, performance management and target setting, and line-management surveillance. The participant responses to the management approaches differed between the three areas of FE teaching. Events in 2012 led to colleges updating teachers' professional code of conduct; participants expressed concern about alleged inappropriate relationships with their own students. This conflict was apparent within the vocational area of FE teaching.

The participants who teach academic subjects clearly relate to their subject matter and their own experiences of being a student. In contrast, vocational and professional teachers relate to previous occupations drawing on labour forces in order to make sense of their new and developing identities. Issues of gender, race, and social class were referred to in terms of personal identity.

Sixteen participants (73%) of this study stated FE teaching was a second career choice; the college employs eleven participants on a part-time basis and four participants teach in parallel with their first career. All participants were highly critical of in-service initial teacher training. They raised concerns about the suitability of new and inexperienced teachers being left with the responsibility of teaching a group of FE students without supervision and guidance. In some cases, the participants were issued with the common inspection framework as a guide to teaching. Many of the participants were inevitably ambivalent towards their new jobs. Their ideas about what is expected of them evolved from formal teacher training classes rather than actual professional practice. In some cases, participants expressed concern about the differences in the models of professional practice taught in formal teacher training and actual practices within the college departments. All participants agreed this difference frustrated the quality of professional practice and, in some cases, caused conflict within the teaching team. Some participants who teach vocational courses, expressed feelings of depression and frustration when they considered their effort to be without purpose.

Vocational teachers felt in the early stages of their teaching career that their professional identity was someone with a skill (hairdressers and bricklayers) who teaches. The vocational teachers did, however, realise their teaching identity by the end of the formal teacher training programme. In contrast, the academic teachers (A level and higher education teachers) felt the transition to the role of a teacher was unambiguous due to their own experiences of undergraduate study. One participant stated it was more of the same, just a change in roles. The professional/academic teachers did not share the same views as the other teachers; their professional identity was described as a rollercoaster of experiences and emotions.

The participants of Focus Group 2 claimed they learned to teach best in authentic situations and when supported by the college, the department, and the team. One participant stated:

> *"Being an FE teacher is not just participation in the acquisition of skills and knowledge, but being a teacher as a whole; it's a state of mind, thinking and doing as a teacher, in essence changing my professional identity."*

Professional identity of an FE teacher is based on a general philosophy of ensuring the students' educational needs are met. One respondent replied:

> *"The student must take priority, if the student experience is poor, they will not realise their full potential. The purpose of my job is to influence the students in a positive way through my own actions; it is my professional duty to do so."*
> (Interview Transcript, March 2013)

The participants from Focus Group 1 agreed; a high quality student experience was a recurring theme throughout the discussion. The concept of the positive student experience is used as a measure of teacher professionalism. Traditional measures of teacher performance and professionalism have also included student perception and judgements of the student experience, claiming to reflect the level of teacher professionalism. The participants from Focus Group 3 reported their professional identity was separated into two areas: social and personal. The group attributed their personal identity to membership of formal and informal groups, listing the college, school, curriculum area, teaching subject area and gender. They also stated that their professional identity has been shaped by a distinct set of personal identities, which set them apart from others.

```
Hairdresser
          HE Student
                          FE Teacher

Female 40 years,

Parent, Wife

Former cabin crew (British Airways)
```
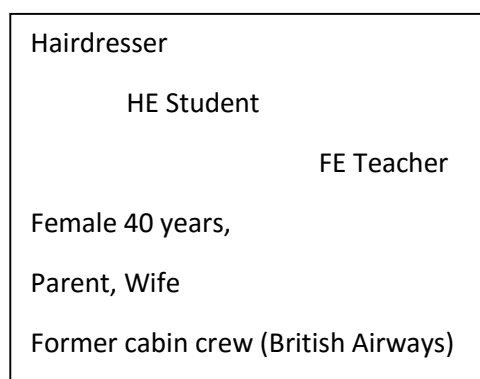
Figure 4.26. Flip chart example

The collective identity shown in Figure 4.26 was that of a student teacher. Participants explained their individual source of social identity is one of an occupational expert, teacher and student. Participants convincingly argued their professional identity was created through a series of interactions with their own students, teacher trainers and subject mentors. Cooley's '*The Looking Glass*' (1918) allowed the participants to view a virtual image of themselves through the reactions of others. Although the

participants of Focus Group 3 were clear about their own identity, three participants suggested their professional identity was multi-faceted and referred to the role of a social actor. Identities changed as did the social and professional contexts (Goffman 1963). Goffman's (ibid.) perspective is useful by means of contextualising societal and institutional change and the impact on changing professional identities.

Foucault's concept of disciplinary power provided a focal point for further discussion and led to a reinterpretation of teacher professionalism. Following on from the reinterpretation of professionalism, is the idea of teacher reflection, where teachers 'turn around' on themselves, assess their own reasons, motives, and values and reconstruct their own professional identity whilst retaining elements of previous identity from past occupations.

One conclusion is it that it has become increasingly important for new FE teachers to fully reflect on their own behaviours and attitudes in response to unannounced changes in the provision and funding of the FE sector. Hodkinson (1997) contrasts changes in FE to that of the shift from modernity to postmodernism. Modernity in FE has given way to new ways of thinking and acting, moving away from and rejecting a belief in scientific tradition and rationality. In the postmodern era of FE teaching, teacher reflectivity (acting on one's reflections) is one response to changes within the FE sector of teaching. At the personal level, the move from modernity to postmodernism in FE teaching is differentiated by the individual teachers' experiences of previous occupations, their own experiences of initial teacher training and encounters with other teachers. New FE teachers travel through many social worlds and attain many professional identities. In this postmodern era of FE teaching, teachers have become much more sophisticated in terms of professional identity and in most cases the transition from one identity to another is not fluid. The participants of this study strongly believed they needed to discover a position in FE teaching based on a process of systematic reflective activity. Attaining a new professional identity within FE involves new teachers answering three questions and gaining an understanding of: 'who I am'; 'how I became what I am'; and 'what I want to be' (Kolb 1982). Gaining a new professional identity includes continuity in practice and maintaining professional integrity across a period of time; all of which will need to be strongly evidenced by FE teachers. Giddens (2013) claims a significant

feature of gaining an identity is the ability to interpret personal reflections and a personal biography across a period of time. The themes emerging from participants who completed a personal biography highlighted frustration while practising within a culture of surveillance and mistrust. Participants argued that constant inspection of their practice reinforced their perception that FE teaching was not considered a profession and that FE teachers were not competent and compliant practitioners.

The model below has been devised as a summary of the results from the interviews and focus groups. It demonstrates the process of developing a new professional identity as a FE Teacher.

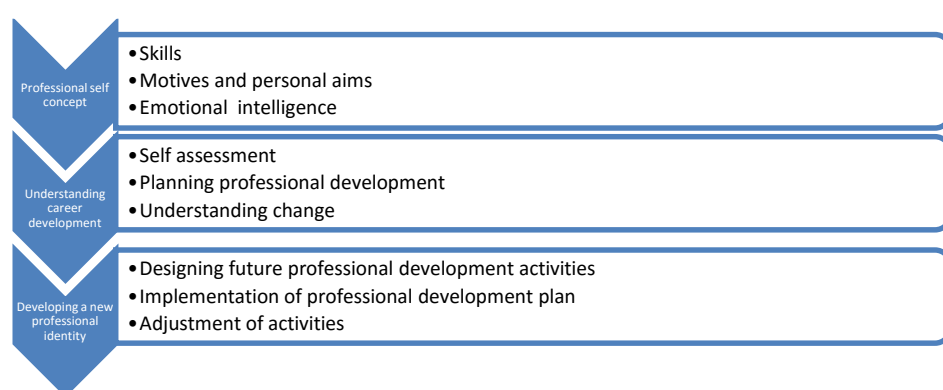| Professional self concept | • Skills
• Motives and personal aims
• Emotional intelligence |
| Understanding career development | • Self assessment
• Planning professional development
• Understanding change |
| Developing a new professional identity | • Designing future professional development activities
• Implementation of professional development plan
• Adjustment of activities |

Figure 4.28 Flow chart showing steps and actions for developing a new professional identity

Participants described the learning journey as a series of disruptions from the norm, listing a series of educational and professional impediments to successful attainment. Participants described their own successes and setbacks experienced throughout the training period. One participant referred to failing a written assignment/module claiming this critical event spoiled their identity as a developing FE teacher, stating they felt unworthy of the title. Participants expressed concern about the possible impact of their conduct outside college, by explaining the way teachers are vulnerable to the repercussions caused by behaviour deemed as 'bringing the college in to disrepute'. The participants also described and evaluated their strategy for managing a spoiled identity, reflecting Goffman's three types of stigma: physical deformities or divalent appearance; blemishes of character; and tribal stigma. One participant stressed the importance of physical appearance – for example, art teachers looking like artists – to ensure they appear credible enough to teach that subject. The participants who taught vocational subjects labelled themselves as being lower in teacher status, as their subject area is not perceived as an academic subject. Goffman (1963) argues anything and anybody can become stigmatised and refers to five

stages/strategies for a cure including concealment, defiance and avoidance. Three participants who teach vocational subjects undertook additional literacy and numeracy courses to improve the quality of their written assignments and to be able to cope with the academic requirements of ITT. Two participants stated they had enrolled for acting lessons in an attempt to improve levels of personal confidence when presenting. Conversely, the participants who taught academic subjects found the concept of interactive practical teaching methods difficult to conceptualise. Participants alluded to the concealment of self-perceived weaknesses by constructing a range of strategies to avoid the situation. The participants' lesson plans and other planning documents demonstrate an avoidance of interactive teaching and learning activities. They described situations of self-segregation and the use of bravado as an act of defiance or challenging the methodology of ITT. The results from Focus Group 3 are consistent with Goffman's Asylums, as the participant's identity shifts from that of the teacher to student and omitting their original one.

Multiple Professional Identities

Professional identity

> "Identity is too ambiguous, too torn between 'hard' and 'soft' meanings, essentialist connotations and constructivist qualifiers, to be of any further use to sociology."
> (Brubaker and Cooper 2000, p 2)

This section addresses the fourth aspect of my study, how do new FE teachers construct and manage their multiple professional identities? I aim to discover the aspects of ITT and professional development which guide new FE teachers in realising their new professional identities. Within this section the experiences of the participants, both positive and negative, are explored, including the ways they construct their professional identity as an FE teacher.

The data collected from each of the research instruments was analysed using elements of discourse/thematic analysis. The research questions related to professional identity were used as a framework for analysis using colour codes (post-it notes).

I examine trends and relationships between the participant demographic data and qualitative data captured in this study. The data captured from the two questionnaires reports and discusses the participants' career choices and teacher workloads leading to the participants attaining a new professional identity. Within this section I report the participants' perception and self-perception of changing and multiple professional identities. The concept of creating, changing and developing a professional identity is one aspect of the theoretical framework used throughout this thesis. The results of data analysis demonstrate a variety of viewpoints and experiences of the participants. The participants have been categorised into three areas of FE teacher (outlined in table 4.5): vocational-academic (professional), vocational, and academic. All participants share some aspects of developing professional teacher identity, although there are several significant distinguishing features of each group. Classifying (or categorisation of) each participant into one of the three groups of FE teachers is not without issues. Brubaker and Cooper (2000) argue a person's sense of identity does not and cannot make people behave in a specified way, the members of the group construct their identity through a continuous process of identification and behaviours. Brubaker and Cooper (ibid) distinguishes between real groups and non-existent groups. The participants of this study were able to identify with several groups, referred to as communities practice. All participants were trainee FE teachers and shared a sense of groupness whilst undertaking the ITT programme. Separating the participants into the three groups, academic, professional and vocational teachers, was based on collective similarities between the members, for example the nature of the subject taught. I notice that some participants move between the groups by the nature of the courses they teach, further complicating the participants' professional and multiple identity. Two participants classified as vocational teachers also teach academic subjects. All participants are members of the college and the FE teaching sector and were able to identify themselves with the college and the FE profession. Brubaker and Cooper (ibid) describes the college as a formal organisation which will continue to function regardless of the movement of its membership. The participants may choose to change employers with other colleges or other FE providers, but the participants will retain an association with the FE sector.

The results of this study concur with Hogg and Terry (2001), where the participants identified with some professional identities more than others. Adding to Hogg and Terry (ibid.) the participants of this study who teach vocational subjects assumed the identity of an FE teacher but recognised their previous salient professional identities.

The Participants described how daunting teaching can be for new teachers, regardless of their academic and or technical skills. Although daunting, the participants stated they were not prepared for the transition from their original occupations to that of an FE teacher. Participants also explained how the transition from one occupation to a new one was not straightforward. Participants who teach vocational subjects found moving between two professional identities challenging and confusing.

The participants were very clear about how they saw themselves at college, primarily as teachers who were experts in their field. Within the context of the college, the participants in this study possess a range of professional identities based on their specific role – class teacher, personal tutor, course leaders – whilst some act as representatives for the college with external agencies. By the end of the ITT programme all participants stated they viewed their professional identity as that of an FE teacher with occupational and/or academic expertise. Such a self-defining approach was not as individualistic as it initially appeared. Throughout the individual interviews, some participants stated they felt under pressure to adopt the role of a teacher and often resisted letting go of their previous professional identity. The participants refute claims made by Jenkins (2008) that a person's identity does not affect their behaviour. One participant described the ways they moved unknowingly from the identity of a FE teacher to that of their previous occupation. Issues of gender, race and social class were referred to in terms of personal identity. Findings and themes from questionnaires, focus groups and interviews reveal introspection by new FE teachers when constructing a new professional identity.

Summary

It is not the participation in the pursuit of new skills, but the total participation in a new profession. When asked about the concept of total participation in FE teaching, the consensus of the participants was that it was a 'state of mind'. Becoming and being a teacher is not just doing the job, but being the whole teacher, resulting in changing personal and professional identity. Participants explained their

process of learning through observation, writing essays and reflective practice. Results demonstrate the ways new teachers generate the patterns of personal experiences which inform and shape their personal learning and development. Interview data from this study revealed some participants tailored their actions by referring to personal stores of experience from previous occupations. One participant referred to the 'lived experiences with no surprises', making reference to Maslow's (1952) four-stage model of learning moving from unconscious incompetent to unconscious competent (moving from novice to expert), avoiding deliberate and formal record keeping. Themes generated from interview data highlighted the complexities and process of building teacher knowledge and teaching competence through the development of habits and styles, through routine practices. New teachers attempt to avoid mistakes adopting the role of compliant technicians, bound by rules of FE teaching practice and that of the college (Helbsy 1999). Participants described how the ways compliance with rules helped them to automatically comply with expected behaviours of an expert, with less anxiety. In contrast some participants described their initial frustrations about the lack of structure for novice teachers. This perception reinforces a long-established belief that subject specialists are able to teach their chosen subject.

Established models of professional development (CIPD) and work-based learning (IOE) stress the importance of structure in the early stages of professional development. The fundamental relationship between the two human processes of working and learning is at the heart of initial teacher training bringing together knowledge, theory and practice. Results generated from this study reinforce the importance of discriminating between the distinct features of the FE teaching environment and traditional classroom learning. New FE teachers learn to be guided by new knowledge and developing perceptions based on reflective practice. Participants expressed concern about the focus on reflection by teacher educators; they all agreed professionals learn from experience, but challenge the concept of more experience and more reflection results in more learning. Participants described difficulties of 'letting go of previous learned behaviours'. It is recognised some learned behaviours and actions are inefficient, ineffective and difficult to change (Lewin 1947). Participants analysed the ways they considered new experiences, discovering new patterns which helped them to understand their new

situations. Reference was made to previous experiences from previous occupations when some new experiences went wrong. Participants searched for new events that made them act differently. The participants (60%) attributed the support of their specialist mentors and former teachers to their successful transformation to an FE teacher.

One common theme gained from the participants' narratives was a desire to discuss student work with their own students on an individual basis and establish individual targets and development plans. They felt the role of the teacher ought to be augmented with the role of the tutor and dealt with within the ITT process. Participants who teach academic subjects complained about the class sizes, claiming that large groups of students prevented them from developing individual student learning plans. One participant who teaches higher education modules, stated he had taught class sizes of fifty and above, restricting his creative skills in teaching through having to deliver formal teacher-led lectures as a primary teaching method. Petty (2004) claims learners will retain between 10% and 20% of the content of a lecture, whereas students who are able to apply new knowledge through cooperative learning exercises and the opportunity to apply new learning to realities will retain up to 80% of the lesson content. The duplication of teaching topics and subject resources became apparent across the teaching subjects; narratives and findings from observations exposed many missed opportunities to share teaching resources and plans. Examples included the teaching of Management and Leadership. This subject is taught within six areas of the college's curriculum, including Early Years Education, Public Services, Health and Social Care, Education Studies and Business Management.

Participants were often critical of the teacher educators, making claims the teachers in teacher training did not demonstrate good and effective teaching practice and lacked the skills to explain teaching methodology. One participant commented that the way teacher educators had attempted to teach co-operative learning methods was by formal, teacher-centred lecture.

The participants also expressed a desire to visit beacon colleges and experience teachers from all sectors, using elements of ethnography to improve, conceptualise and add best practice to their own

teaching. This result demonstrated a need for an extended learning culture, embracing wider collaboration with other colleges.

The participants from Focus Group 2 expressed concern about the lack of opportunity to make long-term curriculum plans by means of drawing from their own professional experiences from previous occupations. The members of Focus Group 1 did explain how the curriculum in Engineering and Information Technology did not reflect current practices in the chosen industry. The participants demonstrated how some technical subjects/industries developed at a greater pace in terms of innovation than the education sector. These developments suggest the FE sector fails to keep pace with the industries it intends to serve.

Validity of Initial Teacher Training Pathways for FE Teachers

This section of my thesis examines possible teacher training pathways for the three areas of further education teaching. I draw on a range of established and contemporary literature, the participants' narratives and results from my observations, and explore alternative models of initial teacher education. An effective model for initial teacher education is related to the philosophies of education and the philosophical foundations of the FE teaching profession. Uniquely, I draw on a combination of experiential learning theory, concrete experience and reflection models. This section also identifies the elements of effective teaching and learning within the practical contexts in which new FE teachers practice. The rationalist view of teacher education is one that emphasises the image of a teacher as a rational-autonomous professional. Rationalism is appealing to intellectual and deductive reasoning as opposed to concepts of empiricism, which is concerned with sensory perception. I seek to identify elements of good practice across the three areas of FE teaching. The basic principle of good practice surpasses the biased and prejudiced cultures of everyday living derived from theoretical considerations of educational ethics (Elliott 1996). Elliott (ibid.) provides further explanations of the concepts of teacher education as a social market in terms of a production and consumption system, reflecting western democracies and capitalism. He is describing teacher training as a quantifiable product based on competencies and evidenced through teacher competencies. He also compares this phenomenon of

current teacher education to the NVQ work-based training system. The hermeneutic view highlighted by Elliott (ibid.), which resonated with the participants, was viewing teacher education as an applied science. Elliott (ibid.) refers to the teacher as a researcher by making improvements in a range of changing and complex real life situations, which in some ways contradicts the concept of rationality. Participants argued that the teacher roles are augmented by those of an action researcher and reflective practitioner, claiming the reflections and findings should inform future professional practice. There are obvious tensions within the current system of ITT. The tensions are visible in terms of the competency-based teacher education model and that of a holistic view, which includes elements of developing the creative skills of FE teacher education. Data from focus groups, observations and interviews in this study suggest the rational approach to FE teacher education is outdated and fails to recognise the high levels of creativity required by FE teachers from the three pathways identified in this study.

The heterogeneous nature of the participant group necessitated the use of generic approaches to assessing competences, although failing to address the three distinct domains of FE teaching. The quality and frequency of feedback to the participants from the people identified varied. A revised ITT programme should apply a systematic approach to providing feedback on new FE teachers' performance. The feedback to trainee and new FE teachers and their professional development plans should be assessed by a panel of experts who have the authority to award a license to practice in the FE sector. The Gonczi (1994) model of transferable competence and creative attributes is essentially divorced from the specific context and content in which these might be applied to FE teacher training. Participants who teach on pre-vocational and basic skills programmes claimed the purpose of teaching was not to teach specifically the subject but to improve the motivation levels of disengaged or socially excluded people and improve the students' life chances and employability. Observations from this study demonstrate that high-status courses are located within the college's school of higher education, however the construction and organisation of the FE curriculum reflects Durkheim's stratification systems, reinforcing obedience and compliance in the lower orders of society. This emerging theme supports and in some ways reflects the work of Reber (1985) who referred to the process of gaining a new professional identity as a person's essential and continuous assessment of self, although it is a

subjective concept of oneself as an individual. The participants of this study referred to the attainment of a new professional identity as an FE teacher as constructed through constant surveillance of one's own self and responses to new experiences. Erikson (1968) claims people need a strong sense of identity to be able to function within society. To function as effective teachers, they need a strong sense of professional identity The participants throughout the study reflected this view.

Teaching and supporting gifted and talented students

The teaching of gifted FE students is not currently considered within the current ITT programme. The conclusion reached in this study is that the teaching of gifted and talented FE students is dependent on the teacher's awareness of the students' academic profile and previous achievements.

Positive Features	Negative Features
The FE students may ask a lot of questions, demonstrating a large knowledge base *Good at maths, high order skills, critical analysis* *Enjoys a challenge* *Demonstrating independence, original thoughts* *Ability to make connections* *Able to elaborate*	*Tends to get off topic and become very impatient when not asked questions or invited to speak* *Becomes bored and disruptive, works quickly but often sloppily* *Perfectionist* *Argumentative* *Absent minded* *Avoids group work* *Hates criticism* *Does not complete work* *Takes on too much*

Figure 4.29 The participant's responses in relation to the teaching of gifted and talented FE students

The participants of this study were unaware of the complexities of being gifted. Their perception of gifted students was that they are compliant, well behaved and worked hard. The reality of gifted FE students is very different. Some are disruptive in class and unable to follow a teacher's instructions.

Challenging and inspiring gifted and talented FE students starts with the development of purposeful learning programmes, rich in detail and based on taxonomies of learning (degree of difficulty). The learning programmes should be designed on general principles. Effective teaching of gifted and talented students requires detailed schemes of work that differentiate in terms of degrees of difficulty. By

179

differentiating learning activities, this allows teachers and FE students to accelerate learning based on the needs of the individual student. In some cases, gifted and talented students require a slower pace of learning, allowing the students to absorb the information at a deeper level. Increasing the degree of difficulty requires much more teacher skill and higher levels sophistication. New FE teachers will need to provide learning activities that require less structure, giving the students the freedom to explore the concepts. FE teachers do, however, need to equip students with the prerequisite skills and knowledge. The participants of this study discussed the importance of developing positive working relationships with gifted and talented students, ensuring that they enjoy the learning activities. In contrast some participants argued this concept should be applied to all FE students.

Possible FE ITT pathways

The concept of education is concerned with the theoretical aspects of a subject, often reinforcing or building on previous knowledge. FE teachers who teach professional courses, such as Accounting, Law or Nursing, stated that their students needed exposure to formal higher education, followed by a period of practical training. It is this model which could be applied to FE teacher training. In an attempt to improve the quality of FE teacher training and retain highly qualified FE teachers, I conclude that FE teacher training programmes should be extended by one year, from two years to three. In addition, vocational teachers require a different focus from teachers who teach professional and academic courses.

Although there are benefits of a homogeneous ITT programme, vocational teachers require a separate pathway to that of those who teach professional and academic subjects. The participants of this study who teach vocational subjects require the basic skills in training, planning and delivering a learning session. Vocational teachers require advanced skills in the capturing and assessment of FE student occupational competency within the context of the chosen vocation, separate from a college-based learning programme. The number of FE students who complete a vocational course and move into that vocation is low. One example provided by one participant was: from sixty FE students who completed an NVQ level two in Hairdressing, only six successful students secured employment within this sector. This statistic is not uncommon (DfE 2010). The participants expressed concern about the development

and tracking of personal skills alongside their main programme. Emerging results suggest the participants who teach vocational and professional courses required a rationalist perspective of initial teacher training. In contrast the participants who teach academic courses require a different focus, based on developing creativity and the pursuit of knowledge. There are obvious tensions between each of the three areas described as stratification of FE teaching, with academic teachers holding higher status than vocational teachers.

The tension within the FE sector is reinforced by the requirement for endorsement by Standards Verification UK. The SVUK was a body designed to ensure all teacher training programmes ensured consistency in terms of content and quality, with an overarching theme of the promotion of professionalism.

One participant expressed concern about the validity of the current teacher training programme. Employed by the college in the School of Higher Education, this participant teaches a range of level four, five, six and professional accountancy courses. He graduated in 2003 from a Russell Group university gaining a 2.1 in International Business Studies and specialised in Accounting and Finance. He decided to join the teaching profession on a part-time basis whilst still working as a company/group accountant for a local company. Another participant joined the teaching profession from the banking sector. Both participants' expectations of teacher training have at best been disappointing.

> *"I have not learned anything from the course, it's all bollocks, well if you can count some very basic psychology like Pavlov dogs. What we need is some ideas on how to teach so we can try them in class and perhaps modify the tactics and methods to suit our own subjects. I remember one lesson we were told it is illegal to discriminate against students from different social backgrounds, yeh, that's obvious, I asked about the strategies we could use to positively include all students in the learning process . . ."*
> (Interview Notes, May 2013)

The participants agreed, the most useful aspect of teacher training was the opportunity to discuss learning with other trainee teachers, sharing experiences and providing support for the members of the group. It is clear from those narratives and results that the participants had formed an unofficial learning group with its own culture.

Reflective practice

Considered a characteristic of excellent teachers in pursuit of knowledge, self-knowledge, knowledge of others, and excellence in teaching skills, reflective practice in FE teaching is about using experiences in ways to change and influence others and to recognise ways of changing themselves. The participants referred to reflection as a vehicle to identify ways to change their thinking and behaviour whilst attempting to use the changes to get the best out of their own students. This cycle of reflection is attributed to Kolb (1992), which has reflection as a stage in a progression to take the participants from particular experiences to generalisations.

Participants also stated, in Focus Group 1, that there were limited opportunities to learn from experienced colleagues/mentors by direct observation; claiming they learned by vicarious observation, narratives and discussions with other colleagues.

Participants agreed that teaching is a highly creative act, it is also an art and a science – although the concept of the expert teacher is perhaps a myth. Being reflective uses past experiences, feelings and thoughts; expert teachers should appraise the realities of life and believe those experiences can shape the future and aid discovery, whilst simultaneously being retrospective and prospective.

Chapter Five: Conclusions

Introduction

In this chapter I seek to answer the research questions outlined in Chapter 1 within the theoretical framework outlined in Chapter 2. This chapter is separated into four sections related to the four research questions and the empirical results are consolidated. Throughout the study I have referred to the three areas of FE teaching, those who teach vocational subjects, professional subject and academic subjects. Comparisons made across each area of FE teaching has raised some interesting issues. One interesting topic was the ways new FE teachers construct their professional identity moving from occupational expert to that of an FE teacher. Vocational subject teachers and those teachers who teach professional subjects have developed unconscious skills in managing their multiple professional identities moving seamlessly between roles and professional identities. Within this chapter I make several recommendations in an attempt to improve the quality of FE ITT. The following recommendations also address the disparity of conditions and the quality of FE ITT between FE and other sectors of the UK education system. I conclude there is a need for formal registration with a national institution for FE teachers and a revised qualification framework, reflecting the specific needs of the three sectors of FE teaching and ITT tutors. The final section summarises the contribution to knowledge in the field of FE teacher training and concludes by identifying areas for further research.

The construction of this case study has been guided by the four research questions, the objectives, and title of the thesis: '*The FE Teacher as an Agent of Change*'.

Objectives:

- examine whether the current initial FE teacher training programme is fit for purpose;
- capture the participants' perceptions of their changing and multiple professional identities;
- learn how the participants felt about their roles as change agents;
- listen to the participants' narratives and discussions.

Based on data obtained from one large FE college, findings have revealed that new FE teachers can be categorised into three distinct areas of FE teaching based on the subjects taught: academic, professional and vocational. In some cases, participants of this study taught in two of the teaching areas. The quantitative demographic data suggests this group of participants is typical of the profiles of the UK FE teaching population. The research questions and the results of the data collected were considered in an integrated way throughout the study. Although the research instruments were themed and focused on aspects of the four research questions, the data provided by the participants often addressed more than one research question. Therefore, capturing the data proved challenging, although the use of thematic analysis of qualitative data proved successful in drawing the conclusions.

All participants followed a homogenous initial teacher training programme for two years and developed a range of practical skills in FE teaching. Most participants successfully augmented previous experiences with new skills, knowledge and understanding of the teaching and learning process. It is, however, the experiences and perceptions of the participants which have highlighted areas of strength, weakness and omissions in the current ITT programme. I have examined concepts of professionalism in FE teaching, changing professional identity, managing multiple professional identities and how feedback from teacher educators and mentors to the participants has helped the new FE teachers gain new skills and competencies. Drawing from a range of theoretical sociological perspectives of professionalism and change agency, the analysis of the empirical data showed that the concept of professionalism in FE teaching is misunderstood and often misused. This conclusion is reinforced throughout the study, with reference to the ways colleges of FE are organised, managed and how college employees are controlled. The key factors affecting the attainment of a new professional identity whilst retaining elements of the participants' previous occupations have been explored in an attempt to answer the research objective of examining the participants' experiences.

1. What are the experiences of student FE teachers as they seek to take on their new professional identity in education?

2. Do student FE teachers consider that the current FE Teacher Training programme meets their needs in managing multiple professional identities?

3. Do student FE teachers consciously take the role of change agents for their students?

4. Is the current initial teacher training programme fit for purpose?

1. The experiences of student FE teachers as they take on their new professional identity in education

Stress and working hours
Participants were very clear about the professional expectations placed upon them.

> *"Teaching is much more than a nine to five job."*
> (Participant Reflective Statement, March 2012)

The average time participants spent at work was fifty hours per week (pro rata for participants working on fractional contracts). Twelve hours per week was devoted to unpaid tasks. This figure excluded the hours spent on teacher training written assignments.

Along with the expected pressures of teaching that participants identified, other factors included poor student attitude and lack of motivation, conflicts with administrative staff and managers, unreasonable teaching timetables (one participant was allocated 30 hours per week of classroom teaching) and a lack of contact with other teachers which led to high levels of job dissatisfaction. Two participants complained about emotional and physical exhaustion, leading to an inability to cope with the pressures of modern FE teaching. Faber (1995) recognises these symptoms of teacher burn out. The concepts and implementation of performance management and teacher accountability severely restrict student and teacher creativity. Evidenced through observation data, participants of this study were highly motivated to improve the quality of student learning and develop their own level of innovation as well as that of their students. The European Union's directives in some areas of FE teaching have impacted on the role of teachers and have increased administrative tasks to a heavy workload. Heavy workloads and limited teaching resources, negated and suppressed the participants' initial enthusiasm for teaching.

Being an FE teacher
The role of the teacher has long been a fundamental focus of ITT programmes. However, evidence captured from my observations of the participants in classrooms, tutorials and workshops throughout 2011/2012 reveals the process of effective teaching is much more complex. The ITT programme fails to recognise the ways FE teachers often augment teaching, tutoring and leadership roles. Effective and

successful FE teachers engage with a specific professional identity, adopting a methodical and systematic approach to their work. Danielewicz (2001) describes the art of teaching as a state of being, not merely ways of acting or behaving. The results from my observations do not fully concur with Danielewicz's (ibid.) position, as participants from this study make unconscious manoeuvres from a range of professional identities from that of a teacher, occupational expert, tutor, manager and leader, when responding to the situations FE students create. Participants agreed that a significant aspect of their work was mentally challenging and involved in-depth dialogue about teaching actions and reflections. Ayers (2001) describes teaching as creative, diverse, constantly shaping lessons, teaching and learning resources. The work of the teacher is exhausting, complex, idiosyncratic and never the same (Ayers ibid., p18).

Not all new FE teachers and FE students move through a learning programme at the same pace, and with the best laid plans, some FE students do not achieve their qualification. The quality of the participants' observed lessons varied, some were satisfactory in terms of meeting the stated learning objectives. In contrast, some of the best lessons were spontaneous (limited evidence of lesson planning) breaking through the glass ceiling of student understanding. Participants realised teaching does not comprise entirely of specific competencies or observable teacher behaviours that have a predictable effect on their students, and the reactions of students cannot be guaranteed. The participants realised that teaching is full of surprises; teaching is an opportunist process, neither teacher nor student can predict with any certainty exactly what will happen in the learning process. The participants' lesson plans failed to capture unexpected opportunities for the attainment of educational goals which were constantly emerging (Jackson 2004). Summarising the data gathered from participant observations revealed that all participants strove to effect some form of change in their own students by encouragement and positive reinforcement.

> *"It was difficult to assess what the FE students have learned as a direct result of teaching."*
> (Field Notes, March 2012)

This entry demonstrates further complexities not addressed within the current ITT process. Participants realised through reflective contemplation that they could not accurately appreciate exactly what another

person knows or understands. The participants' understanding of teaching varied according to their area of teaching and, despite the step-by-step efforts to standardise teaching in the FE sector, the 2001, 2007, 2013 regulations, variations in knowledge, understanding, and application were prevalent within this group of participants. Existing experienced teachers and teacher educators are also uncertain about what trainee teachers learn.

One interesting conclusion is all FE teachers need to recognise their own ability to determine what trainee teachers learn, and integrate appropriate assessment instruments into the learning process.

Figure 5.1 summarises the participants' understanding of effective student assessment and learning
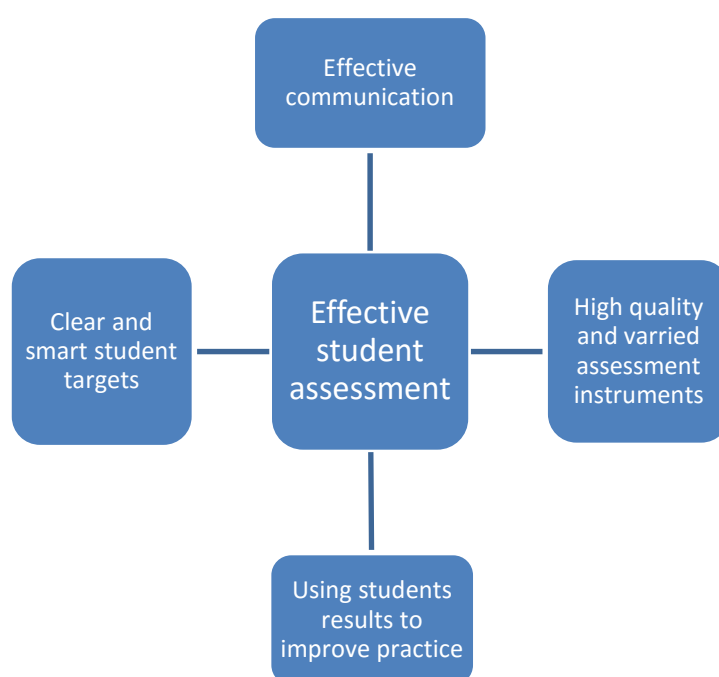

Figure 5.1 Factors affecting student assessment

Emerging conclusions reveal that the concept of new FE teachers coming together provides opportunities for novice teachers to engage with rich contextualisation of professional practice, and enables them to develop personal creativity whilst examining issues and problems from various perspectives. The evidence gathered from observation data, and then analysed, shows the participants working with high levels of flexibility, and they have clearly developed their creative thinking skills.

The link between flexible working practices and teacher creativity is not currently addressed in the current ITT programme. Evidence from interview data revealed the participants' perceptions of learning and the extent to which they considered they were active in their own learning. All participants agreed one aspect of teacher learning is effective reflective practice and reflectivity. The participants who teach vocational and professional subjects described the ways they had attempted to link their own learning from a range of theoretical perspectives with knowledge from previous occupations. The participants who teach academic subjects assumed the need to demonstrate academic knowledge and the marshalling of academic knowledge was a natural aspect of their professional practice. Demonstrating an understanding of the links between theory and practice is a key component to successful teaching.

2. Do student FE teachers consider that the current FE teacher training programme meets their needs in managing multiple professional identities?

Managing multiple professional identities

The nature of FE teaching has changed as has the professional identity of its teachers. By the end of the ITT programme all participants of this study identified with the role of an FE teacher. The participants have attached themselves to FE teaching, drawing from personal attributes, beliefs, values, motives and experiences from previous occupations. The new FE teachers' multiple identities are socially constructed, providing a sense of psychological wellbeing. The participants who teach professional and vocational subjects were able to associate with several professions giving them a sense of pride, esteem and credibility. The participants' behaviour was shaped by their multiple professional identities, switching from the role of FE teacher, tutor to that of their previous occupation. One conclusion raised in answering research question two is the participants' multiple professional identities and association with one or more professions is important in shaping the psychological and behavioural processes of new FE teachers. The notion of the FE teacher as a single professional is clearly outdated, as some participants of this study are still practising their previous occupation, albeit on a part-time basis. There is limited literature on multiple professional identities, with the exception of a hybrid model of medical doctors holding management positions. Participants who teach vocational subjects were self-motivated to define their multiple identities and held the view that both professions are self-defining. Brewer and Hewstone (2004), define identity as the degree to which people view their multiple identities in similar terms. It is not the number of work roles which define the participants' multiple identities, it is the ways the participants have structured their identity in relation to each of these. Whilst all FE teachers have access to the same building blocks for identity creation, there are differences between the three areas of FE teaching. Participants who teach academic subjects construct their multiple professional identities without giving it much consideration. One participant who teaches an academic subject described the transition from student/researcher to teacher/researcher as being relatively easy. One participant viewed her professional identity as an FE teacher as being at the intersection of her professional identity:

> *"I view myself as someone who is not a full-time hairdresser nor a full-time teacher. I am in-between, not sure if I am a hairdresser who teaches or a teacher who teaches hairdressing."*
> (Field Notes, March 2012): Example of Intersection

Two participants who teach vocational and professional subjects refer to their previous vocations as dominant aspects of their multiple professional identities, whereas a participant who was from an academic discipline identified first as an FE teacher:

> *"I am an FE teacher first and foremost, my first degree is in sociology which is important to have as a means of providing knowledge to my students. I am also a researcher, I mean this is the point of teaching, I have to prepare my lesson material . . . "*
> (Field Notes, March 2012): Example of Dominance

Most participants referred to a model of compartmentalisation, as being both an occupational expert and an FE teacher, but at different points in time:

> *"There are times I need to be a teacher, providing knowledge, and support for my students, but there are times I have to demonstrate the practical skills to the students."*
> (Field Notes, March 2012): Example of Compartmentalisation

The classification and consideration of multiple professional identities of FE teachers is not included in the current ITT programme. There are many benefits of reflecting on previous occupations and experiences in developing a new professional identity which would enhance the quality of teaching and learning across the FE sector.

Professionalism in FE teaching

Being a reflective practitioner has long since been an established and credible learning practice. Schon (2000) refers to professional behaviour as reflection in action and provides further explanation as to how effective teachers use reflection to solve problems.

> "Artful teachers see a student's difficulties as a defect in their own teaching."
> (Schon 2000, p66)

Participants of Focus Group 3 explained how each student experienced a range of difficulties during their period of study; one participant stated:

> *"We cannot rely on our experiences or verbatim explanations, successful teachers have to be ready and receptive to new ways of explaining difficult situations."*
> (Interview Notes, March 2012)

Schon (1983) and Freppon (2001) agree that a professional teacher makes careful, sensitive observations of events, reflects on the meaning of their observations and uses the results to shape future practice. One participant stated:

> *"It's like dealing with conflicting values and questions that are difficult to answer – it's hard work and painful."*
> (Interview Notes, March 2012)

The participant statement concurs with Freppon's (2001) earlier statement:

> "Acting on reflection requires true grit."
> (Freppon 2001, p2)

Participants of Focus Group 3 agreed a professional FE teacher is committed to self-development and continuous learning within teaching and the subject/vocational area. It is no longer acceptable for new FE teachers to be allowed to sink or swim, nor is a first degree or equivalent vocational qualifications enough to teach in FE. Participants viewed themselves as teachers and continuous learners and members of extended learning communities/communities of practice. The content and focus of each of the three domains of FE teaching varies in terms of curriculum content and level of the qualification. Being reflective and being a member of learning communities enables and promotes the FE teacher to apply learning experiences to their own teaching practice. It is the attitudes of new FE teachers which model lifelong commitment to learning in their own students. Throughout the research period, participants were unable to access additional learning opportunities due to teaching commitments.

> *"My learning journey to become an effective, good teacher began with viewing myself as a person who is proud of my work – you can't be an effective teacher without being proud of the profession you are committed to and engage in continuous learning."*
> (Field Notes, March 2012)

Interview data highlights the participants' perception of continuous learning by means of gaining professional trust and credibility of FE students, college managers and wider society.

Society extends varying amounts of trust to its FE teachers. Society's confidence in FE teachers and this sector of the UK education system has varied from time to time – from a public perception of FE teachers/sector being incompetent, unprofessional and immoral to a perception of it being one of the most respected professions in the UK. Participants of Focus Group 3 agreed they felt a sense of privilege

with the level of trust placed on them by wider society. However, when presented with the question about the level of trust extended by the college managers, the response varied according to each domain of FE teaching. Academic teachers stated they were trusted to work independently and the level of supervision was very limited. They attributed this level of trust to the students' assessments (public examination) at the end of the academic year. Vocational teachers stated their professional practice was scrutinised and questioned through the internal verification process of assessment practice. Vocational teachers expressed concern about their administrative work being subjected to excessive surveillance and review by non-teaching staff. Participants were also concerned about the increasing number of legal writs issued to teachers and colleges; one participant was confronted by a solicitor in a case of alleged student plagiarism. The moves by society to instigate litigation may be a sign of things to come and worthy of further investigation. There is limited guidance on, or exploration of, the legal implications within the FE teaching sector. Participants stated they would welcome basic instruction in recognising potential contract breaches and the possible consequences.

The role and status of FE teachers has diminished over the last decade according to Steward (2009). Moves by colleges to reduce costs by employing technical assessors and vocational instructors, whilst outsourcing part-time lecturing to external commercial employments agencies, have adversely affected the concept of professionalism in FE teaching. Assessors and instructors are not subjected to the same training as teachers, but perform a very similar function. The participants compared these moves by colleges to those used by the police employing community police support officers.

I concluded that efforts to prepare FE students for work was an essential aspect of the learning process. Work experience and internships promote a sense of autonomy for FE students as they become, or experience the feeling of being, part of a wider community to which they will be accountable. New FE teachers are better placed within the community to assess and promote issues including employability, innovation, and creativity within the context of the chosen curriculum area. None of these issues are currently addressed within ITT. The CIPD claim FE students who participate in voluntary work/work experience are more likely to treat others in a considerate manner, by helping and caring about doing the best they can. Billig (2007) claims that males aged 16 to 24, who participate in work experience,

are less likely to engage in criminal and deviant behaviour and more likely to create bonds with other adults (Billig ibid.). This issue is not addressed in the current ITT programme.

I conclude the current FE ITT programme does not meet the student FE teachers needs in managing their multiple identities. The results from interviews highlight the need to re-professionalise FE teaching by means of recognising FE teachers contribution to the FE students development and achievements.

3. Do student FE teachers consciously take on the role of change agents for their students?

Responding to change and supporting new FE Teachers

This section of my study consolidates the concepts of change within the FE teaching sector and the theoretical concepts which underpin the participants' perceptions and responses to change. Emerging themes from Focus Group 3 placed the concept of organisational change into three contrasting areas: the curriculum, the structure, and the focus of FE. Beerel (2009) argues that change is pervasive; in contrast the participants expressed concern about the radical environmental changes (changes to FE funding), the changing focus of FE colleges, and the changes within the vocational teaching areas. The theoretical concepts of change reside within the area of organisational behaviour. Demers (2007) explains how change theories have evolved over time. Beerel (2009) argues that further change is driven by two forces, internal forces and environmental forces, claiming all members of any organisation must see themselves as agents of change.

The participants revealed throughout this study that they had embraced the personal changes within the context of their career, but felt they were uncertain about the organisational and environmental changes.

The nature of change arrives by way of new realities. Participants described how they generally accepted that new realities were always arriving – some personal, in terms of their professional identity and the change in their professional roles. This was apparent for those participants teaching vocational subjects, who explained how they found the transition from a vocational expert to that of an FE teacher challenging and often frustrating. Participants also described how they had developed strategies to cope with planned, and unexpected changes. Most participants described a process of screening out new realities which did not directly affect their professional teaching practice. Some participants tended to screen out new realities that affected others, often overlooking the significance of the new reality to their own professional teaching practice. Participants referred to new and unexpected conflicts of professional practice, personal values, professional standards, and identity.

Change is inherent in all aspects of FE teaching. Participants of this study claimed they disliked change and resisted it whenever possible. This result clearly contradicts the participants' decision to move into teaching as their primary profession. The associated literature suggests people favour the status quo, suggesting people who change professions are likely to retain elements of their previous profession. The participants expressed feelings of loss and a sense of who they were when they made the decision to join the FE teaching sector. Zehm and Kottler (1985) refers to this transitional period as a continual state of regeneration with ourselves and about ourselves. One conclusion which also addresses elements of research question two is the movement from one professional role to another. The transition is not a linear process. Although the participants' professional roles are not dissimilar (hairdressers teaching hairdressing) the transition from occupational expert to FE teacher was hard work; very hard work.

In contrast, Bereel (2009) argues that people are able to engage in adaptive work; change often brings new freedoms and opportunities for human development. Participants discussed at considerable length their personal and professional development, and their new competences and strengths as a practising FE teacher. New FE teachers learn to adapt to changes in reactive ways, developing personal resilience. Personal resilience improves the chances of survival in a constant world of change. Adapting to change in further education teaching is a continuous process. There is a need to be creative, making ones' positions and actions keep up with change. Adapting to change is very different to keeping up with change. Resilience to change is about changing mind-sets and working creatively, not operating passively or submissively in the face of change. Although developing personal capacity and adaptation to change is not something that can be taught, it is something which can be supported through the ITT, by supporting reflective practice by the new FE teachers and helping them recognise components which support change. Becoming an FE teacher is an adaptive process and often painful. Participants of this study clearly did accept changes in their personal, professional practices, but found the constant organisational and environmental changes challenging and frustrating. Participants provided examples of changes they claimed frustrated their professional performance as an FE teacher: changes to the college staffing and organisational structure; changes to teaching timetables and teaching subjects. The

participants explained how they had developed coping strategies which included screening out the long term consequences, redeployment to other departments, and researching and teaching new subjects.

Innovation in FE teaching

Personal learning is about change in behaviour, attitude and skill. FE teachers provide new experiences in a non-threatening way for their own FE students. FE teachers facilitate a wide range of learning sessions, enabling FE students to build on their own experiences and try out new skills. One feature of the successful lessons observed in this study was when the participants reinforced learning objectives through purposeful interaction with the FE students by the use of taxonomies (degrees of difficulty). This approach clearly helped the more able students realise their potential whilst helping the less able students cope with the demands of the lessons.

The sharing of teaching practices by the participants was also successful, by helping the participants think and act in a creative and innovative way. The promotion and development of innovation differed in the three identified areas of FE teaching. Participants who taught academic subjects found alternative ways of teaching other than formal lecture; they used small group work, for example FE students were required to read a passage and then summarise the meaning or the author's view point.   Participants who taught professional and academic subjects made use of realistic simulations of the work place as class tasks. New approaches adopted by the participants allowed the FE student to build on experiences, discussing their options and possible solutions to realistic problems. The participants of this study clearly valued the opportunities to observe experienced teachers and their own subject mentors, claiming that observing experienced teachers was inspiring, giving them the confidence to try different approaches in their own professional practice. One participant described, in his interview, the ways he had organised an environmental management project, which involved FE students working with other students from other curriculum areas, specialist mentors, and local employers. This project involved the FE students identifying an issue relating to environmental management, protection or conservation. FE students were encouraged and supported by the participant to design, produce a prototype, and present the idea to a panel of judges from the local business community. This is a good example of how new FE teachers help their students realise and achieve career aspirations, regardless of the educational

context or subject. The participant explained how he had encouraged team working and communication skills, considered as transferable skills from college to work place. This activity gave the FE students an insight to realistic business issues and challenges, it promoted competition between different teams of FE students – all experiences FE students could expect to be exposed to in the work place.

One conclusion realised in terms of answering research question three is that there are many options for new FE teachers to answer many questions new FE teachers have. Addressing the development of innovation in FE teaching involves much more than benchmarking or replicating good practice, it is a combination of meeting the students' needs and anticipating the future needs of the students and those of the chosen vocational and subject areas.

Changing student behaviour

Doyle (1986) claims the teachers' ability to influence student behaviour is limited. ITT refers to teaching and learning within the context of the formal learning environment and the perceived partnership between the student and the teacher, but FE teachers continue to influence the behaviours of their students beyond the formal learning environment. The participants provided guidance and support throughout and beyond the working day, either through face-to-face conversations or by email.

The following passage is an extract from one interview, the context was the ways new FE teachers attempt to improve their own students' engagement with the course and college. This passage demonstrates the ways teacher effort fails to address and improve levels of student motivation.

> *"To motivate my students during the revision period, I told them I would organise a trip to a theme park following the exam. I knew this would be important to the students. To my horror they put little effort into the exam, contrary to what I believed and was told in the DTLLS course about basic learning theory, positive reinforcement and rewarding effort. My students did not connect the trip with their exam performance. They appeared not to understand that their behaviour, performance and the trip was connected. My threat of cancelling the trip played havoc, so I decided to avoid complaints and ran the trip. I spent too much valuable time restoring order in the classroom rather than introducing new learning material."*
> (Field Notes, June 2012)

This participant attempted to modify the behaviour of his students by using an established theoretical perspective of learning theory, in the hope the students would connect good performance in the exam

and the reward of the trip. He thought the students would make an internal decision to work hard and achieve the desired exam results. The participant had attempted to apply one theory to practice, but had not considered other theories which identified that not all students respond to extrinsic rewards.

Leading and teaching by example

"With the role of the teacher comes the power to influence others by example."

(Ormrod 2003)

FE teachers not only teach by what they say but by what they do, practising as active agents in which words and deeds can change people's lives and further mould people's futures (for better or worse). New FE teachers have the ability to exert power and influence over FE students as they possess up-to-date subject knowledge, and enjoy credibility as occupational experts or subject specialists. Neito (1998) argues that students learn by imitation and teachers are good role models for students.

Participants of Focus Group 3 discussed the concepts and practices of leading by example. The following lines have been extracted from their field notes:

- ➢ *It is those teachers who actually believe in them (students)*
- ➢ *Patient teachers, willing to accept they may be dealing with someone who has problems*
- ➢ *Those teachers who relate to students as well as other teachers, advisors, they teach and get involved*
- ➢ *Teachers who expert practice and those characteristics of a competent practitioner, a source of knowledge and wisdom*

Henry *et al* (1995) stresses the importance of the relationship between teachers and students; that they are becoming increasingly important within a climate of consumerism and an increased awareness of sociological problems.

"In a world of broken homes and violence, the encouragement from teachers may be the only thing students can hold onto that makes them feel good about themselves."

(Henry *et al* 1995, p127)

Henry's sociological factor is particularly relevant for young male FE students who may have had little experience of good, male role models throughout their young lives (Henry Ibid). Henry continues, by arguing that most successful teachers model positive attitudes towards their students, the subject they

teach, and the industry/occupations they represent. New FE teachers demonstrate a commitment to lifelong learning through their own professional development and by promoting continuous learning to their own students. Giddens (2013) acknowledges that engaging in education is one vehicle in which people can improve their life chances.

I conclude that the student FE teachers do not consciously take on the role of a change agent. The role of change agent within the context of FE teaching is a naturally occurring part of their role and their desire to help FE students realise their aspirations. I also conclude that student FE teachers who teach vocational and professional subjects unconsciously move between a range of multiple professional identities in order to help their FE students.

4. Is the current FE teacher training programme fit for purpose?

Overview

This section of my thesis discusses the conclusions which answer research question four. I conclude the current ITT programme for FE teaching is not fit for preparing new FE teachers. There are several omissions in the current programme, including the fact that it fails to recognise the three areas of FE teaching (vocational, professional and academic teachers). Moving on, the current programme also fails to consider the new FE teachers' social identity and professional status. In the case of the vocational and professional teachers the current programme does not acknowledge the new FE teachers' changing and multiple professional identities or the value of the FE teachers' experiences from previous, and in some cases concurrent occupations.

Initial teacher training refers to the foundation stage of becoming an FE teacher. Comparing models of ITT from across the globe, the length of ITT varies from four years in Spain to eight years in Germany (full-time study and teaching practice placement). In the UK, candidates for ITT in FE undertake a two-year, part-time ITT programme, whilst working as an unqualified FE teacher. The trainees attend one, three-hour taught session per week. The current programme of ITT for FE consists of the following modules: developing teaching; learning and assessment in education and training; an overview of

theories, principles and models of learning; and wider professional practice in education and training. There is an option for candidates to choose a specialist English (Literacy or ESOL) pathway.

Throughout this study I have identified and discussed the issues relating to the three areas of FE teaching (vocational, professional and academic). Within an ITT programme, I argue, each area of FE teaching requires a different focus and perspective of teaching and learning. Whilst considering each area of FE teaching in isolation, results from interviews and focus groups suggest there are generic subjects and suggested improvements relating to the current ITT programme. Within this section I consolidate the concerns and issues raised by the participants regarding the quality and validity of the current FE ITT programme. Arising from these concerns I also present a range of recommendations to address the issues with a view to improving the quality and validity of the FE ITT programme.

Recommendations

This section of my thesis provides recommendations with a view to enhancing the quality and relevance of initial teacher training in FE.

Responding to change

The FE sector is a social institution of UK society. As all social institutions operating in a complex society are interlinked, changes in one institution affect the others (Durkhiem). In a changing society, FE colleges face new challenges while operating in an increasingly competitive environment.

The ways FE teachers respond to environmental changes should be addressed in FE ITT. There are currently insufficient formal links with other social institutions and many missed opportunities to embrace change within the current ITT curriculum. Developing new FE teachers' resilience to personal and professional change would include an understanding the drivers of professional change. The results from this study show that change in personal professional identity is not completed in a linear way, from occupational expert to FE teacher. Results from this study reveal new FE teachers unconsciously move between past and present identities and changing and multiple professional identities. Relevant to the vocational and professional areas of FE, a revised FE ITT programme would include a process of developing new FE teachers' awareness of their own actions in relation to adopting the role of change

agent and the impact on the learning process and their identity formation. A revised FE ITT programme could also include evidenced and impact-based reflective practice by student FE teachers, which will include recognition of their professional identity and ways of managing multiple professional identities.

New FE teachers need to identify the impacts of change and reflect on their personal responses and reactions to personal and environmental change. This research has identified that the current ITT curriculum fails to address the complexities of adapting to environmental and personal change. I recommend that student FE teachers undertake resilience training, risk taking and training in responding to personal professional and environmental changes as part of a core aspect of FE ITT. This might help in reducing the number of FE teachers withdrawing from the FE sector.

Another issue highlighted in this study is the changing ways people communicate. Current trends in communication show increased use of mobile technology and social media. As the use of new mobile information and communication technology increases in FE, participants of this study made use of social media to create their own virtual learning culture. The way people communicate and learn is changing. The current ITT programme fails to recognise these changes in methods of communication and learning. Changing methods of communication also reflect wider societal changes; people and organisations are able to maintain communication links from a wider base.

Continuous professional development

This section acknowledges the recent moves by the UK government to promote work-based learning and apprenticeships. Changes in government policy and funding arrangements have influenced recent changes in the provision of FE in the UK (learndirect.com).

More emphasis should be placed on CPD, within the formal ITT programme, allowing FE teachers who teach professional and vocational subjects to maintain closer associations with the vocational areas and associated industries. This could be achieved by FE teachers undertaking bi-annual professional industrial updating with relevant or vocationally linked organisations. I recommend FE teachers undertake a short period of work experience with a view to enhancing subject knowledge and vocational

skills. FE teachers who teach academic subjects should be encouraged to gain academic qualifications at post-graduate or master's level in their respective subjects.

> *"A teacher can never truly teach unless they continue to learn."*
> (Field Notes, June 2012)

Continuing support for new FE teachers

There is a culture within the FE sector and its FE colleges which fails to recognise the importance of teacher education and continuing support for new FE teachers. One emerging conclusion revealed in this study is about the support the participants received from the college as a whole. Eight participants said they had been granted reduced teaching hours by means of remission from classroom teaching. The average number of hours trainee FE teachers spend teaching remains higher than newly qualified teachers in the other sectors of the UK education system. Participants said they received limited and often reactive support from college managers. Some managers ignored college policy on remission for trainee FE teachers, claiming the pressures of meeting curriculum demands, timetable requirements, and limited teaching hours often lead to trainee teachers teaching beyond the agreed number of teaching hours.

In response to the issue of quality feedback to new FE teachers, I recommend improving the overall quality of feedback to ITT students. This could be achieved by augmenting feedback from a range of people into a single coherent CPD document/portfolio.

Formal mentoring

Members of Focus Group 3 highlighted, through discussion and reflective journals, a lack of a systemic approach to formal mentoring of new FE teachers and this was further frustrated by the misapplied remission of teaching hours. Subject specialist mentors are selected ad hoc and provided with limited and fragmented induction and training. One participant described the role of ITT mentors as tokenistic and a box-ticking exercise. It is clear that there is a requirement for much more development of ITT mentors for FE teachers, either by experiential learning or by formal qualification. A large proportion of ITT subject specialist mentors were volunteers. The over reliance on volunteers suggests the college

is failing to allocate time for mentoring by means of teaching hours remission for subject specialist mentors.

I also recommend the introduction of formal qualifications for ITT tutors, mentors and college leaders to improve the delivery, assessment, feedback and overall quality of ITT programmes.

Development of student and teacher creativity and innovation

The current teaching and development of student and teacher creativity and innovation is inadequate. Results from my observations and focus groups demonstrate many missed opportunities to promote wider thinking and analytical skills (DeBono 1987). DeBono's model and analogy of different coloured hat thinking has been successfully applied to a range of curriculum areas and is a useful model for developing creative thinking skills in teaching and learning. The application of deBono's models requires students and teachers to consider a range of teaching and learning activities and methodically consider each option using different approaches. The approaches range from free and unrestricted thinking to rational thinking, encouraging the students to consider challenges and constraints of each option. The teaching of creativity should be introduced to a revised ITT programme, for several reasons. Firstly, to increase the FE teachers' ability to think and act in a creative way. Secondly, to transfer the creative skills of the FE teacher into the design of learning sessions and activities. Thirdly, to promote creativity and creative thinking of the FE students. Results from observations and interviews show there is a link with teaching and learning activities and poor student behaviour. Lesson that were enriched with a variety of learning activities and were interactive show general improvements in student behaviour and engagement with the class.

Heterogeneous approach to FE ITT

Accepting that FE teaching is separated into three distinct areas, vocational, professional and academic, each area of FE teaching requires a different focus. The identification of differing approaches offers opportunities to develop distinct teaching qualifications and career pathways, whilst capturing the generic sociological aspects of teaching.

There is too much reliance on a homogenous, one size fits all, approach to initial teacher training in FE, which fails to recognise the complexities of the three areas of FE teaching (Petty 2004, Race 2001, and Britzman1991). FE teachers who teach vocational subjects require much more focus on the practical elements of teaching: demonstrations, supervision of practical work, and the capture of naturally occurring evidence in student assessments. In contrast, FE teachers who teach professional and academic subjects require a more theoretical grounding in learning theory, in terms of developing the students' analytical skills. A recommendation to improve the quality of FE teaching in the UK is to enhance the quality of the ITT by including a range of core and optional modules within a new FE ITT programme for trainee teachers. I recommend a range of sociological topics be included into a revised ITT programme containing the sociology and philosophy of further education.

Results from interviews and comparisons with other sectors of the UK education system, also suggest there is a need to extend the ITT period to include a one-year probationary period, post qualification, for newly qualified FE teachers. On successful completion of the probationary period, FE teachers could be awarded with a licence to practice.

Professional recognition

The conclusions of this study also highlight the importance of professional recognition by an overarching professional body. The legal requirement for professional recognition of FE teachers was removed in 2012. In contrast, lecturers in higher education are encouraged to register with the Higher Education Academy by completing a portfolio of evidence and written statements as to the ways higher education teachers meet the approved professional standards (HEA 2009). I recommend the FE sector adopts a similar programme.

Employing occupational experts

The practice of employing occupational experts with the assumption they will be able to teach because of their subject expertise, needs to cease. There is an argument for a lighter touch when employing guest speakers, or teachers who teach less than three hours per week not being required to pursue a fully recognised teaching qualification. Unlike newly qualified teachers in the UK compulsory sector, new

FE teachers are not required to undertake a probationary year by means of completing formal training. I recommend colleges employ trainee teachers with more emphasis on a work based learning model, supported by qualified ITT tutors and subject specialist mentors to support new FE teachers through the process of ITT.

Professional life cycle

The current system of ITT in FE lacks a professional life cycle – from initial training to lifelong development. The EU Commission (2007) argue that the very best of ITT cannot provide teachers with the skills and knowledge for lifelong learning. I concluded, not just from my own experiences as a practising teacher, but also from the results of this observation and transcripts, that FE teaching is uniquely demanding on new FE Teachers. Judgement of and confirmation of new FE teachers' identity is realised through them achieving the award. As part of the formal training, new FE teachers are observed teaching in class for approximately fifty minutes per session. The total amount of observation time is seven hours over two years. The average teaching workload for the participants was 845 hours per year (pro rata) totalling 1690 hours of formal teaching practice. 0.4% is formally observed by mentors and ITT staff. Participants felt the work of a teacher should be reviewed and judged not on what they do during lesson observations, but on their ability to help students realise their career aspirations and the ability of students to become independent and effective learners. This emerging conclusion provides further reinforcement for new FE teachers to establish a partnership between themselves, (recognising and responding to their multiple identities) the college and their students. FE student evaluations of classroom teaching were often obscured by some levels of dissatisfaction/dislike of the teacher.

Employment conditions

Comparisons of employment conditions between the compulsory teaching sector and the FE sector highlights an inequality between the two sectors. There is a disparity between the sectors in terms of teachers' salaries, workloads and the structure and content and rigor of ITT programmes.

The McKinsey (2007) report highlights the ingredients to elevate the professional standing and increase the calibre of teachers through higher pay and higher social status. Improving the working conditions of further education teachers would help FE teachers associate their professional identity with the FE sector and FE colleges. One conclusion gained from this study is the re-professionalisation of FE teaching could be achieved by removing bureaucratic management systems which promote a culture of miss trust. The audit culture adopted by FE colleges was a feature of the participants' job dissatisfaction and a demotivating factor.

Other factors adding to inequality in ITT within the UK education system was the decreasing level of public funding. This was considered by the participants as significant, affecting the quality of provision in a negative way.

Heavy workloads and work related stress was a continuous issue raised by some participants and the reason for two participants withdrawing from FE teaching. I conclude and recommend student FE teachers' workloads be managed, considering the possibility of teacher burnout and early withdrawal from the FE teaching profession. I recommend student FE teachers lessons and formal contact with FE students is capped at 16 hours per week whilst student FE teachers are in training.

The inclusion of the ways FE teachers are able to manage conflict and student behaviour/misbehaviour in a revised FE ITT programme would help to improve the quality of the college working environment and raise the level of job satisfaction. In response to the raise of litigation in further education, an awareness of educational law highlighting the rights and responsibilities of FE students, FE teachers and FE colleges could prevent or reduce the increasing number of claims.

Summary: Contribution to Knowledge

Summarising my thesis, the contribution to knowledge is in the area of FE teacher training and the sociological re-conceptualisation of the pedagogical approaches to FE teaching and supporting new FE teachers.

This has been achieved by observing and analysing the experiences and contributions of new and unqualified FE Teachers throughout the two years of formal ITT. This group of twenty-two participants are the first to make a recorded contribution to the concept of change and managing multiple professional identities within the context of FE teaching.

These are the best and worst times for FE teachers. The changes outlined in Chapter 1 and the new challenges facing the FE sector, societal changes in technology, political systems, social attitudes and the ever-changing student/teacher relationships and expectations frustrate the teacher education process. Teacher knowledge more than effort is increasingly important in the teaching world. Student obedience to teacher authority can no longer be assumed, and although there is comprehensive sociological literature about the changing world, little exists about FE teaching. I emphasise the importance of engaging the students' minds and emotions.

Understanding the ways new FE teachers help FE students realise their own aspirations is gained through the FE teachers' changing multiple professional identity from vocational expert to qualified educator whilst retaining and using elements of their previous professional identity.

I claim learning is a form of relative and permanent change in a person, a key aspect of identity formation. There is conflicting literature about whether a person's identity affects their behaviour. The results from this study suggest student FE teachers' professional identity does affect their professional behaviours and attitudes. Student FE teachers unconsciously move between multiple identities and adapt their behaviour according to the situation. A revised FE ITT programme should recognise a potential role conflict between the student FE teacher's previous occupation and that of an FE teacher when constructing a new professional identity.

The augmentation of roles and management of multiple professional identities of FE teachers should be included in the formal aspect of reflective practice and also be encompassed within the core of FE ITT. Although relevant for those teaching vocational and professional subjects, it is a model academic teachers should also adopt. Realising the ways FE teachers move between roles and professional identities will help teachers to recognise and capture learning opportunities often missed by the rigor of a formal and structured approach to FE teaching.

Results from this study suggest there is a need for FE ITT to focus on work-based learning as a result of changing government polies and priorities. An awareness of educational law should be included within the FE ITTT curriculum, in response to possible future litigations against teachers.

A new methodology including the development of evidence and impact-based reflective practice and reflectivity will provide opportunities for new practitioners to apply such methodologies in their own teaching, and help FE students realise their full potential and career aspirations. Vocational and professional FE teachers applying a new methodology of reflection, including experiences and knowledge of previous but related occupations, will help to improve the relevance and quality of FE teaching.

On re-establishing professional identity and professional trust, this study reveals the value of formal qualifications and national registration with an appropriate independent professional institution. The introduction of formal training and qualifications for FE teacher educators and subject specialist mentors will help to improve the quality of learning of student FE teachers and that of the FE students.

Parity of pay and conditions with other teaching professionals needs to be addressed, removing the apparent inequality.

Directions for Further Research

Many further areas of future study have been raised by this research. There is potential for further developing areas of new research in the area of FE teaching. Having acknowledged three different streams of initial teacher training for FE teachers, the benefits of a revised ITT curriculum and the formal registration of all new FE teachers, the next step is to consider the role of experienced FE teachers by encouraging or legislating to accommodate the professional upgrading and upskilling of FE teacher qualifications using the three streams of FE teaching.

Linked to the topic of teacher professionalism in FE there is further potential to examine the role of the FE teacher educators and subject specialist mentors. In seeking explanations of the combined role of the teacher and the tutor, and the informality of the augmented roles, further investigation is needed to understand the complexity. I made reference to the sociology of becoming an FE teacher; there is scope for further empirical study investigating college managers, thinking about the future FE provision.

In Durkheimian terms, each supporting professional has an essential function within the wider context of FE. Augmenting theoretical perspectives with experiences may inform future educational criteria. In light of the way FE teachers operate as agents of change within the context of a variety of learning cultures inspired by Durkheim's philosophy of functionalism and education is beyond the scope of this study. I conclude there is scope for future study in this area.

The continuous review of the research process revealed new areas for possible research, for example how higher education programmes are delivered in FE colleges and how the constraints and challenges affect the quality of provision.

The functions of college leaders and governing bodies could also be explored as a result of this study, examining the potential to extend formal qualifications and registration.

Both lines of possible enquiry could prove useful in terms of making further improvements to FE teaching.

Appendices

    A.   **Presentation of proposed research activity and ethical consent**

    B.   **Participant consent form**

    C.   **Sample fieldwork sheet**

    D. **Participant profile**

    E. **Poster presentations and presentation of emerging themes**

    F. **Questionnaire one**

Appendix A

Are Further Education Teachers Agents of Change?

Research Proposal
Michael Hall
Anglia Ruskin University with
City College Norwich

Management of the Research

- Principal Investigator

  Michael Hall
  City College Norwich
  St Andrews House
  Norwich

  email michael.hall@student.anglia.ac.uk
  telephone 01603 773729

This research is supported by City College Norwich

Purpose and Value of this Research

- The results of research will enhance the quality of learning experiences of Further Education Student Teachers
- To improve student teacher retention rates
- To make a contribution to knowledge by discovering areas of best practice

Purpose and Value

- To make an informed judgement on the value of Post Compulsory Education in terms of adding value to the local, national and global societies.
- To challenge the current teaching of the qualities of *the good person.*
- There is limited evidence/research of the development of the young person and their acquisition of social skills.

1

Why You

- Two groups of Diploma in Teaching students
- 40 - 15 Participants
- New and exciting learning and teaching methodologies
- Opportunity to add value to initial teacher training
- Developing skills in the application of theoretical perspectives

Benefits for Participants

- Feedback from professional practice
- Enhanced reflection skills
- Improved learning experience
- Opportunity to shape the future of pastoral practice
- Opportunity to participate in new and exciting research
- Assessing the effectiveness of modern teaching
- Developing your students social skills
- Discovering the concept of the *good person*

Research Ethics

- No obligation to take part
- Participants identity protected
- The right to withdraw from the research without reason
- No consequences
- Confidentially
- Sensitive data
- Safeguarding
- Criminality

Research Methods

- Classroom observation (see the common inspection framework)
- Concept of triangulation
- Self completion questionnaire
- Group interviews
- Individual interviews
- Discussion boards

Research Questions

Combination of Research methods

2

213

What happens to the Results

- All field study papers are stored in a secure office
- Electronic data will be stored on a stand alone computer
- Backup disks are stored in a secure office   Data is encrypted
- Results from the study will be shared with the supervisory team not your line manager or subject Mentor unless you wish to do so
- Could be published
- Kept in accordance the principles of the data protection act 1998

Risk Assessment

- Low risk activity
- Managing workloads
- Stress associated with lesson observation
- If things go wrong

Eight Principles of the Data Protection Act 1998

- Fairly and lawfully processed
- Processed for limited purposes
- Adequate, relevant and not excessive
- Accurate and up to date
- Not kept for longer than is necessary
- Processed in line with your rights
- Secure
- Not transferred to other countries without adequate protection

Quality Assurance

- The University and College are committed to providing high quality service provision.

- If you have any concerns about the research please Contact

  Anglia Ruskin University
  Chelmsford Campus
  Rivermead
  Chelmsford
  Essex

Anglia Ruskin University

Participant Consent Form

NAME OF PARTICIPANT: _____

Title of the project: **The Teacher as an Agent of Change**

Main investigator and contact details:

Michael Hall

I agree to take part in the above research. I have read the Participant Information Sheet which is attached to this form/I attended the participant briefing meeting on ********
(a copy of the presentation can be found in the VLE www.ccn.ac.uk/blackkboard/dtlls/research)

I understand what my role will be in this research, and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

I understand that I am free to withdraw from the research at any time, for any reason and without prejudice.

I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded.

I am free to ask any questions at any time before and during the study.

I have been provided with a copy of this form and the Participant Information Sheet.

Data Protection: I agree to the University[1] processing personal data which I have supplied. I agree to the processing of such data for any purposes connected with the Research Project as outlined to me*

Name of participant (print)………………………….Signed……………….….Date………………

Name of witness (print)……………………………...Signed…………….…..…. Date………………

YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS FORM TO KEEP

If you wish to withdraw from the research, please complete the form below and return to the main investigator named above.

Title of Project:

I WISH TO WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY

Signed: _____   Date: _____

---

[1] "The University" includes Anglia Ruskin University and its partner colleges

Indicator	Research Question One	Research Question Two	Research Question Three	Research Question Four
Descriptive Introduction				
Teaching Methods				
Student activity				
Description of relevant data				
Reflections				
Interpretation				
closing reflections				

Please complete the following questions and return to Michael Hall.

Section One : General Information.

Age	Under 25	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-51	60 +

Question One: Gender (to which you Identify yourself with)

Question Two: Teaching /Subject Area

Vocational	Professional Courses	Academic

Question Three: Highest Qualification

Qualification level *(Your highest academic award)*	NQV3	HND/HNC	Degree	Post Graduate Qualifications

Question Three: Weekly Work Activities

Hours spent teaching per week	
Hours spent preparing for teaching	
Hours spent on administrative duties	

Please consider the Feedback you received throughout your ITT programme

Person providing the feedback	Frequency of feedback							
	Never	Less than once in two years	Once in two years	Once in a year	Twice in a year	Three or more times per year	Monthly	More than once a month
Head of School								
Teacher Education Tutor								
Subject Mentor								
External Examiner								

Question Four: Frequency of Feedback

Question Five: Importance given to this element of feedback

Feedback area	Importance given to this element of feedback			
	Not Considered	Considered with Low Importance	Considered with Moderate Importance	Considered with High Importance
Students' results				
Students' retention rate				
Students' Success rate				
Students' feedback on teaching				
Lesson observation results				
How well works within the team				
Innovation in teaching				
Responsive to change				
Subject knowledge				
Subject pedagogy				
Teaching students with special needs				
Teaching gifted and talented students				
Differentiated teaching practices				
Additional activities (trips and visits)				

Question Six: Impact on Professional Practice

	No change	A Small Change	A Moderate Change	A large Change
Classroom management				
Knowledge of teaching subject				
Pedagogic knowledge				
Personal development/action planning				
Teaching students with special needs				
Teaching gifted and talented students				
Managing challenging behaviour				
Attitude to change				
Promoting equal opportunity				
Improving students results				
Developing strategies to improve student retention				

Section Three: Perspective on Teaching and Learning

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Good Teachers are able to solve problems				
Teachers should decide on teaching and learning activities				
A teachers role is to facilitate learning				
Teaching and learning should focus on real life situations				
The quality of students learning depends on how much background knowledge they have				
Students should be allowed to think of solutions before teachers show them how to solve them				
Good student achievement means continuous improvement				
A quiet teaching area is needed for effective learning				
Student study and reasoning skills are more important than specific curriculum content				

Question Seven: Personal Opinions

Comments

Question Eight: Level of Job satisfaction

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I am satisfied with my job				
I make a difference to the lives of my students				
The most difficult students make good progress				
Students appreciate my teaching skills				
I am trusted by college managers				
I can get through to all students				
Teachers are respected by students				
Teachers are trusted by the wider community				
Teachers in my team get on well				
Teacher training stresses the importance of student well being				
Additional student support is provided by teachers				

Comments

Appendix F

Appendix G

FURTHER EDUCATION
TEACHERS AS AGENTS OF
CHANGE

Michael Hall   Faculty of Education

Introduction

➤ To carry out an Ethnography
➤ Context – Further and Higher Education College
➤ Participants – Student Teachers
➤ Methodology
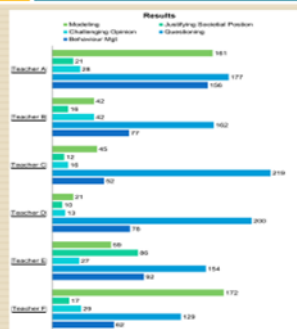➤ Results from Pilot study
➤ Next steps
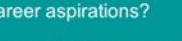
Research Questions

➤ In what ways do further education teachers help the students to achieve their career aspirations?
➤ How do the teachers reflect professionalism and identity to their students?
➤ How do teachers construct their personal professional identities?

Methodology and Philosophy

- Interpretive Paradigm
- Qualitative –
  Quantitative -
  Qualitative
- Ethnography
- Group and Individual
  interviews
- Questionnaires

Results from the Pilot Study

The graph below reports the results
from the pilot study:
Six Trainee Teachers observed in their
teaching roles for three hours.

The data shows the behaviour and
actions of the teacher (expressed in
quantitative terms).

Next Steps

- Further development of the research
  questions
- Ethnography and or case study
- Data capture

References and Bibliography

Abrahamson, M. (1967) *The Professional in the Organisation.* Chicago: Rand McNally.

Aniley, P. and Baily, B. (1997) *The Business of Learning: Staff and Student Experiences of Further Education in the 1990s*. London: Cassell.

Ashford, B. and Saks, A. (1996) Socialization Tactics: Longitudinal Effects on Newcomer Adjustment*, Academy of Management Journal*, 39, pp149-178.

Ashton, R. D., Deaux, K. and McLaughlin-Volpe, T. (2004) An Organizing Framework for Collective Identity: Articulation Significance of Multidimensionality, *Psychological Bulletin*, 130, pp80-114.

Askarov, A. and Chong, S. (2012) Learning is Change in Knowledge: Knowledge-Based Security for Dymanic Policies, *Computer Security Foundations Symposium*, June 2012, pp308-322.

Australian Charter for the Professional Learning of Teachers and School Leaders (2010) *The Essential Guide to Professional Learning: Leading Culture* [online]. Available at http://infed.org/mobi/what-is-pedagogy/ (accessed 29 March 2012).

Archer, M. S. (2003) *Structure, Agency and the Internal Conversation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Argyris, C. (1992) *On Organizational Learning*. Massachusetts: Blackwell.

Argyris, C. and Schon, D. A. (1974) *Theory in Practice: Increasing Professional Effectiveness*. San Francisco: Jossy-Bass.

Armenakis, A. (1992) Change Agent and Change Target Perspective. *Group and Organizational Management,*17 (3), pp242-248.

Aristotle (4th Century AD) cited in Pring, R. (2004) *Philosophy of Educational Research*, 2nd ed. London: Continuum.

Atkinson, P. and Hammersley, M. (2007) *Ethnography: Principles in Practice.* London: Routledge.

Avalos, B. (2011) Teacher Professional Development in Teaching and Teacher Education over Ten Years, *Journal for Teaching and Teacher Education*, 12 (7), pp142-165.

Avis, J., Bathmaker, A., Kendal A. and Parsons, J. (2003) The Politics of Care: Emotional Labour and Trainee Further Education Lecturers, *Journal of Vocational Education and Training,* 56 (1), pp5-19.

Ayers, W. (2001) Representations of Teaching, *Teacher Education*, 16 (4), pp359-368.

Bailey, C. (2010) *Beyond the Present and the Particular, A Theory of Liberal Education.* London: Routledge.

Ball, S. and Goodson, I. (1985) *Teachers' Lives and Careers*. London: Falmer Press.

Ballou, D. and Podgursky, M. (1998) Teacher Recruitment and Retention in Public and Private Schools, *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 17 (3), pp393-417.

Barcelona European Council of 10 July 2008 on Improving the Quality of Teacher Education.

Bassy, M. (2009) *Case Study Research in Educational Settings*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Bathmaker, A. (2007) The Impact of Skills for Life on Adult Basic skills in England: how should we interpret trends in participation and achievement? *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 26 (3), pp295-313.

Beard, D. (2002) cited in Troman, G. (2004) *Carers Under Stress: Teacher Adaptations at a Time of Intensive Reform.* Journal of Educational Change.

Becker, H. (1986) *Writing for Social Scientists.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Becker, H. (1992) Validating Self-Reports of the Constructivism of Teachers' Beliefs and Practices. *Paper presented at the American Education Research Association.* San Diego.

Beckett, H. and Hagar, P. (2002) Experiencing the Workplace: shaping worker identities through assessment, work and learning. *IFED*, 9, pp140-164.

Bedeian, M. (1993) *Management Laureates*. New York: Wiley.

Beerel, A. (2009) *Leadership and Change Management*. London: Sage.

Beijaard, D. (2000) Teachers Prior Experiences and Actual Perceptions of Professional Identity, Teachers and Teaching. *Theory and Practice,* 1, pp281-294.

Belbin, R. M. (1981) *Management Teams: Why they Succeed or Fail*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.

Bell, J. (2011) *Doing Your Research Project*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Bennett, N. and Desforges, R. (1985) cited in Wheldall, K. (1987) *The Behaviourist in the Classroom.* New York: Routledge.

BERA (2011) *Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research* [pdf]. Available at www.bera.ac.uk (accessed 20 June 2012).

Berger, P. and Luckman, T. (1966) *The Construction of Reality*: *A Treatise in the Sociology of Knowledge.* London: Penguin Press.

Bessant, J. and Tidd, J. (2011) *Innovation and Entrepreneurship*. London: John Wiley and Sons.

Bhattacharya, R. (1997) *Handbook of Trust Research*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Billig, S. (2007) International Research Conference on Service-Learning and Community Engagement, 7. Tampa, Flordia, July 2007.

Black, G. (2010) *The risk of 'going observationalist': negotiating the hidden dilemmas of being an insider participant observer* [pdf]. Available at www.sagepub.com (accessed 14 July 2012).

Blaxter, L., Highes, C. and Tight, K. (2001) *How to Research,* 2nd ed. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Bloom, D. (1988) The Role of Higher Education in Fostering the Personal Development of Teachers cited in Umar, A. (2006) Teacher Education Curriculum and the World of Work: new economic, social and professional imperatives for the twenty-first century. *National Institute for Curriculum Development*, pp59-71.

Bond, D., Dworet, R., and Boak, T. (1996) *Changing Research and Practice: Teachers Professionalism Identities and Knowledge.* London: Falmer Press.

Bourdieu, P. and Passeron, J. C. (1990) *The Logic of Practice*. London: Sage.

Boyatzis, R. E. (1998) *Transforming Qualitative Information: Thematic Analysis and Code Development.* Thousand Oaks, London: SAGE Publications.

Boyer, E. (1990) *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate.* The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

Bradburn, N. and Sudman, S. (2004) *Improving Interview Method and Question Design.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brady, H. and Collier, D. (2004) *Rethinking Social Inquiry: Diverse Tools and Shared Standards.* Lanham: Rowman and Littlefield.

Braun, V. and Clarke,V. (2006) *Qualitative Research in Psychology*. London: Taylor & Francis.

Brewer, M. B. and Hewstone, M.(ed.) (2004) *Self and Social Identity.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Brewer, R. and Hunter, A. (2006) *Foundations of Multi-Method Research*. London: Sage.

Bridges, E. M. (1992) Problem Based Learning for Administrators, University of Orgon. *Eric Clearing House on Educational Management,*p7.

Britzman, D. (1991*) Practice Makes Practice(Revised Ed.): A Critical Study of Learning to Teach*. Albany: State University Press.

Bromme, R.(1991) *Types of Knowledge and Professional Self-Concept.* Zeitschrift fur Padagik, 37, pp769-785.

Brookbank, A. and McGill, I. (1998) *Facilitating Reflective Learning in Higher Education.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Brookfield, S. and McGill, A. (1995) *Becoming a Critically Reflective Teacher.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brooks, J. and Brooks, M. (1993) *The Case for Constructivist Classrooms*. Virginia: Alexandria.

Brubaker, R. and Cooper, F. (2000) Beyond Identity. *Theory and Society*, 29, pp1-47.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2007) *Business Research Methods.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryk, A. (2010) Organising Schools for Improvement. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 91, pp23-30.

Buckly, A. (2000) Multi Cultural Reflection. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51 (2), pp143-148.

Burgess, R. (1998) *Ethnographies of Eating in an Urban Primary School*. The Social Science of Food Choice. London: Longman.

Caldwell, R. (2003) Models of Change Agency: A Fourfold Classification. *British Journal of Management,* 14, pp131-142.

Campbell, D. T. (1975) Degrees of Freedom and the Case Study. *Comparative Political Studies,* 8, pp178-191.

Campbell, K. Schwier, A., Kenny, R. (2007) *The Critical, Relational Practice Design in Higher Education: An Emerging Model of Change Agency.* London: Springer.

Carlson, N. (1991). *School Counselling Implementation and Survival Skills.* The School Counsellor, 39, pp30-34.

Carr, D. (2003) *Rival Conceptions of Practice in Education and Teaching*. Journal of Philosophy of Education.

Chickering, A. and Gamson, Z. (1987) Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education. *American Association for Higher Education*, 6, pp3-7.

Chiriac, E. (2009) *Learning for Professional Life: student teachers' and graduated teachers' views of learning, responsibility and collaboration*. Linköping: University Electronic Press.

Clark, P. (2005) cited in Buckler, S.,Wallman,N. (2016) *Your Dissertation in Education*. London: Sage.

Clarke, J. and Newman, J. (1997) *The Managerial State: Power, Politics and Ideology in the Remaking of the Welfare State*. London: Sage.

Clough, P. and Nutbrown, C. (2012) *A Students Guide to Methodology*. London: Sage.

Cochran-Smith, M. (2002) *Reporting on Teacher Quality: the Politic of Politics* [online]. Available at www.nctaf.org. (accessed 24 December 2011).

Coffield, F. (2007) *Just suppose teaching and learning became the first priority*[pdf]. Available from http://tlp.excellencegateway.org.uk (accessed 10July 2010).

Cohen, L. Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007) *Research Methods in Education*. London: Routledge.

Collis, J. and Hussey, C. (2009) *Business Research for Undergraduate and Postgraduate Students*. Bassinstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Collis, J. and Hussey, C. (2009) *Business Research for Undergraduate and Postgraduate Students*. Bassinstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Colly, H. James, D. Tedder, M., Diment, K. (2003) Learning is Becoming in Vocational and Training: Gender, Class and the Role of Vocational Habitus. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 55 (4), pp471-496.

Craig, J. and Fieschi, C. (2007) *Professionalism Futures for Teaching.* London: GTC.

Creswell, J. W. (2012) *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Creswell, J.W. (1998) *Quantitative Enquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among the Five Traditions.* California: Sage.

Cooley, C. H. (1918) cited in Huczynski, A. and Buchanan, D. (2013) *Organizational Behaviour.* London: Pearson.

Curtis, B. *et al,* (1988) A field study of the software design process for large system*. Communications of the ACM*, 11, pp1268-1287.

Curzon, L. B. (1992) *Teaching in Further Education*. London: Continuum.

Czaja, R. and Blair, J. (2005) *Designing Surveys*. London: Sage.

Czerniawska, A. (2009) cited in Briggs, D. (2010) *Management Consulting. A Guide for Students,* Cangage: Andover.

Danielewicz, J. (2001) *Teaching Selves: Identity, Pedagogy and Teacher Education.* New York: State University of New York Press.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1996) *The Right to Learn and the Advancement of Teaching: Research, Policy, and Practice for Democratic Education.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006) *Powerful Teacher Education: Lessons from Exemplary Programs*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Darling-Hammond, L. *et al.* (1989*). Redesigning Teacher Education: Opening the Door for New Recruits to Science and Mathematics Teaching*. Santa Monica: The RAND Corporation.

David, M. and Sutton, C. D. (2004) *Social Research: The Basics.* London: Sage.

Day, P. and Harris, K. (1997) *Down to Earth Vision: Community Based IT Initiatives and Social Inclusion*. London: IBM/CDF.

DeBono, E. (1985) *Six Thinking Hats: Essential Approach to Business*. London: Penguin.

Derwin, S. (1976) Research on Children Tutoring Children: A Critical Review. *Review of Educational Research*, 46, pp355-385.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (2003) *Strategies of Qualitative Data.* Sage: London.

Dewey, J. (1972) *Democracy and Education: An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.

Dey, I. (1993) *Qualitative Data Analysis. A User-Friendly Guide for Social Scientists*. London: Routledge.

DfES. (1998) *The Learning Age* [online]. Available from http://www.lifelonglearning.co.uk (accessed 29 April 2011).

DfES. (2006) *Leitch Review of Skills*, Prosperity for All in the Global eEonomy: world-class skills [online]. Available from www.lifelonglearning.co.uk/greenpaper (accessed 29 April 2011).

DfES. (2006) *Review of Higher Education* [online]. Available from https://www.gov.uk/government/latest?topics%5B%5D=higher-education (accessed 29 April 2011).

Dierkes, M. (2001) *Handbook of Organizational Learning and Knowledge*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dingue, R. (1976) cited in McCulloch, G. (2000) *The Politics of Professionalism: Teacher and the Curriculum*. London: Contiuum.

Dodge, L. and Kendall, M. E. (2004) Learning Communities. *Journal of College Teaching*, 52 (4), pp150-155.

Douwe, B. (2000) Reconsidering Research on Teachers' Professional Identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 20, pp107-128.

Doyle, W. (2010) How can we Improve School Discipline? *Educational Researcher*, 39, pp48-58.

Durkhiem, E. (1938) cited in Giddens, A. and Sutton, P. (2013) *Sociology*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. and Lowe, A. (2008) *Management Research: An Introduction*. London: Sage Publications.

Eckert, P. (2006) *Communities of Practice* [pdf]. Available from www.stanford.edu (accessed17 July 2011).

Edwards, D. and Mercer, N. (1987) *Common Knowledge: The Development of Understanding in the Classroom*. London: Routledge.

Einstein, A. (1879-1955) cited in Buckly, A. (2000) Multi Cultural Reflection. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51 (2), pp143-148.

Elliott, G. (1996) Educational Management and the Crisis of Reform in Further Education. *Journal of Education and Training*, 48, pp5-23.

Emirbayer, M. and Mische, N. (1998) Identity Formation, Agency, and Culture. *American Journal of Sociology,* 11, pp 89-96.

Eraut, M. (1994) *Developing Professional Knowledge and Competence.* London: Falmer.

Erikson, E. H. (1968) *Identity, Youth, and Crisis*. New York: Norton.

Evans, L. (2003) *Professionalism, Professionality and Professional Development*: University of Leeds.

Farber, B. A. (1991) *Crisis in Education: Stress and Burnout in the American Teacher*. San Francisco: Jossy-Bass.

Freppon, P. (2001) *What it Takes to be a Teacher: The Role of Personal and Professional Development.* New York: Heinemann.

Fenstrarmacher, G. (2009) *Approaches to Teaching*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Fessler, R. (1985) *The Teacher Career Cycle*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Fisher, R. (2003) *Teaching Thinking: Philosophical Discussion in the Classroom,* 2nd ed. London: Consortium.

Flyvbjerg, B. (1998) *Rationality and Power: Democracy in Practice*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Flyvbjerg, B. (2006) Five Misunderstandings About Case Study Research. *Qualitative Inquiry,* 2 pp219-245.

Foucault, M. (1980) *Power/Knowledge:Selected Interviews and Other Writings 1972-1977*. New York: Pantheon Books.

Fullan, M. (2007) *The New Meaning of Educational Change*. London: Routledge.

Furlong, J. (2000) *Teacher Education in Transition: Re-forming Teaching Professionalism*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Furlong, J. (2005) *New Labour and teacher education: the end of an era.* Oxford Review of Education, 33, pp119-134.

Freidson, E. (2001) *Professionalism: The Third Logic.* London: Polity Press.

Frowe, I. (2005) Professional Trust. *British Journal of Educational Studies,* 53, pp34-53.

Gardner, H. (2004) *Changing Minds*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Garvin, D. (2003) *Learning in Action: Making the Case for Professional Education.* New York: Harvard Business Press.

Gee, J. (2001) Identity as an Analytical Lens for Research in Education cited in Secada, W.G. (1985) (ed.) Review of Research in Education. *American Research Association*, 25, pp99-115.

Geerring, J. (2011) What is a Case Study and What is it Good for*? American Political Science Review.*

Geetz, C. (2007) *The Interpretation of Cultures*. New York: Basic Books.

Gibbs, D. (1982) cited in Race, P. (1998) The Lecturer's Toolkit: A Practical Guide to Learning, Teaching & Assessment. Oxon: Routledge Falmer.

Giddens, A. and Sutton, P. (2013) *Sociology*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Glesson, D. and Shain, A., (1999) *The Performing School: Managing Teaching and Learning in a Performance Culture.* London: Roultedge.

Goffman, E. (1963) cited in Harlembos, M. and Holburn, M. (2004) *Sociology: Themes and Perspectives*, 6th ed. London: Collins.

Goleman, D. (2001) *Emotional Intelligence* [online]. Available at http://www.danielgoleman.info/topics/emotional-intelligence/ (accessed 24 April 2013).

Gomm, R. (2003) *Social Research Methodology: A Critical Introduction*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Gonczi, A. (1994) *Developing a Competent Workforce*. Adelaide: National Centre for Vocational Research.

Gray, D. E. (2004) *Doing Research in the Real World*. London: Sage.

Griffiths, R. (1998) cited in Maykut, P. and Moorehouse, R. (1994) *Beginning Qualitative Research: A Philosophical and Practical Guide.* London: Falmer Press.

Grinyer, A.(2001) The Anonymity of Research Participants: Assumptions, Ethics and Practicalities, *Social Science Update* [online]. Available at http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk (accessed 17 September 2011).

Groundwater, S. and Sachs, J. (1999) The Changing Landscape of Teacher Education in Australia.*Teaching and Teacher Education*, 15, pp 215-217.

Groundwater, S. and Sachs, J. (2002) The Activist Professional and the Reinstatement of Trust. *Cambridge Journal of Education,* 32, pp341-358.

Hagerty, S. (2000) Teaching as a Knowledge-Based Activity. *Oxford Review of Education*, 26, pp451-465.

Hammersley, M. and Atkinson, M. (2002) *Educational Research, Current Issues.* London: Sage.

Hammersley, M. and Atkinson, M. (1993) *Ethnography: Principles in Practice*. London: Routledge.

Hargreaves, A. (1994) *Changing Teachers, Changing Times: Teachers Work and Culture in the Postmodern Age.* York: Continuum.

Harlembos, M. and Holburn, M. (2004) *Sociology: Themes and Perspectives*, 6th ed. London: Collins.

Harris, L. R. and Massholder, M. (1990) A Model for Adaptive Problem Solving Applied to Natural Language Acquisition. *Technical Report Computer Science Dept.* Cornell University.

Heideman, R. and Burke. P. (1985.) *Career-Long Teacher Education*. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Helsby, G. (1999) *Changing Teacher's Work.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Henry, F. *et al* (1995) cited in Giddens, A. and Sutton, P. (2013) *Sociology*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Herda, E. A. (1999) *Research Conversations and Narrative: A Critical Hermeneutic Orientation in Participatory Inquiry.* London: Praeger.

Hergenhahn, B. R. and Olson, M. H. (1997) *Introduction to Theories of Learning.* London: Prentice Hall.

Hermanson, D. (2003) Make your Work more Visible – So it Can Have an Impact. *The American Auditors Report,* 27, [online]. Available from http://aaahq.org (accessed 29 November 2012).

Heron, J. (1996*) Co-operative inquiry: Research into the Human Condition*. London: Sage.

Higgs, J. Cherry, N. Mackin, R. and Ajjawi, R. (Eds.) (2010) *Researching Practice: A Discourse on Qualitative Methodologies.* Rotterdam: Sense Publications.

Higher Education Ordnance (1993) *Transforming Higher Education: A Comparative Study.* Dordrecht: Springer.

Hillage, J. *et al* (1998) cited in Hughes, C. (2003) Disseminating Qualitative Research in Educational Settings. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Hirst, P. H. (1966) cited in Briggs, D. (2017) *Philosophy in Educational Research: Epistemology, Ethics, Politics and Quality*. Gewerbestrasse: Springer.

HM Government (2010) Office of National Statistics [online]. Available at http://unistats.direct.gov.uk/, 2010 (accessed 14 March 2011).

HM Government (2010) Prosperity *for All in the Global Economy - World Class Skills* [online]. Available at https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/.pdf (accessed 13 March 2011).

Hogg, A. and Terry, D. (2001) *Social Identity Processes in Organisational Contexts*. Hove: Taylor and Francis.

Hogg, M. A. (1996) Intergroup Processes, Group Structure and Social Identity cited in W. P. Robinson (ed.) *Social Groups and Identities: Developing the Theory of Henri Tajfe.* London: Butterworth Heinemann.

Hodkinson, H. (2004) Improving Schoolteachers Workplace Learning. *Research Papers in Education*, 2 pp109-131.

Hodkinson, P. (1997) Neo-Fordism and Teacher Professionalism. *Teacher Development*, 1 (1), pp60-82.

Hood, C. (1995) The New Public Management in the1980s. *Organisations and Society*, 20 pp93-107.

Holstien, J. and Gubrium, J. (2003) *Inside Interviewing: New Lenses, New Concerns*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Huczynski, A. and Buchanan, D. (2013) *Organizational Behaviour.* London: Pearson.

Hoy, W. (2003) *Studies in Leading and Organizing Schools*. New York: Information Age Publishing.

Hoyle, E. and John, P. (1995) *Professional Knowledge and Professional Practice*. London: Cassell.

Huberman, M. A. (1993) *The Lives of Teachers*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Huberman, M. A. (2001). The Professional Life Cycle of Teacher*s*. *Teachers College Record* [online]. Available at http://ihjournal.com (accessed 13 March 2013).

Huddleston, P. and Unwin, L. (2002) *Teaching and Learning in Further Education*. London: Routledge Falmer.

Hunter, J. (2006) *Meta-analysis: Cumulating Research Findings Across Studies*. Beverly Hills: Sage.

IFL. (2007) *Professional Formation* [online]. Available from www.ifl.ac.uk (accessed 24 May 2011).

Jackson, N. (2004) Developing the Concept of Metalearning. *Journal of Innovations in Education and Teaching International,* 41, pp142-157.

James, D. and Wahlberg, M. (2007) The limits of tutor intervention: understanding improvement in a cultural view of Further Education learning and teaching. *Educational Review,* 59 (4), pp469-482, [on line]. Available from: http://eprints.uwe.ac.uk/10432 (accessed 17 July 2011).

Jarvis, P. (1995) *Adult and Continuing Education: Theory and Practice*, 2nd ed, London: Routledge.

Jenkins, R. (2008) *Social Identity*, 3rd ed. Oxon: Routledge.

Jick, T. (1979) *Qualitative Methodology* [pdf]. Available from http://www.jstor.org (accessed 16 July 2011).

Juran, J. (1985) *Quality Control Handbook*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Kant, I. (1804) cited in Pole, C. and Morrison, M. (2003) *Ethnography for Education*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Kanuha, V.K. (2000) Being Native Versus Going Native: Conducting Social Work Research as an Insider. *Social Work*, 45 (5), pp439-447.

Kennedy, D. (1997) *Academic Duty*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Kennedy, H. (1997) *Learning Works, Widening Participation in Further Education* [pdf]. Available from https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/9063796.pdf (accessed 24 May 2011).

Kerby, A. (1991) *Narrative and the Self*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

Kester-Baun (1977) cited in Higgs, J. Cherry, N., Mackin, R. and Ajjawi, R. (Eds) (2010) *Researching Practice: A Discourse on Qualitative Methodologies.* Rotterdam: Sense Publications.

Klien, H. and Myers, M. (1999) A Set of Principles for Conducting and Evaluating Interpretive Field Studies in Information System*s*. *MIS Quarterly*, 23, pp67-94.

Kolb, D. (1982) cited in Race, P. (1998) *The Lecturer's Toolkit: A Practical Guide to Learning, Teaching & Assessment*, Oxon: Routledge Falmer.

Kompf, P. Dworet, D. and Boak, T. (1996) *Changing Research and Practice: Teachers Professionalism, Identities and Knowledge*. London: Falmer Press.

Kromer, K. (1992) Teaching Information on Medical Prescriptions Using Two Instructive Feedback Schedules. *Journal of Behavioural Education,* 8, pp37-61.

Korthagen, F. A. J., and Kessels, J. P. A. M. (1999) Linking Theory and Practice: Changing the Pedagogy of Teacher Education. *American Educational Research Association*, 28, pp 4-17.

Kozulin, K. (Ed.) (1985) *Vygotsky's (1960) Educational Theory in Cultural Context*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Knowles, M. (1980) *The Modern Practice of Adult Education: From Pedagogy to Andragogy.* New York: The Adult Education Company.

Lacan, A. (1979) cited in Kehm, B. and Teichler, U. (2013) *The Academic Profession in Europe.* London: Springer.

Lapan, D. and Quartaroli, T. (2009) *Research Essentials: An Introduction to Designs and Practices.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

LaPlay (1829) cited in Stake, R. (1995) *The Art of Case Study Research*. London: Sage.

Lee, C. (2011) *The Effect of Perceived Trust on Electronic Commerce: Shopping Online for Tourism Products and Services in South Korea*. Journal of Tourism Management.

Lerner, J. (2002) Innovation Policy and the Economy. *The University of Chicago University Press*, 2, pp1-49.

Lewin, R. (1947) *Force Field Analysis*. New York: Harper Row.

Lincoln, Y. and Guba, E. (1986) *Trustworthiness and Authenticity in Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Lindstorm, P. H. and Speck, M. (2004) *The Principal as Professional Development Leader*. California: Corwin Press.

Lisbon European Council of 24 March 2000 on *Employment, Economic Reform, and Social Cohesion.*

Lindstoom, P. (1983) *The Principal as Professional Development Leader.* London: Sage.

Lonergan, B. (1957) cited in Hagerty, S. (2000) Teaching as a Knowledge-Based Activity. *Oxford Review of Education,* 26, pp451-465.

Lorde, A. (1984) *The Master's Tools Will Never Dismantle the Master's House*. Freedom, CA: Crossing Press.

LSC. (2003) *Funding Guidance for Further Education*[pdf]. Available from www.lsc.uk.org (accessed 24 December 2011).

Lucas, N. (2004) The FENTO National Standards, compulsory teaching qualifications and the growing regulation of FE college teachers. *Journal of Further and Higher Education,* 28, pp35-55.

Lucas, N. (2007) Rethinking Initial Teacher Training for Further Education Teachers: From a Standards-Led Approach to a Knowledge-Based Approach. *Teacher Education*, 12(1), pp1-17.

Lynch, S. and Hanson, A. (2004) *Developing Cross Cultural Competence*. London: Guildford Press.

Maslow, A. (1952) cited in Mullins, L.C. (2009) *Organisational Behaviour* Harlow: Prentice Hall.

Mason, J. (1996) *Qualitative Researching*. London: Sage.

Matza, D. (1999) *Becoming Deviant*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Maykut, P. and Moorehouse, R. (1994) *Beginning Qualitative Research: A Philosophical and Practical Guide.* London: Falmer Press.

Mayo, E. (1924) cited in Mullins, L.C. (2009) *Organisational Behaviour.* Harlow: Prentice Hall.

McAllister, M. (2007) *Gentle Interruptions: Transformative Approaches to Clinical Teaching.* Journal of Nursing Education, 46, pp304-312.

McCall, C. C. (2009) *Transforming Thinking: Philosophical Inquiry in the Primary and Secondary Classroom.* Abingdon: Routledge.

McCormick, M., O'Connor, E. Cappella, E. and McClowry, S., (2012) *Teacher-Child Relationship and Academic Achievement: A Multi-Level Prosperity Score Model Approach.* Journal of School Psychology, 4, p271.

McGill, I. and Beaty, L. (1992) Accrediting Work-Based Learning: Action Learning – A Model for Empowerment. *Journal of Management Development*,13, pp41-52.

McCulloch, G. (2000) *The Politics of Professionalism: Teacher and the Curriculum.* London: Continuum.

Measor, L. and Sikes, P. (1992) *Gender and Schools.* London: Cassells.

May, T. (1993) *Social Research, Methods and Processes.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Menter, I. (2010) *Teachers: formation, training and identity: a literature review.* Newcastle: Creativity, Culture and Education.

Merleau-Ponty, F. (2006) *A Guide for the Perplexed.* London: Continuum.

Merriam, S. B. (2009) *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation.* San Francisco: Jossy-Bass.

Meyer, J. and Norton, L. (2004) *Reflection in Learning and Professional Development.* London: Routledge.

Mezirow, J. (1995) *Transformative Dimensions of Adult Learning.* San Francisco: Jossy-Bass.

Miles, M. B. and Huberman, A. M. (1994) *Qualitative Data Analysis, an Expanded Sourcebook.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Millett, A. (1999) *Professionalism, Pedagogy and Leadership in our Schools: Raising Educational Standards.* City of York Annual Education Lecture, 11 February 1999.

Morgan, D. (1998) Practical Strategies for Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Methods: Applications to Health Research. *Qualitative Health Research*, 8, pp362-376.

Morrison and Galloway (1996) cited in Pole, C. and Morrison, M. (2003) *Ethnography for Education.* Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Morse, J. *et al.*(2002) Verification Strategies for Establishing Reliability in Qualitative Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 1, pp1-19.

Mosko, M. (2001) Syncretistic Persons, Agency and Personhood. *Australian Journal of Anthropology,* 12, pp 259-274.

Mouly, J. (1978) *Educational Research: The Art and Science of Investigation.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Myers, M. (2009) *Qualitative Research in Business and Management*. London: Sage.

Neito, S. (1998) *From Claiming Hegemony to Share Space: Creating Community in Multicultural Courses.* Albany: New York State Press.

Newby, P. (2010) *Research Methods for Education*. Harlow: Pearson.

Nias, J. (1989) *Primary Teachers Talking: A Study of Teaching as Work*. London: Routledge.

Nobel-Rogers (2010) *The Future of Teacher Education*[online]. Available from www.nap.org.uk (accessed 29 April 2011).

NRDC. (2006) *A literature review of research on teacher education in adult literacy, numeracy and ESOL*[pdf]. Available from www.nrdc.uk.org (accessed 24 December 2011).

Oakeshott, M. (1962) *Rationality and Politics*. London: Methuen.

Oancea, A. (2003) *Criticisms of Educational Research: Key Topics and Levels of Analysis*. Paper given at the BERA Conference, September 2003.

O'Connell, A. (2008) *Multi Level Modelling of Educational Data*. Charlotte: Information Age Publishing.

Orr, J. E. (1996) *Talking about Machines: An Ethnography of a Modern Job*. London: Cornell University Press.

Osbourn, J. (2000) Teaching students "ideas-about-science": five dimensions of effective practice. *Science Education*, (88) pp655-682.

Osterwalder,Y. and Pigneur,Y. (2010*) A Handbook for Visionaries, Game Changers and Challengers*. London: Wiley.

Ovans, A. (2015) What Resilience Means and Why it Matters. *Harvard Business Review* [online]. Available at https://hbr.org/2015/01/what –resilience-means-and-why-it matters (accessed 10 July 2017).

Patton, M. (2009) *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods*. London: Sage.

Pavlina, S. (2006) *Intelligent Risk Taking* [online]. Available at ://www.stevepavlina.com/blog/2006/01/intelligent-risk-taking/ (accessed 6 June 2013).

Pawson, R. (1997) *Realistic Evaluation*. London: Sage.

Peled. R, and Leichtritt, K. (2002) *The Ethics of Qualitative Social Work Research* [online]. Available from www.sagepub.com (accessed 15 July 2011).

Peters, R. S. (1965) *Ethics and Education*. London: Urwin.

Petty, G. (2004) *Teaching Today,* 4th ed. Cheltenham: Nelson Thornes.

Pole, C. and Morrison, M. (2003) *Ethnography for Education*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Powney, J. and Watts, M. (1987) *Interviewing in Educational Research*. London: Routledge.

Power, M. (2003) Evaluating the Audit Explosion. *Journal of Law and Policy*, 25, pp185-202.

Pring, R. (2004) *Philosophy of Educational Research*, 2nd ed. London: Continuum.

Race, P. (2001) *The Lecturer's Toolkit*, 2nd ed. London: Kogan Page.

Ragin, C. C. (1992) *Casing and the Process of Social Inquiry*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Randal, K and Brady, N. (1997) Managerialism and Professionalism in the Cinderella Service. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training,* 49, pp121-140.

Reber, A. S. (1985) *The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology*. California: Viking.

Reeves, T. (1994) *Managing Effectively: Developing Yourself Through Experience*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Reiff, M. (2010) Healthcare: The Meaning of Professionalism [online]. Available at http://www.helium.com (accessed 9 April 2012).

Roach, A. (1992) Developing an Integrated Career and Competency Framework for Diabetic Nursing. *Journal of Diabetes Nursing*, 15 (2), February 2011, p4.

Robson, J. (2006) *Teacher Professionalism in Further and Higher Education: Challenges to Culture and Practice*. Routledge: London.

Robson, C. (2007) *Real World Research*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Robson, J. and Bailey, B. (2009) 'Bowing from the heart': an investigation into discourses of professionalism and the work of caring for students in further education. *British Educational Research Journal,* 35(1), pp99-117.

Rogoff, B. (1990) *Apprenticeship in Thinking*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Ronald, J. and Wicks,T. (1996) *A Conversational Model for Qualitative Research: A Case Study of Clergy and Religious Knowledge.* Australian Academic & Research Libraries.

Ruby, J. (1980) Exposing Yourself: Reflexivity, Anthropology, and Film. *Semiotica,* 30, pp153-179.

Ruyter, K. (2009) *Research Ethics History* [online]. Available at http://www.etikkom.no (Accessed 16 March 2012).

Sachs, J. (1999) *Rethinking the Practice of Teacher Professionalism*. London: Falmer.

Sachs, J. (2003) *Towards an Activist View of Teacher Professionalism*. Paper presented at the AARE Annual Conference, Adelaide.

Sahlberg, P. (2009) Rethinking Accountability in a Knowledge Society. *Journal of Educational Change,* 11, pp45-61.

Sandelowski, S. and Barroso, G. (2002) On Quantizing. *Journal of Mixed of Mixed Methods Research*, 3, pp37-46.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2009*) Research Methods for Business Students*, 5th ed. London: FT Prentice Hall.

Schmaus, W. (1994) *Durkheim's Philosophy of Science and the Sociology of Knowledge*. London: University of Chicago Press.

Schon, D. A. (1983) *The Reflective Practitioner*. New York: Basic Books.

Shacklock, I. and Smyth, J. (1998) *Being Reflexive in Critical Educational and Social Research*. London: Flamer.

Schwier, R. A., Campbell, K. and Kenny, R. F. (2007) Instructional Designers: Perceptions of their Agency: Tales of Change and Community. In M. Keppell (Ed*.) Instructional Design: Case Studies in Communities of Practice*, pp1-18. Hershey, PA: Idea Group Publishing.

Scott, B. (1999) Trust, Trustworthiness, and Trust Propensity: a meta-analytic test of their unique relationships with risk taking and job performance. *American Psychological Association*, 92, pp909-927.

Segesten, K. (2002) *The Professional Identity of the Nurse: Concept Analysis and Development*. US Libraries of Medicine.

Shain, F. and Gleeson, D. (1999) Managing Ambiguity: A Case Study of Middle Managers in Further Education. *The Sociological Review,* 47 (3), pp461-490.

Shulman, L. (1987) Knowledge and Teaching: Foundations of the New Reform [pdf]. California. Available at https://people.ucsc.edu/~ktellez/Shulman.pdf (accessed 23 March 2012).

Shaw, R. (2009) *Finding Qualitative Research: an evaluation of search strategies*. BMC Medical Research Methodology: London.

Sheldon, T. (1998) The UK Cochrane and the NHS R&D Programme, *Health Economics*[online]. Available at http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com (accessed 29 January 2012).

Shore, C. and Wright, S. (2000) *Coercive accountability: the rise of audit culture in higher education.* London: Routledge.

Siegel, H. (1988) *Educating Reason: Rationality, Critical Thinking and Education*. New York: Routledge.

Silcock, P. (2002)Accelerated learning: a revolution in teaching method? *International Journal of Primary, Elementary and Early Years Education,* 3, pp48-52.

Silverman, D. (1993) *Interpreting Qualitative Data: Methods for Analysing Talk, Text and Interaction.* London: Sage Publications.

Silverman, D. (2011) *Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.

Skeggs, B. (2001) Feminist Ethnography cited in P. Atkinson *et al* (2003) Handbook of Ethnography, pp426-442. London: Sage.

Skelton, A. (2004) Understanding Teaching Excellence in Higher Education: A Critical Evaluation of the National Teaching Fellowship Scheme. *Studies in Higher Education*, 29 (4), pp451-468.

Stake, R. (1995) *The Art of Case Study Research*. London: Sage.

Stenback-Hult, B. (1996*).* Intuition – A Problematic Form of Knowledge in Nursing. *Scandinavian Journal of Caring Science,* 10, pp234-241.

Steward. A (2009) *Continuing Your Professional Development in Lifelong Learning*. London: Network Continuum.

Stiebelbauer, S. (1992) *Why we want to be teachers: new teachers talk about the reasons for entering the profession.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. April 1992 .

Stjernberg, T. (1993) *Organizational Innovations in a Long-Term Perspective: legitimacy and souls-of-fire as critical factors of change and viability.* London: Human Relations.

Stronach, I. *et al* (2002) Towards an Uncertain Politics of Professionalism: Teacher and Nurse Identities in Flux. *Journal of Educational Policy*, 17, pp107-138.

Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. (1990) *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Technique.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Sudman, S. and Broadburn, N. (1982) *Asking Questions: A Practical Guide to Questionnaire Design*. San Francisco: Prentice Hall.

Tajfel, H. and Turner,J. C. (1979) An Integrative of Intergroup Conflict Theory cited in Austin, W. G. and Worchel, I. (Eds.) (1979) *The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations*. California: Brooks /Cole.

Talcott-Parsons, (1960) cited in Giddens, A. and Sutton, P. (2013) *Sociology*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Tasakkori, A. and Tedlie, C. (2010) *Handbook of Mixed Method Research.* London: Sage.

Taylor, F.W. (1915) cited in Mullins, L. J. (2010) *Management and Organisational Behaviour*, 9th ed. Harlow: Pearson.

Tergan, S. O. (1997) Misleading Theoretical Assumptions in Hypertext/Hypermedia Research. *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia*, 4, pp257-283.

The National Archives (2012) *Further and Higher Education Act 1992* [online]. Available from http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1992/13/contents (accessed 29 March 2011).

Toffler, A. (1970) *Future Shock*. New York: Random House.

Tranfield, D. *et al* (2004) A methodology for developing evidence informed management knowledge. *British Journal of Management*, 14, pp207-222.

Trochmin,W. (2006*) The Research Knowledge Base* [online]. Available at http://www.socialresearchmethods.net (accessed 20 October 2011).

Trowler, P. (1998). *Academic Responding to Change.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Van De Ven, H. and Hargrave, T. (1998) *Social, Technical and Iinstitutional Change: A Literature Review and Synthesis.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Van Kippenberge, D. and Van Schie, E. (2000) Foci and Correlates of Organizational Identification. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 40, pp228-255.

Van Maanen, J., Dabbs, J. M. and Faulkner, R. R. (1982) *Varieties of Qualitative Research*. Beverley Hills, CA: Sage.

Van Maanen, J. (1983) Qualitative Methodology. Beverley Hills, CA: Sage.

Van de Ven, A. H. (1998) Explaining development and change in organizations. *Academy of Management Review,* 20, pp510-540.

Von Stamm (2008) *Managing Innovation: Design and Creativity*, 2ed. New York: Wiley.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1966) Development of Higher Mental Functions*. Psychological Research in the USSR. Moscow:* Progress Publishers.

Watson, C. (2006) *Narratives of Practice and the Construction of Identity in Teaching and Teachers.* London: Taylor Frances.

Watson, T. J. (1994) Managing, Crafting and Researching: Words, Skill and Imagination in Shaping Management Research. *British Journal of Management*, 5, pp214-237.

Weber, M. (1897) cited in Giddens, A. and Sutton, P. (2013) *Sociology*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Weber, S. and Mitchell, C. (1998) *Reinventing Ourselves as Teachers: Private and Social Acts of Memory and Imagination.* London: Falmer.

Weick, K. (1993) The Collapse of Sensemaking in Organizations: The Mann Gulch Disaster. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38, pp124-141.

Wieviorka, M. (1992) *Case Studies: History or Sociology? What is a Case*? Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Williamson, J. (2012) Teaching and Learning in Out-Patient Clinics. *The Clinical Teacher,* 9, pp354-359.

Wolcott, H. (1994) *The Art of Fieldwork*. Walnut Creek: Alta Mira Press.

Wood, J. (1997) *Communication Theories in Action*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Woodhead, C. (OFSTED) (2003) *The Initial Training of Further Education Teachers*. Ofsted Publications: London.

Woolfolk, A. (2010) *Educational Psychology*, 11th ed. Columbus: Pearson.

Yamogishi, T. (2002) Trust, Gullibility, and Social Intelligence. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology,* l 2, pp145-162.

Yin, R. K. (2007) *Adding New Dimensions to Case Study Evaluations*. New Direction Program, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Yin, R. K. (2009) *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*, 3rd ed. London: Sage.

Yun-Hee Jeon, B. (2004) *The Application of Grounded Theory*. London: Springer.

Zehm, S. J. and Kottler, J. A. (1993) *On Being a Teacher: The Human Dimension*. California: Corwin Press.

Zembylas, M.(2003) *Emotions and Teacher Identity: A Poststructural Perspective*. London: Springer.