EDUCATIONAL JOURNEYS AND CHANGING LIVES

ADULT STUDENT EXPERIENCES

VOLUMEN II

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“La publicación de este libro ha sido posible gracias a la colaboración de las Universidades de Sevilla y de Warwick. El Vicerrectorado de Relaciones Internacionales de la Universidad de Sevilla ha financiado el coste de la edición de los dos volúmenes. Los editores y autores agradecen a la Vicerrectora, Dra. Dª. Lourdes Munduate, la generosa ayuda económica que ha hecho posible esta edición.”
V. IDENTITY, WORK, PROFESSIONAL LEARNING AND VOCATIONAL LEARNING
Adult learning is a vital component of lifelong learning policies, and essential to competitiveness and employability, social inclusion, active citizenship and personal development across Europe. However, greater efforts are needed to ensure even more adults participate in learning activities throughout their lives (EU, 2008).

The discourses, governmental and academic, about the ‘empowerment’ of learners and ‘flexibilisation’ of learning paths and learning careers, about ‘competitiveness and employability’ (EU, 2008) of adult learners, about the responsibility, too, of the learner to equip themselves with specified skills and knowledge, and the pressure on individuals –and indeed, whole populations in the throes of system change in an enlarged Europe– to ‘refurbish’ their qualifications or make haste to ‘acquire’ (or assume) a suitable career biography while there is yet time, are in our ears and are the siren songs of the new ‘liquid’ modernity which is deservedly the object of much critical research writing (Bauman, 2008, Field, 2001, Alheit and Dausien, 2002, Jarvis, 2006, Jarvis, 2000). Traditional notions of learning, i.e. the acquisition of skills and qualifications that would ‘last a lifetime’, have long since been superceded by the educational and training needs of a ‘knowledge society’ (Drucker, 2005), of ‘learning organisations’ (Senge, 1990) and of a lifelong project of accommodation to the demands of the all-purpose concept of globalization and its accompanying rituals of ‘entrepreneurial culture’ (Avis, 2002).

The glaring contradiction between official ‘frameworks’ for Life-Long-Learning and the simultaneous ‘emancipatory’ dismissal of the individual adult learner into the biographical freedom to ‘plan’ their learning journey has been pointed out more than once already (Alheit and Dausien, 2002, Field, 2001). Nowhere, I would argue, is this contradiction more glaring than in the field of training and learning inside corporate business organisations.

The learning environment in the large private company is by definition a non-public space in which learners (and trainers) are removed from public gaze and control and distanced from social policymaking. Formalised learning takes place (or not) at the behest of the employer and is a cost factor. Supply and demand –available skills, age, gender, health– and opportunity costs –the return on investment– decide on the availability of spaces in which recognised learning may justifiably take place. ‘Valued’ learning is determined, sometimes across a whole working life, according to the movements of the market or the fortunes of management. Likewise skills, knowledge, experience (Karen Evans, 2001).
In order to examine how formal and non-formal learning are fought for, and how learning experience –positive and negative– acquired or claimed across the life course is transformed by, and transforms the individual biographies of learners, this paper will examine discourse(s) of learning and professional identity elicited in depth-interview talk with employees in the headquarters of a leading German steel trading company. The interview data I shall analyse here is part of a larger ethnographic case study of the learning discourses in individual work biographies of employees in a company that has passed through a series of crises throughout the 1990s and into the early 2000s. Over a period of one year I interviewed 12 individuals, conducting a total of 25 interview sessions. The interviewees ranged from secretaries to departmental heads; from the legal department to IT; from the administration to the sales team of a subsidiary trading department; the youngest interviewee was 25, the oldest 65; five were women, seven men.

Starting from the understanding that interactive context (social, institutional, physical, or emotional, and so on) and meaning are built in and through talk and are radically local in their construction, I examine micro-discourses of experience and the language through which a professional woman in her mid-forties incorporates differently grounded pieces of her life –institutional learning, everyday life-course experience, crises, stops and successes– into an ongoing biographical narrative (Alheit and Dausien, 2002, Alheit, 2007). Central aspects of this view of the learning experience include subjective experiences of learning and the construction of own discourses of knowledge and self, change and experience of diversity through the acquisition of professional, institutional or new ‘cultural’ or gendered identities.

To understand better the motivation to carry on learning whatever the cost and to re-commence interrupted learning journeys (or, alternatively, to account for breaks and biographies of delusion) researchers and educators need concepts of education and learning that embrace the complexity of learning environments today in which learning is shaped and expressed as biographical learning, as gendered learning, and so on. These include an understanding of the following: 1. the spaces in which people live and learn and through which they journey while building relationships and careers; 2. the language(s) that constitute(s) these spaces as knowable and accessible and 3. the individual rhythms of narrative and ‘grammars’ of experience that they develop in order to build their learning into their changing lives.

**Changing learning paths, changing places**

Individuals and groups, in traditional educational institutions and in informal contexts of learning, in their places of work and in their families and communities, face decisions that affect their learning chances: decisions taken under pressure –pressures to learn, to acquire skills, to ‘perform’ in required ways, pressures to change. These pressures to change, however, do not only come from ‘outside’, that is, from the place of work or from formal institutions of education and training or from the state. The management of one’s own development, means self-imposed pressures to adapt to new knowledge demands, to fulfil own projects and desires for change (see for example Alheit, 2007).
Moreover, the educational and training needs of the ‘knowledge society’ produce more and more fragmented vistas of learning (Ecarius, 1997). This is happening while the learner’s place within mainstream, access, further or lifelong education and her performance in the ‘entrepreneurial’ and ‘competitive’ environments of higher and further education, of business learning and internationally marketed learning models becomes itself more and more fragmented and individualised (Avis et al., 2001, and Evans, 2003, see also Corson, 2000). Jutta Ecarius points out further how “upbringing, learning and education take place within structured spaces which offer socially unequally distributed opportunities” for schooling, work and citizenship (Ecarius, 1997). Learning, she argues, has ‘spatial’ and ‘bodied’ dimensions (1997), while learning over a whole life means that a subject moves through various “spaces” appropriating, losing, and gaining resources and capital (Ecarius, 1997). The unequal allocation and appropriation of learning opportunities according to age, gender and ethnic background in German enterprises continues to be a significant factor determining choices and paths to learning (Autorengruppe, 2008).

The discursive construction of biographical learning spaces and locally situated identities

The contexts of learning identity formation are understood here as interconnected “ecologies of knowledge” in which situation-specific interactional meanings are organised (Miller, 1997). Discursive processes of identity construction are situated in language interaction at many, at multiple, levels. Interaction and relations of reciprocity between individual subjects and others provide the framework within which ‘selves’ are constructed in communication with others. Secondly, the changing relationship of individual subjects to their own and others’ words, current or long-past, influence identity construction at every step, providing individuals with the language means to describe themselves and the world. In addition, the relationships of membership within (and dissociation from) recognisable groups or with recognisable values or characteristics, identities or stigmas, via the situating power of indexicality construct locally ‘situated’ identities that intersect constantly in discourse (De Fina et al., 2006, and for a broadly similar view of intersubjectivity see Habermas, 1981).

The biographical method allows us to ask how change in people’s environments is recognized subjectively by individuals, and how such change influences learning in life/work/study situations. Life stories, according to Alheit (1983), are essentially occupied with the necessity to synchronise two disparate levels of experienced time: firstly, the dimension of events and experiences which usually have a routine, daily, everyday frame, and secondly, those which operate on the life-time scale/horizon, which “links long past events with past experiences, past with present experience and ultimately present with conceivable future events” (Alheit, 1983).

1 “Erziehung, Lernen und Bildung finden in räumlichen Strukturen statt, die sozial ungleich verteilte Möglichkeiten bieten”

2 “[…der vorvergangene mit vergangenen Ereignissen, vergangene mit gegenwärtigen und schließlich gegenwärtige mit zukünftig denkbaren verbindet]”
**Place, power and unequal distribution of capital**

The routine of daily existence, then, offers some security and naturalises the seemingly given order of things. Stepping out of frame allows/requires the individual to see things and themselves diversely, reflectively. Stepping out also means, however, challenging outright the situation that is ‘given’. Raymond Williams points out the deep penetration of identification processes in the body and language (Williams, 1965). The rules of society, he suggests, “run very deep” and they “are often materialised, and in inheriting them as institutions we inherit a real environment, which shapes us but which we also change. We learn this environment in our bodies, and we are taught the conventions” (Williams, 1965 my italics). Interpellation of these lived rules in biographical interviews, which means directly questioning everyday lived routines and life in the present, encounters the difficulty individuals have of verbalising the meaning of ‘here’ and ‘now’, but can create the opportunity of hearing the ‘voice’ of the individual entangled in the everyday reality of time and space”. (Dziemianowicz and Kurantowicz, 2006). Looking through the lens of biographical learning processes, via the biographicity of learning (for example Alheit and Dausien, 2002), at the journeys made along rough educational pathways, uncovers this aptly named ‘entanglement’ of the individual, her work and family relations in the diverse, multiple areas/spaces of experience in time and over time that are drawn upon in the construction of the biography of learning.

Forms of power and capital are concentrated unequally in the structures and hierarchies of any organisation or community, and access and exclusion from these manifestations of power are expressed in everyday interaction. Bourdieu makes the important point that the possession of social capital ensures ‘ubiquity’, that is, certifies the right to occupy social and economic spaces and dispose of the resources therein (Bourdieu, 1993). Being relatively dispossessed of capital, on the other hand, banishes the individual (physically, or symbolically) from the enjoyment of social resources (e.g. education): “Le défaut de capital intensifie l’expérience de la finitude: il enchaine à un lieu”. Further, the subaltern ‘local’ social position occupied in the hierarchy of values and capital may render the dispossessed less able to perceive their social position in the wider national or global fields (Bourdieu, 1993), which can effect their ability to develop agency in the choice of educational options.

**Language and learning**

Language resources, their use in the co-construction of meaning and of the learning space itself, help to follow how learning and diversity of experience can be told. The biographical method allows us to ask how changes and structural contradictions in people’s environments are recognised subjectively by individuals. Further, it helps us to see how the link between the level at which gender exerts its influence over the whole learning life and the gendered local, day-to-day level is lived and constructed and how such construction influences learning in work/study/life situations of the individual (Dausien, 1999). In the auto/biography of the woman talking here, learning is shaped and expressed as
biographical learning, and both difficulties and success have their place in the rich contexts in which learning takes place.

Our interest, then, is in an “unfolding, socially coordinated, temporally and spatially situated” understanding of language-mediated practices, activities and action (Schegloff et al., 1996) The accomplishment of meaning in the interplay of interactive contexts (social, institutional, physical, or emotional, and so on) is achieved in this view of things through the sequential unfolding of the interactive resources of members of diverse settings in discourse with Others and with the World (Ricoeur, 1995). Sequence of action in talk and context are inextricably bound together in the process of meaning-making because “social context is a dynamically created thing that is expressed in and through the sequential organization of interaction”. Thus context is built in and through talk and is radically local in its construction (Heritage, 1997).

The insights into the particular linguistic structures developed in interview interactions and conversation with particular regard to the development of interactive narrative forms (1996, Mishler, 2006, Schiffrin, 1993, 2006) provide a powerful analytical alternative to the ‘representational’ view of language, according to which the researcher can proceed analytically from ‘words to world’. Examining at close quarters stories told in interaction tells us certainly something about the way in which experience is remembered and retold, but we can also look more closely at the way narratives “emerge from both knowledge and site of practice: how does a story actually reflect both our underlying narrative competence that lies in wait and the interactional contingencies in which talk is co-constructed?” (Schiffrin, 2006). Just as we cannot pass from ‘words to world’ and construct our analyses of social worlds on a one-to-one basis with the talk produced in an interview, we cannot pass from ‘words to mind’. But we can see in the language of interaction the shifting elements of what can be loosely called a “grammar”, that is, the analysable language resources used in constructing and sharing relationships, identities, and views (Capps and Ochs, 1995).

Frau G. and learning at all costs

The company in which I collected the data used here has a more than 100-year-old tradition in the city and region where its headquarters stand. The company survived both world wars and carried forward into the 1980s its traditional German-language and ‘German’ management structure and style (see Warner and Campbell, 1997). As such, it combined life-long employment with vocational training and a high level of employee identification with the firm as with the locality and the history of the firm within the social history of that locality.

My own presence in the company, as a language trainer for English, lasted 11 years, from 1992 to 2003. The interviews from which extracts are provided here were conducted in 2002 and 2003. By that time the company was in a state of forced and difficult change, bordering on trauma. This turbulent period marked the end of the company’s paternalistic tradition. Repeated, unsuccessful processes of being put up for sale and the presence of ‘outsiders’ in the ‘House’
only increased the sense of dislocation and de-centredness so often heard in individuals’ learning biographies (Risberg, 2001). After years of activity in the company as a trainer, I was both known and accepted, but I encountered difficulties, too. As Bruni argues, researcher roles and participant roles are not automatically congruent (Bruni, 2006). In this interactive framework, flooded with complicities before the very start of the interview, I was walking a very fine line, ‘doing closeness’ while ‘doing distance’ (Down et al., 2006).

The Extracts3

The necessarily brief discussion here of the data is confined to extracts from one of two interviews with a Controller, Frau G. In her middle ‘forties, divorced and mother of one pre-teenage son, Frau G. belongs to a group of non-management higher employees with special responsibilities. She reflects critically and openly on the crises the company has gone through. She possesses a political consciousness sharpened by years of in-company union struggle for women’s rights and general company democracy. Her talk is given in the original German with an impressionistic English translation. Analysis of the language she uses, however, refers at all times to the German original.

My chosen method of approaching the learning journey which Frau G works up biographically proceeds from:

- the relatively fixed spaces of her life-world, which are closely connected to stable or unmoving local structures (family, schooling, internal company hierarchies and their sexist, ageist characteristics) and which condition choices and expectations [Extracts 1, 2].

- to the highly personal experience of transition which involved a re-interpretation of her learning experiences and a realignment of her learning path [Extract 3].

With Alheit (Alheit, 2007) I would argue that Frau G.’s transitions from relative continuity to the discontinuity of change –more than once– is experienced as a ‘learning history’ (Lerngeschichte). This learning process allows her to develop what Alheit calls ‘post-conventional’ frames of action (i.e. breaking with the ‘inevitable’ routines of everyday experience) which provide access to new biographical spaces in which to position herself anew.

3 The following markup is used in the interview transcript extracts produced here:
xx: = Word-lengthening
(.) Pauses (audible breaks in flow of speech)
(1.0) Pause timed in seconds (to nearest second)
hh Out-breaths/laughter
.hh In-breaths
°xxx°° Quiet speech
+xxx++ Rapid speech
xxx::: Drawn-out utterance, drawl
The narrow horizons of choice

Extract 1: Career choice

\[ \text{[R = researcher; G = Frau G]} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>R: wie haben Sie dann das die bereiche ahh ausgewählt dann (.) wie sind Sie darauf gekommen?</th>
<th>How did you choose then the areas ahh then (.) how did you come to do that?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>R: wie haben Sie dann das die bereiche ahh ausgewählt dann (.) wie sind Sie darauf gekommen?</td>
<td>How did you choose then the areas ahh then (.) how did you come to do that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>G: hmm die bereiche waren ja irgendwie eingeschränkt bin mit einer ganz normalen kaufmannischen ausbildung gestartet und da sind natürlich die horizonte nicht</td>
<td>Hmm the areas were you know somehow limited I started with a really normal commercial training and there the horizons aren’t of course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(1.0)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>G: so riesengross ja warum? (.)</td>
<td>So gigantic yeah why? (.) that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>R: warum?</td>
<td>R: why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>R: ja?</td>
<td>Yeah?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>G: ich denke schon</td>
<td>I think so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>R: Sie Sie kennen sich daran</td>
<td>You can remember that can’t you?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Frau G.’s account of her choice of vocational training as an adolescent, she is initially hesitant. Her account is ‘hedged’ (l.6 irgendwie/somehow) and neutralised (her commercial training is ‘ganz normal’, i.e. really normal, nothing special) (l.7) and qualified with a further edge of neutralising modality (the ‘natürlich’/of course in l.9). When we speak of hedging, we mean intensifiers (such as ‘really’, ‘a lot of’) and de-intensifiers (‘like’, ‘kind of sort of’, ‘maybe’, ‘just’). Frau G. layers her narrative, in fact, with approximations, hesitations, hedging qualifications and silences. This active negotiation of meaning through circumlocution is the site where the speakers’ mutual relationship is established and where positions of certainty, necessity, opinion, belief and factuality are adopted (for more discussion of this, see Wierzbicka, 1991). There may be other reasons for her hesitant start, but it is sufficient to call to mind that the relational juxtaposition of researcher-researched represents the juxtaposition and simultaneous intersection of different deposits of social and educational capital and of their respective local discourses.

It is noticeable how consistently Frau G. develops the semantic choice in her self-ironic (face-saving) use of the term horizons: a ‘normal’ commercial training is, she suggests, obviously limited, and its learning ‘horizons’ are not ‘riesengross’/gigantic (l.12). When we continue to follow her narrative Frau G. develops a discourse of opposed spaces in the following talk which possesses interesting consistency in its semantic structure. She speaks, for example, of her apprenticeship as laying ‘a foundation’ and uses a series of metaphors of ‘frames/frameworks’ which she tries to ‘burst’ or which she accepts as a framework of ‘available [learning] opportunities’. Taken together with the initial lexis of narrow
possibilities (ridiculed as not-gigantic-horizons of opportunity) we hear in her narrative elements of that “willful” subjective appropriation of learning chances” which render possible the “construction of new cultural and social structures of experience” (Alheit and Dausien, 2002)\textsuperscript{4} we call ‘biographicity’.

**Heirarchies / Gendered spaces**

**Extract 2: The inevitable routines of closed heirarchies**

```
1    eine eigene unzufriedenheit mit den
2    strukturen ich hab ueber:: in
3    meinen ersten jahren im
4    controllingbereich als einzige frau
5    gearbeitet als junge frau und hatte
6    da naturlich °gegen°° ganz viele::
7    (.) ahh (.) altersstrukturen
8    anzukaempfen das hat mich zum teil
9    mass::ios geaergert hab meine
10    hilflosigkeit gespupert hab dann
11    gegen windmuelhen angekaempft aber
12    ich hab dagegen angekaempft .hhh
13    vielleicht hab ich erst jahre
14    spater begriffen (.) uhm warum dat
15    alles so zwangslaeufig war mit
16    diesen alten strukturen diesen
17    alten maennern die zum teil ja noch
18    vorherrschen .hhh dass das nicht
19    richtig sein kann und nicht stimmt
20    und nicht rundlief war fuer mich zu
21    spuern mit jeder faser ahh un
22    warUM war nich klar
```

The words and phrases highlighted above in bold type trace the further development of Frau G.’s draft of a life-world of conflicting structures. Space in her working life is heavily, punishingly structured. In the phase she is narrating here, the structures are made to be heard as unmoving, rigid, and inevitable. They are structures of age (l.7), in which she – the only woman, the only young woman (ll.4-5) – is evoked as physically irritated, forced to feel helpless (ll.9-10). The structures, then, are inscribed in her feelings and in her body (l.21 ‘mit jeder faser’/with every fibre). The further examples here of rhythmic repetitions (the repetition of ‘I fought against’ ll.10-12) and the particularly effective creative embellishments of emphatic, emotionally programmatic phrases (ll.18-20: ‘dass das nicht richtig sein kann und nicht stimmt und nicht rundlief’/that that can’t be right and isn’t right and didn’t work right or ‘diesen alten strukturen diesen alten maennern’/these old structures these old men at ll.16-17) are set within an account of checks and troubles which Frau G. punctuates prosodically (emotionally) with hesitations, breaks, telling in-breaths and self-directed questioning (‘warum’/why at ll. 14 and 22). The whole picture of inevitable time-worn hierarchies is set, it must be remembered, within the narrative frame of the

\textsuperscript{4} “… der ‘eigensinnigen’ subjektiven Aneignung von Lernangeboten […] die Chance der Herstellung neuer kultureller und sozialer Erfahrungsstrukturen …”
present looking back, and this ex-post-facto stance is underlined in Frau G.’s knowledge claim of having understood only much later the restricting confines of her earlier career and its physically embodied structures (l.13-14). It is worth recalling, too, Pierre Bourdieu’s dictum cited already, that being deprived of the power, or the educational and economic capital, to effect change in parts of your own life banishes or confines the individual to the narrowness of their location in the hierarchy of things –it “enchâine à un lieu” (Bourdieu, 1993). Her institutional memory recalls the different spaces and their transformations. The listener understands implicitly that this image of immobility, of the “finitude” Bourdieu contrasts with the “ubiquité” of the possessor of capital (Bourdieu, 1993), is intended by Frau G. to act as a contrast to her own trajectory, her exit from the confines of the devalued former activities.

Learning at all costs – moving on to other learning spaces

In this last long extract, Frau G. speaks about an irruption of ideas and emotions into the hierarchical spaces of ‘those old men’ and their accepted values. As a result of involvement of the employees’ representatives in a phase of in-House training and activities ushered in by a momentarily proactive management in order to re-establish company morale after the first great bankruptcy shock in the early 1990s, seminars and other learning opportunities were encouraged. The impact was ‘ziemlich stark’/pretty strong and threw up questions that occupied Frau G. at work and in her private life (ll. 1-4). Frau G. finds it initially difficult in her talk to open up the subject that most affects her. In ll. 6-8 she gets nowhere as she hedges her talk with massed hesitations. She ultimately brings the topic to the surface: ‘hhh dieses uhmm (2.0) dieses dieser FRAUENpolitische faktor’ (ll.8-9). Note the out-breath, the uhmm-filler, a pause of 2 seconds and three (!) false starts (dieses – dieses – dieser) before she pronounces the key words. The women’s rights factor – prosodically marked through voice volume – is tellingly also located: ‘an der ARbeit’/at WORk. Again, Frau G.’s voice reveals the emotion, the urgency she needs to convey. In the following details, she items the seminars, the friendships, the new questions opened up. New areas of information, new insights into unfamiliar interpretations of her working and her private home worlds are learnt and received in novel learning spaces. Seminars introduce her to ideas, the ideas are embodied in new types of people, women who not only know or think or act differently, but like one woman in particular, women who live differently:

“Die war da wo ich hin wollte ohne es zu wissen sie war voellig selbst selbstbewusst die war ahn ja wie war die .hhh (2.0) uhm die ruhte so in sich die war sie hatte so ein selbst verstaendnis fuer sich selbst sie stellte das was sie getan hat nicht in frage die war sich ihrer person voellig sicher und auch ihrer rolle (2.0) als mutter als ahh (1.0) employee [She was where I wanted to be without me knowing it she was completely self- self-confident she was aah yeah what was she like .hhh (2.0) uhm she was self-contained she had no problem with herself she didn’t question what she had done she was totally sure of herself and of her role (2.0) as a mother as ahh (1.0) as an employee]”

We hear Frau G. here recreating her passing from unquestioned areas of work and experience into unfamiliar areas of learning, initially intellectual
spaces related to ‘insights’, but subsequently translated into friendships and alternative learning and living options. She met these women, and she stresses her continuing private relations with them outside the company

Extract 3: ‘it gave me so many insights about myself’

1. die war ziemlich stark also das hat
   It was pretty strong like
2. ahh mir so viele erkenntnisse über
   so it gave me so many
3. mich selbst gebracht dass ich dann
   insights about myself that
4. ehm auch im privatbereich
   I in my private life
   afterwards
5. was fuer erkenntnisse
   What kind of insights
6. JA ich fand dat unheimlich
   YEAH I thought it was
7. interessant dieses ehmm °ich weiss
   incredibly interesting this
8. ja gar nich°° (2.0) hhh dieses uhmm
   ehm “I dont know” (2.0)
9. (2.0) dieses dieser FRAUENpolitisiche
   this this
10. faktor so an der ARBeit .hhh das das
    WOMEN’S rights aspect
11. kristallisierte sich so als
    at WORK .hhh that that
12. “interessensgebiet hinterher
    turned into an “area of
13. heraus°° wirkllich mal zu
    interest after a while°° to
14. hinterfragen wie stehn frauen in der
    really question what is
15. arbeitswelt da warum stehn wir da WO
    women's position at work
16. wir stehn warum SIND wir in der
    sowhy are we WHERE we are
17. arbeitswelt so wie wir sind warum
    why ARE our jobs like they
18. bin ich auch genau so oder warum
    why am I like that or
19. laesst sich das so gut erklären
    why is it so all so clear
20. [cough] dat waren (.) neuigkeiten
    [cough] those were all (.)
21. fuer mich neue erkenntnisse und da
    new things for me new
22. war ein thema wo ich mich dann ueber
    insights and there was one
23. eine ganze zeit festgebissen habe
    thing which kept me busy
24. und dann auch mmm (1.0) mit den
    for a long time and then
25. frauen die ich so in der zeit in den
    mmm (1.0) with the women I
26. seminaren kennengelernt habe so
    got to know in the seminars
27. sozialwissenschaftlerinnen mit den
    like social scientists with
28. ich noch zum teil noch kontakt hab
    whom I am still partly
29. (. ) also da sind freundschaften
    still in touch (.) like
30. draus er: erwachsen dann ganz viel
    friendships grew out of
31. seminare haben stattgefunden °°die
    this and then lots of
32. ich auch dann zum teil privat
    seminars took place °°which
33. besucht habe oder in der
    I partly went to privately
34. gewerkschaft paar sachen gemacht°°
    or a few things did in the
35. also ich hab das war ein
    union°° so I that was a
36. wesentliches interessengebiet was
    central area of interest
37. ich dann (.) daraus entwickelt hab
    that I after that (.) made
38. und da bin iCH ElGentlich ganz
    out of that and anyway I
39. zufaellig °°da hineingeraten ja°°°°
    really °° got into that by chance°°°°

with doubled employment of ‘still’: ‘the women I got to know in the seminars like social scientists with whom I am still partly still in touch’. She emphasizes the coincidentality of the entire experience: ‘und da bin iCH ElGentlich ganz zufaellig °°da hineingeraten ja°°°°/ anyway I really °° got into that by chance°°°° (ll.38-39). The markup °° indicates almost whispered talk. Frau G. is talking to herself here as much as to the researcher. Or she is repeating what she often said to herself back then?
This extract is a powerful example of the transforming nature of learning transitions. Frau G. deploys forceful, emphatic language to recreate what must be heard as a key learning experience. Her sense of awakening—a fitting pay-back after yearning for encouragement or help in the past—to the insight that she could pose the questions that now mattered are couched in a typically accomplished play of highly personal language: in ll. 14-19 we hear

wie stehn frauen in der arbeitswelt da
warum stehn wir da WO wir stehn
warum SIND wir in der arbeitswelt so wie wir sind
warum bin ich auch genau so oder
warum laesst sich das so gut erklaren.

Even without translation this piece of prosodic work demonstrates convincingly, I feel, the power of repetition and the effect of sonority and rhythm in the creation of coherence in interactive talk. For this is arguably meant to be heard, and this almost certainly has been said many times over and heard many times more. A new path was opened up the day she chanted these questions to herself for the first time; she turns down that path into past spaces of learning and experience once again when she recreates the emotion and the enthusiasm for us in her talk.

Conclusion

To understand the changes in lives and learning journeys that are taking place in different settings and the diverse uses of knowledge and reflection in learning made by the learner subject in these different settings it is critically important that the following factors are included in our research:

– the role of gender, and its influence on learning processes and experiences, particularly in socially and professionally oppressively gendered contexts as well as in those where gender roles and openings can be tried, as we saw in Frau G.’s learning biography above;

– the transplantation of learning, too, to non-formal contexts, whereby family spaces and private lives are invaded either because of insistent economic necessity or in the guise of ‘free-time’, self-directed learning;

– the different ways in which the culture of consumption is manifesting itself in learning activities both in private spaces of learning, but also in formal institutions and practices, and the way consumption of education is expressed in personal choice, lifestyle and unorthodox openings not foreseen within the framework of more steady, traditional life-career paradigms (Jarvis, 2000, Alheit and Dausien, 2002).

We can see the need to examine the experiences and motivations of adult people in their particular individual and cultural situation. The learning experiences discussed here stem from auto/biographical narratives of a woman involved in differing processes (and stages in those processes) of educational change and, we can say, of rupture with former educational experience. Her talk encompasses both experience of learning and its absence. In this connection, West points out the particular role of ‘supportive’ contexts, and the role of education as a space in which to compose a new life, a different story, a possibly more cohesive self with the support of others (West, 1996). Aspects of this view of the learning experience that I consider important include
subjective experiences of learning and the construction of own discourses of knowledge and self, change and experience of diversity through the acquisition of professional, institutional or 'cultural' identities, and the gendering of new learning processes. Change and troubles, but new insights and rich 'incidents', too, are voiced and constructed in narratives borne up on rich 'grammars' of told experience. These are used to 'build the theories' that emerge as ongoing effective negative or positive biographies (Capps and Ochs, 1995).

Empowerment and disempowerment are implicated in the workings of learners' learning experiences. The spaces in which they live and learn and through which they move while building relationships and careers, the language(s) that constitute(s) these spaces as knowable and accessible and the times, individual rhythms and 'grammars' of experience that they develop in order to build their learning into their changing lives are multiplying. Given the potential fragility of spaces in a world of rapid change, education and learning as a 'protected space' comes to assume a special role, a changed role, in individual lives today. Learning across the working life, with its breaks and new starts, is a journey, certainly, unmapped, unmappable even (Alheit, 2005) opening paths of learning whose ends are open.

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Issues surrounding the youth employment situation in Japan

As a nation goes through drastic changes in its industrial structure and develops a new type of labour market, a peculiar phenomenon seems to emerge: young people begin to become absorbed in their own lives and tend not to listen to the advice that older people give them on how to lead their lives. Although details differ to some extent depending on the country, this trend of ‘socially withdrawn youth’ has been observed in most industrial nations across the globe over recent decades.

Until the 1980s, the Japanese labour market was characterised by the ‘lifetime employment’ system under which workers were able to stay in one company and work there permanently, receiving appropriate training from the company to ensure they would fit in and become competent workers. However, despite the fact that the notion of a harmonious society in which everyone benefited from economic growth had some measure of credibility for a long period of time, employment conditions have dramatically changed over recent decades. Most companies began to cut back on employing young people fresh from high school and/or university, which used to be a dominant employment pattern in this country. They downsized the number of regular workers to reduce costs and relied more on part-time workers. An increase in the number of ‘job-hoppers’, part-timers, and temporary staff dispatched by employee-leasing agencies has been a typical phenomenon in the Japanese labour market since the early 1990s, and such workers accounted for about 40% of the total workforce as of 2008.

Along with the changing labour markets, some young people who are uncertain about their futures have chosen career paths which were previously unexplored. This led to more low-income single households, and fewer children, and it may pose a serious threat to Japan’s economic potential in the future because the country will face a shrinking labour force due to a declining birthrate. Furthermore, it is reported that in recent years repeated serious crimes have been committed by young persons who, in many cases, are not in full-time employment but who have temporary, irregular jobs with low wages.

Among the various words describing such people, two have become household terms. One is ‘freeters’ or ‘friita’, a Japanese coinage combining the English word ‘free’ and the German word ‘arbeiter’ meaning worker –that is, one
who holds a series of part-time jobs and is not being able or unwilling to find a regular job. The other is ‘NEET’ (Not in Education, Employment or Training) or ‘niito’, another group of people who are difficult to approach and find, and whose numbers reached 850,000 in 2002.

As for ‘freeters’, the labor ministry acknowledges the difficulty they face in trying to switch to regular employment, and accepts that a lack of work training opportunities tends to keep them in low-income jobs. The word ‘freeter’ was coined in the late 1980s, and it referred to young people who deliberately chose not to engage in regular work, despite a certain number of jobs being available at that time. The word came to include people aged between 15 and 34 who do not make use of their qualifications to embark on careers, but remain only casually involved with the labour market in a series of temporary jobs, usually in the sales and service sector. According to government statistics, there are more than 2 million ‘freeters’; one in nine young people today are categorized as ‘freeter’ or one in five if housewives and students are excluded. They are not necessarily from deprived backgrounds, and increasing numbers are high-school and university graduates. Today, many of the ‘freeters’ live with and depend on their parents, as it is hard to become economically independent and make ends meet with salaries which are, on average, roughly one quarter those of regular workers. They are, in a sense, on the fringes of society, and are either impoverished or, since they lack savings, must fear falling into poverty if something unforeseen happens. It is said that roughly 30 percent of university graduates quit their first jobs after a short period of employment and only a small portion of them go on to take up new regular jobs thereafter. Most then choose the path of the ‘freeter’. On the other hand, the term ‘NEET’ was first used in the United Kingdom in the late 1980s, but what is peculiar to Japan is that, unlike in most European countries, the needs of these young people have not been properly addressed by government policy as yet.

The Japanese government has viewed issues surrounding youth labour largely in a negative light since 2004, while pushing forward a number of social measures to eliminate such youth problems in cooperation with various levels of the civil service and a large number of non-profit organizations which exist in many different parts of the country. This rather negative attitude has been partly created due to the weak regulations on the Japanese irregular employment labour market and poor social security for young people. Furthermore, from the corporate viewpoint, the growing ranks of ‘freeters’ pose a threat because they are missing out on an opportunity to receive systematic vocational education and skill training.

Thus, Japanese young people have been faced with very unstable labour markets and uncertainty about their futures. This paper, focusing upon the most difficult target group among Japanese youth called ‘NEET’, illustrates some governmental measures to address their problems by illustrating the features and causes of Japanese ‘NEET’ and considering some recent discourses, including possible solutions and some unexplored aspects of how to approach and motivate these new groups of young people who have been largely ignored by recent governmental schemes.
**Reported Features of Japanese ‘NEET’**

It was the most vulnerable young people that were mostly affected by the socio-economic changes which have enlarged the uncertain conditions within and around the labour market. However, due to the difficulty of obtaining an overall picture of ‘who they are’, there have not been any comprehensive figures or outlines of such youth, though a number of partial statistics have been provided by the government based on the National Census, and some detailed surveys have been conducted by several researchers.

According to the statistics of the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare released in 2004, Japanese ‘NEET’ comprised ‘people aged between 15 and 34 who are unemployed, unmarried, not enrolled in school or engaged in housework, while not seeking work or the technical training needed for work despite the large number of jobs available’. They account for 2% of the same age cohort. The ministry stated that the main factor contributing to the number of NEETs without work experience was concern about communicating with others both in the workplace and outside, while for those with work experience, the roadblock was uncertainty about what kind of jobs they wanted and loss of self-confidence.

On the other hand, through some face-to-face interviews with those categorised as ‘NEET’, Kosugi (2004), a researcher of the government-affiliated Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training, has shown that there are four types of Japanese NEET: those who have withdrawn from society, those who enjoy hanging around with friends after dropping out of or graduating from high school, university graduates who are unable to make a decision on their career path, and those who used to have a full-time job but have lost confidence in their vocational abilities. Kosugi also defines Japanese ‘NEET’ as ‘those who do not participate in any social activity and therefore risk becoming social outcasts in the future, while the nation is not fully able to make use of them through present job assistance measurements’.

According to another statistic presented by Kosugi, 65% of Japanese ‘NEET’ are men, those aged 15-19 account for less than 20%, whilst those aged 20-24, 25-29, 30-34 make up less than 30% of the total. Apart from the 15-17 age group, who are at high school and account for only 1% of the whole nation’s NEET, the younger people are, the easier it is for them to become NEET. As high school education is completed at the age of 18 and university education at the age of 22 in Japan, the first peak of becoming NEET is found at the age of 19, and the second peak is at the age of 23. With regard to the composition of NEET, 28.5% have completed junior high school education, while 49% are high school graduates. On the other hand, 9.6% have graduated from specialised schools and/or junior colleges, and 12.7% are university graduates.

There has not yet been any clear connection between NEET and geographical factors, and such youth are scattered across the nation. According to the Survey on Labour Structure, 70% of those classified as NEET are dependent on their family, while 20% live on their own. 40% of NEET wish to work, but have not taken any action as yet. They do not care what kind of job they do and not many
are interested in having regular jobs. Most junior high school graduates tend to lack basic skills for job hunting, while the majority of high school graduates are not able to find a job due to the cessation in recruitment of newly graduated workers by companies that has occurred in recent years. On the other hand, university graduates tend to falter in finding any appropriate path for their future or do not have any career education.

Another recent statistic given by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (2007) reported that the family backgrounds of NEET are diverse, and they were not necessarily from deprived backgrounds. Most NEET had experienced bullying at school and therefore 40% of them had withdrawn from school since the bullying occurred. 80% of NEET had experience of work, though this was often in the form of part-time temporary jobs in the service sector. Some of them stated that they had experienced problems with people at work. Half had been to hospital to be treated for mental illness, while some had been diagnosed as having developmental diseases. In most cases, they acknowledged that they did not possess good interpersonal skills, communication skills or basic numerical skills. 80% stated that they felt guilty about not doing anything in society. What most of their answers had in common was that they were unable to have a positive view about their futures, they were afraid of human communication, and they did not expect much from their jobs.

Although these statistical figures and survey results have provided some useful information for identifying NEET, it is important to note that these answers were given by those who were contactable by society and therefore they had certain access to society through various measures conducted by national and local governments. In other words, the current surveys have not reached the most difficult type of NEET who have refused all social contacts, and the government has not been able to find any effective way of approaching them to discover their actual living conditions and thoughts. In short, what has been reported so far is quite limited and slight in quantitative terms.

**Current measures by central and local governments**

Facing the increase in the numbers of young people who face a precarious future, policy makers have begun to acknowledge that some responsibility for youth support must be shouldered by the public sector together with private organisations, resulting in some qualitative shifts in practice. Plenty of measurements have been introduced at national, local, and regional levels both in the private and public spheres to eliminate these issues facing modern youth. At the governmental level, the Committee for Youth Independence and Challenge Initiatives was established by relevant ministries in 2003, and the blueprints of their plan have been discussed since then and several proposals have been announced.

Among them, there have been two notable measures to support youth employment—the Job Café (2003) and the Youth Job Spot (2003). However, these job counselling centres mainly target students and the ‘freeters’ and generally those who are able and willing to search for work by themselves. These
new measures also tend to assign a quota to individual staff, and therefore there is a tendency that some ‘elite’ young people who do not have regular jobs but have the willingness to work are chosen to be treated first. The government also launched a new measure called ‘Youth Independence Camp’ in 2005. It is a training programme in which participants spend three to six months at a camp being drilled in basic social skills through group work and work experience. It is mainly run by local NPOs, in cooperation with the local government under a central government scheme. There were 30 camps nominated by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, and each group in the camps included 20 young adults. In spite of the low number of enrollees, the Youth Independence Camp remains an extraordinary policy in the Japanese context, not merely because it provides basic training in work and life skills, but because it teaches young people to have psychological independence from their parents. The programme offers support along with jobs on farms and in local companies. The group takes a small percentage of the participants’ wages and tries to encourage the participants to leave the programme by telling them how they would make more money if they were on their own.

In 2006, the ‘Youth Support Station’ was charged with serving young people typically referred to as ‘NEET’ who were not able to search for jobs by themselves for various reasons. It provided them with comprehensive welfare and mental health-related counselling, and was organised by local NPOs. The station programmes take place in 77 locations across Japan, and are intended to assist in the individual lives of each of the participants. However, these programmes are only beginnings, as they are designed to reach out to ‘elite’ NEETs, who are the best 15 percent of that population, by requiring voluntary enrollment. Thus, a number of programmes are actually run by local NPOs, though the initiative itself was begun by the central government. This is because there is recognition among society that local NPOs have many skills and resources for handling difficult issues since they are based in each of the local communities. In October 2008, the government announced the enactment of a new law called the ‘Youth Assistance Act (tentative)’, which enables public institutions to be connected with various types of private organisation so that both of them can deal with the issue harmoniously and comprehensively, complementing each other’s activities.

Meanwhile, various career preparation programmes have been introduced at each level of school through the initiative of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. For example, 94.1% of public junior high schools have introduced a placement programme called ‘Career Start Week’ in which pupils are able to experience a ‘real work environment’ for at least 5 consecutive days. At the same time, company managers are invited to make a speech at the schools. Teachers also have opportunities to experience various jobs through their training programmes so that they have the benefit of broader views when assisting pupils in considering their futures. The programme intends to nourish a view of labour and work from an early age. Other than that, each school level has its own vocational programmes through various measures. Higher education institutions have also introduced a programme of reviewing what students have been taught in their high school education, and this is especially useful for those who are not confident about their basic skills. A
small number of specialised schools were chosen as pilot study institutions and these have introduced a programme for NEET so that participants can develop their vocational skills in cooperation with NPOs, using school facilities. In this programme, a specialist in career development is assigned to each school and an attempt is made to deal with different kinds of individual cases. Additionally, a number of universities have encouraged students to participate in internship programmes in which they are interested. Responding to the initiatives of the central government, all local governments have started individual programs to implement the government policy, considering the most serious problems specific to their areas, e.g. high unemployment rate.

Some measures taken by various bodies

Along with creating programmes in line with the government’s initiatives, each of the individual NPOs has created their own programmes to solve the NEET issue as well. However, in catering for difficult youth problems, they have encountered a number of issues. Firstly, there is always the possibility of lack of finance, and, especially in cases which are not supported by the central government, this can led to the difficulty of finding continuous support. Since NPOs are ‘non-profit’ organisations, they are unable to seek to make a profit from their activities. However, once they devote themselves to assisting particularly difficult people, they eventually require a certain amount of financial support. That means there is a limit to what can be achieved due to the fact that the government has so far relied on local NPOs to cope with individual issues through their initiatives. There has been discussion about whether or not these NPOs that have taken part in assisting young people should be incorporated so that they can make profits to meet their financial needs. Thus, the need to develop an infrastructure has become pressing in recent years. Secondly, in most cases, local NPOs do not have enough staff to deal with the issues thoroughly. In fact, those working as trainers in various programmes have usually not fully taken any formal professional training programmes as yet, and each of the NPOs tends to rely on previous experience and skills which individuals have acquired so far. Therefore, it can be said that staff have difficult working conditions as well. As a result, it is essential for most of the NPOs to ask for help from local volunteers.

On the other hand, a pilot project was conducted between 2006 and 2007 at four community schools founded since the end of the Second World War in each of the municipalities under the government’s initiative. The project was started because the government’s recent report on lifelong learning (2004) proposed the improvement of vocational skills through making use of institutions for lifelong learning, and these are especially designed for those who are unable to find their true vocations or create normal relationships in society. Through this pilot study, local community schools, in cooperation with local educational committees, NPOs, companies, labour-related institutions and counsellors were encouraged to provide comprehensive measures to tackle NEET problems through parents and by taking preventative measures. The reason why the focus was placed on community schools was that such schools have taken a major role in strengthening voluntary activities and they
provide places for communication. In addition, their capital and facilities can be used to help eliminate NEET problems. Throughout the pilot study period, about 60 seminars were conducted for families who have NEETs as well as for NEET themselves.

As a result of this practice at local community schools, a place for communication was created between NEETs and other young people who were not NEET and the measures were introduced harmoniously and cooperatively, which was very useful for enhancing the young persons’ consciousness of self-development and helping them to share commonalities with each other. In addition, using local community schools has the extra advantage of finding new target groups and their families. Regular users of those institutions are also able to deepen and nourish their knowledge about NEET, and local people have started to recognize that it is their problems as well which need to be solved. It was also found that it is more difficult than expected to treat NEETs who have mental illnesses or developmental diseases, and their numbers are greater than expected. Many organizations for youth assistance require a network with other relevant institutions. It also appeared that NEET are more conscious about society than those who are non-NEET. Some NEET also expressed the view that they needed to understand the people surrounding them and also to understand themselves. Overall, using community schools to assist NEET was treated very positively. However, the community schools chosen for the pilot study confessed that it was extremely hard to contact those who were unaware or indifferent about what is going on outside their own world, even though they tried to spread the word about their seminars through various methods. So their prime task should be how to find the people with the most serious problems and ask them if they are willing to participate. At the same time, how to create an atmosphere where everyone felt comfortable to participate was another focal issue which needs to be tackled in the future. Also, it was pointed out that the overall data about NEET was scarce, making it hard for community schools to capture the whole picture. Therefore, follow-up reviews are required so that further research can be conducted on the basis of the outcomes of these pilot studies.

Other than these initiatives, some conspicuous challenges have been found in relation to digital technology. The website of ‘NEET support Navi’ was created to deliver various types of introductory movies including titles such as ‘How to improve listening skills’, ‘Career Design’, ‘How to develop communication skills’ etc to encourage young people to think about jobs and their futures. This website was organized by the Sodateage-Net, a famous NPO that is very keen on introducing various measures to encourage NEET. In collaboration with a company called ‘Synchro-Project’ it invites collaboration between NPOs nationwide and a national web counseling committee. Web counseling is a method used to communicate with the most difficult NEET, and its method of communication, i.e. TV phone or e-mail, is gradually becoming more popular. Sodateage-net has also launched an initiative to provide ‘money education’ by developing a special programme which was co-produced with GP Money. Thus, collaboration between public and private institutions is becoming a popular way of addressing the issue more comprehensively.
Main focuses in current discourses and some unexplored aspects

The prime concerns among researchers and practitioners can be outlined as follows. Firstly, many authors refer to the specific causes of producing NEET in current society. Though none of them has reached any single conclusion, the main discussions can be categorized into two. One is that the problem of NEET is a socially constructed norm, therefore it can be attributed to factors such as changes of structure in the labour market caused by economic slumps over the decades, diminished job opportunities, an insufficient safety net system, a lack of work ethics, lack of appropriate career education at school, or a collapse of the synergistic ‘triangle’ between family, companies and welfare etc. Most articles criticise the fact that while there is a tendency to underestimate the significance of the declining demand for youth labour and to overlook the significance of limited opportunities and structured disadvantage, the risk of social exclusion remains essentially privatised and is shouldered by the individual and his/her family. The other category tries to look at the issue rather more personally, but it mainly focuses on individual changes towards society in industrialized countries. Most of the authors in this category attribute the cause to lack of communication within the family, overprotection and excessive meddling by parents in their children’s lives, a lack of a sense of responsibility or motivation among young people, the declining function of communities as educators, psychological changes in young people towards society, excessive individualization, the increasing isolation of modern youth, and lack of citizenship education etc. Most authors suggest that these newly emerging issues are not directly concerned with the changes in the labour markets. Hence, the final goal of the affected individuals cannot be achieved merely by finding a job for each of them.

Secondly, there have been discourses, especially among social scientists about the ways in which NEETs are described in Japan and about peculiarities in current media reportage. In particular, it has been highlighted that current NEET discourses support the strengthening of a public ethos which regards education and work as the core of the ‘human condition’, whilst excluding people who cannot meet these conditions and removing their personal dignity. However, even among so-called NEET, there are many sub-types, such as those proceeding on to higher education, home helpers, the ailing, family carers, those preparing for work in the entertainment industry, and those preparing for marriage. Despite this, the deliberate agitation by the mass media tends to simplify the diverse situations among younger people and evaluates individuals simply on whether they are trying to find regular work in the formal economy. In reality, NEET are not limited to the young group aged 15-34. There has been a tendency that some groups of people who are over 35 have also fallen into the NEET category. Since a number of government measurements are designed for those aged 15-34, they are unable to take any national measurements. Thus, some researchers point out that current policies on NEET have targeted only a small subgroup of socially excluded youth in Japan who have not shown any strong motivation to work, but does not consider the overall picture of the
different situations and needs surrounding them. In order to investigate this viewpoint further, the most difficult problems are how to find and reach those NEETs who require assistance in their lives, as it is strongly predicted that some of them are completely unaware of what programmes are available.

Thirdly, some authors have suggested a new way to capture the current phenomenon, implying that the changing behaviors of the younger generation must not necessarily be seen in a negative light. For example, the current issue of NEET can be interpreted as young people delaying the start of a career, ever-expanding gap years, a tendency of young people to pursue their own individual lifestyles, or the emergence of new society etc. It is therefore suggested that society should accept in a positive light some uncertainties arising from the diversity and ambiguities of others and their ways of living.

Fourthly, some solutions are proposed in the light of the current weaknesses in tackling the problems. For example, the propriety of the present training or assistance programmes should be considered more deliberately since in some cases, the current programmes tend to interpret the word ‘independence’ as just a proxy for (entering) paid employment and attaining financial autonomy from parents, whilst neglecting the psychological and pedagogical aspects which it is important to consider for more favourable approaches. Moreover, the goals of assistance should not be limited to providing appropriate career education and training only; they also cover overall aspects to support individual life journeys for a longer period of time. Goals should include initiating a process of enriching individual lives and showing how to maintain favourable relationships with others at different life stages etc. Furthermore, it is urgently required to develop quantitative expansion in the numbers of trainers and improve their professional training. Needless to say, these efforts must be undertaken by placing an emphasis on stimulating demand for stable youth labour and creating opportunities with adequate pay and good conditions.

**Concluding Remarks**

The changing labour environment in Japan has prompted debates and measures on how to treat the emergence of ‘new’ ranks of young people who tend to be very uncertain about their future. A number of recent challenging measures have redefined these unstable young people as a legitimate target group for social policy. Though it is uncertain whether or not the present attempts have paid sufficient attention to the diverse realities of such individuals, some groups of people who are categorised as NEET have been influenced by the current measures, partly due to pressure from the mass media. It is pointed out that those categorized as ‘NEET’ should not necessarily be treated in a negative light, and some authors suggest possible solutions by taking the issue more positively. Current discourses have not seriously argued about issues such as how to develop trainer’s professional identities, or how to assist in individual learners’ changing attitudes over the long term by using appropriate psychological and/or pedagogical methodology, and have focussed merely on creating a route to work. In addition, since the present measures taken at different levels and by many parts of society largely owe their practical
implementation to local NPOs, the working conditions and lack of adequate financial assistance may be an issue for further consideration. It might be time for society to challenge this complex issue more comprehensively, inviting contributions from diverse delegates from different fields both within and outside the country. We should also start to reconsider what has been achieved by recent measures from wider perspectives.

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Introduction

Life can be understood as a path or a journey. In many cultures such concepts exist, for example the pilgrimage in the Christian culture, the ‘tao’ in the Chinese or the ‘do’ in the Japanese culture. These journeys are always connected to learning within daily life. In ancient thinking of life and education these forms of learning are very common, but modern concepts and theories of learning very often neglect them. However the understanding of life as a path or a journey matches very well the needs of learning in a changing world. ‘Selbstbildung’ is a concept for life-long learning which is based on the German ‘Bildungstheorie’ and is inspired by Asian concepts of learning as a path (‘do’). Within this concept, the acquirement of professional skills and competencies is directly linked with the development of personality.

The chapter describes the theoretical background and provides an insight into the practice of this learning concept by an example: a masters’ programme for educational leadership/ human resource management. Within this programme the work process on the one hand and daily life on the other hand mark the origin of the learning process. The objective is to encourage the participants to initiate a self-learning-process in which they can develop and use appropriate strategies to reflect on their own professional practice. The acquisition of ‘external’ skills which are necessary for coping with managerial situations becomes linked with the development of one’s own personality. The confrontation with professional tasks provides the opportunity for an integrated self-development in both personal and leadership terms.

‘Navigating through permanent white water’ —some remarks on the demands for learning in a changing world

We live in a world of change, this is well-known. Globalization, climate change, new technologies and so on are huge challenges for states and the community of states, for enterprises, for local authority districts and for every single one of us. In this world of rapid and comprehensive changes we all are acting in more and more complex, non-transparent situations. What we need is innovation instead of routine: developing creative solutions for continually new challenges. The American organizational-psychologist Peter B. Vaill (1998) appropriately calls the turbulent social and organizational conditions of today’s world ‘permanent white-water’. The common answer for this situation is lifelong
learning. Everybody who wants to master this world of change has to adopt to new requirements of this world –this is the common reason for lifelong learning. The crucial qualifications to master the permanent change are willingness and ability continue in continuous learning.

But what should people learn in order to master these challenges? Which knowledge, what kind of attitude and behaviour do they need? Is it primarily a question of ‘uploading’ the newest ‘knowledge-Update’ on our ‘mental hard disk’- as quickly as possible and at the lowest price, optimized by new learning technologies and self organized learning? In fact it is about much more than this. In the situation described above it is a matter of learning in a broader sense, a learning that is involving the whole person. If people navigating through this permanent white water want to stay on course, if they want to find orientation in the currents of change, they do not only need knowledge and skills. They also need persistence and a centre of stability within themselves. It is about values, about questions regarding the meaning of our living and acting, about responsibility and solidarity –in our private lives as well as in vocational learning. Learning for personal development is in demand.

Against this background it makes sense to look at lifelong learning from the theoretical point of view of ‘Bildung’ and to consider self organized learning as ‘Selbstbildung’. By means of an understanding of learning as ‘Bildung’ it is possible to focus those aspects of learning that are neglected very often but necessary in this world of change.

Theoretical Background

Centre of reference I: Western theory of ‘Bildung’

The classical theory of ‘Bildung’ is one possible centre of reference in regard to the concept of ‘Selbstbildung’. The following is based upon the German theory of ‘Bildung’, a specific interpretation of education which is founded on the Christian Philosophy and primarily the ideas of The Enlightenment. Essential impulses to pedagogical concepts were contributed to the 17th and 18th century, namely by Kant, Goethe, Humboldt and Schiller. These thoughts have become significant again today. ‘Bildung’ can be interpreted as a process of development which supports the finding and forming of one’s own individuality and personality. It is based upon the reasonable human ability to care and decide about her/his existence in a self-determined way and grounded on one’s own responsibility. This is certainly only possible within the frontiers of the fellow person’s right to self-determination. Self-determination refers to the ambition to gain self-restraint. ‘Bildung’ is a lifelong process which is directly linked with the individual and its responsibility (‘people educate themselves’ Von Hentig). The process does not only take place within the institutions of learning but also during spare time, on the job and other locations and times. Each job related challenge contains a chance to learn: ‘Life educates’ (Von Hentig).

Within the educational establishment ‘Bildung’ can only be initiated and supported. However the ability to educate oneself in a responsible way must be
developed in such learning situations which continuously offer possibilities to experience and gain self-determination. Therefore, the usage of special educational methods on the one hand and the selection of learning content on the other hand must match the requirements for the future process of self-development.

‘Bildung’ refers to the human environment which should help the individuals to be capable of competent, reasonable and responsible actions in situations (Kaiser, 1985). These actions can only be executed on the basis of objects. Subjective development is only possible in argument with an objective counterpart. ‘Bildung’ therefore demands the acceptance of tasks just like they arise in professional everyday life and in vocational training. Learning processes should be reflexive in regard to own thinking, feeling, acting rather experiences and the linkage with the overall sense. This implies a critical state of mind arguing with social and working realities, learning and acting expectations and hegemonic conventions. It also implies to go beyond common rules in order to reflect on new possibilities of human life and work and to strive for these.

**Centre of reference II: Eastern martial arts**

There is a long tradition in the Asian culture to practice certain arts such as Ikebana, water colouring, tea ceremonies and especially martial arts. These arts aim at the inner transformation which can be achieved by practicing. They are therefore called paths (‘do’) which is expressed in arts like judo, aikido, karatedo. The Japanese word ‘do’ refers to Zen Buddhism, meaning way, path, life, philosophy, direction, principle, method. It stands for a principle of Asian ideology. ‘Do is a path, which centres practising, and does not aim at learning a special ability but at enhancing the individuals’ potential in order to develop self-determination and to fulfil life with consciousness and insight’ (Lind 1992, p. 15).

The primary goal of practice is the inner transformation of the individual. The striving toward perfection is a fight for personal maturity. A person is practicing in order to grow (see Lind 1992, p. 25). The performed art is a possibility to come into one’s own. The martial arts serve a high ideal of the path: ‘The practice of martial arts needs techniques but focuses on the ego. In the amount the abilities grow you have to replace the egoistic strive toward acceptance with humility, modesty and adaption. Budo is a way of life, a constant experience in association with oneself which leads to be more open, healthy and balanced. Choosing such a path the individual’s techniques does not serve a special purpose but it is a practice tying to the highest ideal’ (Lind 1992, p. 27). ‘Do’ equals a path in two ways (Deshimaro). On the one hand individuals practice techniques and abilities. On the other hand individuals work on their own inner attitude and inner growing. In the sense of a lifelong striving and achieved compliance the Asian saying ‘the way is the goal’ can be understood. However this path does not focus on individuals but on a universalistic principle which embeds humans in an overall context (see Ueshiba 1993, p. 11). Considering these aspects martial arts can be seen as an educational programme that aims at achieving general-education goals. The Japanese principle ‘do’ in the human strive to perfectionism and individual growth contains a variety of similarities to ‘Bildung’. To ‘be on the way’ is also known in the Christian tradition and
may offer a connection between east and west. Gabriel Marcel talks about a person as ‘homo viator’ who understands life as a pilgrimage and her/himself as pilgrim through creation and on the way to the Lord of the creation (see Marcel 1949).

‘Selbstbildung’: Daily live and work as a path for practice

‘Selbstbildung’ is a design concept of lifelong learning. The path of life and the occupational career, with all its swaying, with success and failure, can be understood as a journey to develop us as a person. This is not only a matter of knowledge and skills, but also a matter of values and attitudes.

It is the learning person who is responsible for this process. Who if not the learner should control the lifelong process of personal development? Teacher, lecturers, trainers, coaches can support the process, but it is the learner who is responsible for her/his own development. Formal teachings and certificates matter, but the crucial factor is the person her/himself. The self-reliant adult uses organized educational offerings, but s/he takes her/his choices against the background of her/his own development objectives and her/his own aims in life.

Education targets at the capacity to act within situations (Kaiser 1985). But the situations of daily life and work are opportunities to develop this capacity to act. The essence of ‘Selbstbildung’ is the attitude, to understand the path of one’s life as a path to learn. Every situation, a person has to master, can be viewed as an opportunity for learning. Every task of our everyday life and our professional lives offers chances for learning. If one considers it as a ‘double path’, then it is not only a matter of developing skills and knowledge, but a matter of personality. The acquirement of knowledge and skills gets connected with the development of one’s own personality.

For this it is crucial to seize the opportunities for learning within our lives. We develop ourselves by accepting every task as an offer for learning. We should act in order to perform the task as good as possible. This is the path to develop ourselves. Our work becomes a ‘path’ (or ‘do’), if we search for situations with challenges and opportunities for learning and if we use these for our own development.

‘Selbstbildung’ means to search for such situations that offer learning opportunities. But we do not choose all the everyday occurrences of our lives, most of them befall us. We find ourselves in situations full of resistance and difficulties: we go through crises and fail. But even these situations can help us to develop our abilities and personality. They query us and push us to our limits. Finding solutions may require not only professional skills, but also personnel competence: perseverance and staying power, robustness –or soft giving way, letting go, flexibility… When professional situations are interpreted and used as learning opportunities, it also implies to deal with the unplanned, with events and situations that occur spontaneously and unforeseen, ranging from the desirable via the adverse to the massively detrimental. It takes a special attitude towards life to also understand such situations as learning opportunities. This attitude itself can be a target of learning and to constantly be practiced. Thus,
Selbstbildung includes viewing everything that happens under the point-of-view of learning. The leading questions are:

- What can I learn from what I’m doing at the moment?
- How can I do what I’m doing now, in such a way, that I can learn something from it?
- What can I learn from that, which is befalling me?

By this it means that work and life are becoming a practice in the sense of the ‘do’ as a path to self-development. Every pace of work and life can be understood as a practice, like in ZEN: ‘ZEN is a means, to learn, how to view life as a practice. … We can everything, we do, understand as a practice, that helps us, to get self fulfilled’ (Ritskes, 1993, S. 19).

Example: The Master course “Bildungsmanagement” (Educational leadership) at the Pedagogical University of Ludwigsburg

How can formal education stimulate the above described process of Selbstbildung? By what means can formal education programmes for adult learners get connected with non-formal, self-directed learning at the workplace or in daily life? This will be shown in the following by an example from higher education.

The Masters’ Study course in educational leadership is intended for executive and junior managerial staff in the education sector. It aims to convey and train the general skills and knowledge necessary to fulfil managerial and executive functions. Professional competence comprises sub-competences in the social, personnel, technical and methodological fields. To carry out managerial functions successfully, it is not sufficient simply to have comprehensive knowledge (for instance, of communication processes) at one’s disposal. It is necessary in addition to be able to put this knowledge into practice in appropriate situations requiring interaction (e.g. in conversation and dialogue with other staff). The study course expressly aims to account for these communicative dimensions. It is located in the space between the theoretical standards expected of an academic course, on the one hand, and the demands of practice-relevant transferable learning on the other, (which among other things also requires intensive training of practical competences in dialogue training).

Learning from Differences: The project is particularly characterized by the fact that three practical areas are addressed and accounted for within the course-range on offer: adult education, school education, and company training. Themed ‘learning from differences’ the course brings together teachers, adult education instructors and those responsible for company training schemes. Varied professional qualifications and biographies mean that participants bring with them to the course elements from cultural backgrounds of completely diverse systems. In this way training and management topics can be approached in an authentic manner from the holistic perspective of lifelong learning on the basis of broad and genuine experience and education.

Project structure: The course is designed and carried out by an association of organizations. Under the aegis of Ludwigsburg pedagogical University, the following institutions are involved: the Baden-Württemberg Managerial Academy, the Baden-Württemberg Company Education Trust, the Education Trust of the
Diocese of Rottenburg-Stuttgart, and the University of Hohenheim. In addition there is also a close co-operative tie to the Ministry of Culture and Education of the Federal State of Baden-Württemberg. Co-operation by representatives of the project partners in conception and planning, as well as the involvement of teaching staff from the associated organizations, ensures that the course is connected with and relevant to managerial and educational practice in the three fields concerned, i.e. adult education, the private economy and school.

**Study Organization and methodological Architecture:** The course is designed on a part-time work-tandem basis, and intended to cater for working participants from the whole of Germany and beyond. In order to do justice to the individual personal and professional situations of the participants, as well as taking account of the high-grade content and learning objectives of the course, a blended learning conception was developed, combining and integrating various study-forms and media, such as face-to-face seminars, correspondence study-packages, and e-learning (cf. Müller, 2008 and Iberer/ Wippermann/ Müller 2008). Three face-to-face phases per semester take place in the form of compact seminars. Between these seminar phases the students learn self directed (self learning phase) and transfer their knowledge (transfer phase). During these periods the participants acquire new knowledge in preparation for the next topic field, they reflect on their daily professional life, test the transferability of course contents in relation to their own fields of educational or management practice, and work on problems and tasks concerning the inter-relationship of theory and practice. They maintain contact to each other and to their instructors via the e-learning platform of the course. Correspondence materials and e-learning help them to prepare seminar phases and deal with post-seminar assignments. The self-learning and transfer phases constitute a bridge between the professional practice of the participants and the study-course. All participants are employed in educational institutions or departments. This occupational process is the basis of the learning process and is thus one of the most important resources of the course. The following illustration gives an overview of the didactic and methodological architecture:

**Didactic-methodological architecture**

The main objective of the study course is the conveying and training of general interactive competence for managerial functions. The participants have already acquired technical competence and pedagogical skills in their first degree study courses and/or through their professional experience.

Against this background, a didactic-methodological design was developed to train managerial competence through holistic, interactive and process-oriented learning which is essential under the individual control of the participants themselves. Course content and teaching and learning methods must provide sufficient free space to enable a highly heterogeneous body of students with high expectations to determine the finer adjustments to their own professional practice and biography themselves.

The course utilizes three distinct levels of learning: learning in practice, self-learning and transfer phases, and seminar periods. In the context of the general
methodological architecture portrayed, a multiplicity of distinct methodological elements are used. Within the framework of the education management course, procedural considerations have a double function. On the one hand, of course, there is the conveyance of business management content and objectives, such as budgeting and book-keeping. But in addition to this technical side there is also the function of teaching and learning methodological competence (cf. Selzer 2001). By learning and working within the context of blended-learning architecture (aspiring) education managers experience a new learning culture and so receive the opportunity of reflecting upon it. The following illustration gives an overview of the didactic and methodological architecture and some selected methods (cf. Müller 2008, S. 85):

*Selbstbildung*: Learning in practice

All participants are employed in education institutions or departments. A considerable number of participants additionally have managerial experience. This work process is the basis of the learning process. Within the course participants receive a variety of suggestions as to how they can get to grips with task functions and problem issues from their own professional practice. They work on individual learning projects from their own professional practice and use the arising interaction situations for their own technical and personal development. The objective is to encourage participants to initiate a self-learning-process in which they can use appropriate strategies and procedures to reflect on their own professional practice. By relating these to conditions for their own personal and individual development, they purposefully construct their own learning process.
A typical situation and chance for Selbstbildung of leaders is a critical dialogue with a difficult employee, which is rich of conflict potential. Under the perspective of Selbstbildung, it is not just got over with quickly, just to defuse the situation. It means to ask the key question: ‘What can I learn from this situation?’

In the sense of personality development, this may imply for a participant to develop a more relaxed attitude, an ‘elastic firmness’ in handling situations where there is resistance and adversity, while for someone else it may mean to overcome an inner ‘harmony-orientation’ towards others which is too strong and hampers direct action. In this case an important learning effect is to reach a point where the conflict is not avoided but sought-after purposefully and solved actively. This needs practice and training.

The participants of the master course gain various impulses in order to initiate a process of self-determination. That implies the clarification of one’s own understanding of oneself and the specific role (e.g. work on a personal vision, idols, reflection of own experiences and so forth),

- the clarification of one’s own educational needs (e.g. with the help of critical situations, competence profiles)
- the conception of one’s own development process (e.g. with an individual learning plan)
- performance (e.g. verifying questions and hypotheses with reality, receiving feedback, see Müller 1998, p. 195).

To support these processes even more methods are being used:

**Learning diary**

In these kinds of self-organized learning process, a learning diary can be a source of great support (cf. Alsheimer/Müller 1999, Müller 2004). Students record important experiences, observations, successes and failures, questions, issues and problems, etc. In fact they carry on a dialogue with themselves on important issues which occupy them mentally in the course of their daily professional life and learning. The process of writing supports and focuses reflection and thus assists in ordering and comparing experiences, making the subconscious partly conscious –and often has an additionally positive effect in reducing the emotional stress. Diary records constitute a document that make an individual and personal development comprehensible over a longer period of time.

Keeping a diary can constitute a general methodological cornerstone, connecting the various levels of learning with one another. It is introduced in the seminar phase and then runs parallel to self-organized learning, internships and projects. In this way important issues addressed first of all by participants alone in their diaries can be taken up during coaching and subjected to more in-depth treatment. The writing process serves digestion of both practical experience and theoretical knowledge. It is therefore here that in a certain way the subjective theories of the students materialize themselves and slowly broaden into personal experience and knowledge.
Coaching

What is particularly accentuated in the course is the development of personal competences as the basis of successful management. For this reason continuous personal coaching is an integral part of the course, taking place in two of the three seminar phases per semester. The coaching itself is done by professionals. A whole course of students is divided into equal groups of ten participants, who stay together for coaching during the course of at least a year. The principle of ‘learning from differences’ is also applied to the coaching process; groups are formed in such a way that provides the opportunity to gain more profound insight into the professional daily life of participants in fields different from one’s own. The cultural differences between these fields are displayed in a very prominent way and encourage rich learning experience.

Coaching provides effective guidance and support on issues arising in the professional practice of the participants. Learning and working experience from the self-learning and transfer phases, as well as from participants’ own working day, can be reflected upon in the group. Support is thus provided for the individual’s development process in a personal and managerial sense. In addition ideas and suggestions are conveyed regarding the application of coaching methods and other coaching elements to students’ own managerial and educational work (cf. also Schweizer 2001).

Through the described elements of teaching and learning we strive to achieve a steady process of ‘Selbstbildung’ which is self directed by the participants and takes place at their workplace and in daily life. We hope the participants continue this process after they have completed their studies.

References


31. **Spaces of Learning: The Challenges of Policy Frameworks for the Personal and Professional Identities of Adult Educators in England; Thoughts from an Action Research Project**

Teresa Cairns

**Introduction**

With the imperative for Skills for Life (SfL) practitioners working in the Life Long Learning (LLL) sector in England to maintain their training portfolios, spaces for conversations about the relationship between research and practice in adult learning are becoming increasingly limited. Yet, despite this pressure, there exists interest from practitioners in closing the gap between related research and practice. In Brighton, the Community University Partnership Project (CUPP) at Brighton University has provided funding for a small action research project to explore ways to facilitate the ‘spaces in between’, to promote dialogue and exchanges between researchers and practitioners in adult education, and to explore ways to facilitate this over the longer term.

This paper will explore the UK Skills for Life policy agenda, its implications for adult education practitioners’ professional identities and the outcomes in terms of the production of a required professional profile. I will draw upon conversations with practitioners and researchers in order to engage with the idea of ‘informal spaces’ for learning and the development of theory and practice alongside the dominant policy discourse in professional development. This chapter represents an initial analysis of issues, is work in progress and at present is relatively untheorised.

**Skills for Life Policy background**

The Skills for Life policy agenda in the UK focuses on the acquisition of competence in language, literacy and numeracy by adult learners in order to equip individuals with perceived Basic Skills needs to meet the demands and requirements of employers, welfare agencies and education providers. Sir Claus Moser’s 1999 report, ‘A Fresh Start’, investigated the issue of poor basic skills amongst adults in England and proposed a National Strategy to address the problem with national staged targets. The Moser Report provided the outline for the SfL strategy for England, launched in 2001 with a funding regime (a Public Service Agreement and Delivery Plan) based on the numbers of adults achieving improved skills and gaining national qualifications. The SfL strategy, intended to be ‘rolled out’ over a decade to 2010, includes:

- A new teaching and learning infrastructure for adult basic skills.
- National standards and Core curricula.
- National qualifications for learners.
- Specific targets for the numbers of learners engaged in basic skills learning opportunities and for achievement of the new national qualifications for learners.
- A new qualifications framework for teaching in the Lifelong Learning (LLL) sector that will contribute to the registration and regulation of ‘licensed practitioners’ through Qualified Teacher Learning and Skills (QTLS) and Associate Teacher Learning and Skills (ATLS) status.
- Comprehensive professional development programmes with, from 2008, a legal requirement on practitioners to participate in 30 hours pro-rata of professional development per year in order to maintain their licence to teach.
- An overarching funding and inspection framework based on the achievement of national targets locally delivered.

Government documents giving guidance on the implementation of the Skills for Life strategy indicate the centrality of teachers in delivering the targets for participation in SfL provision by adult learners. A key element of the strategy has been the development of a new framework of qualifications for teachers delivering literacy, numeracy and ESOL. The documents acknowledge the contribution to adult learning made by teachers of literacy, language and numeracy skills as:

[A]mong the most dedicated and passionate of all teachers, but for too long they have been on the margins of the teaching profession. For the first time, we have taken step to change that by ensuring they have the same access and opportunities as those who teach other disciplines. We are setting teachers clear expectations for literacy, language and numeracy teaching (Skills for Life; Focus on Delivery to 2007; 29).

Issues from the SfL policy agenda impacting on practitioners

- Screening tests used to identify people with Basic skills needs identify levels of competence and indicate the remediation needed. This process of assessment sets up what many researchers and adult education practitioners recognise as a deficit model that focuses on what people cannot do and the negative consequences of the deficit for individuals and wider society.
- The pressure on training organisations and education providers to deliver SfL targets for which they receive (or not!) payment has reinforced the promotion and identification of individual deficit.
- A key argument in the development of occupational standards and a national training and accreditation framework for the Lifelong Learning (LLL) sector has been the perceived need to ensure the workforce was sufficiently trained in order to improve the quality and outcomes of programme delivery, particularly in the Further (FE) and voluntary and community sector.
- In conversations with voluntary sector project managers and workers who work across a range of marginalised groups: young people at risk of exclusion from education, drug users, single parents, those with mental
health needs, the unemployed, the homeless, the key factor for them
in recruiting and keeping staff is to find people who empathise, engage
and motivate their client groups and can work with difficult situations and
behaviour. The majority of these workers, up to now, have not been qualified
or have only limited qualifications for teaching Basic Skills.

– An experienced Family Learning programme manager articulated the
impact of the new qualifications’ framework for LLL practitioners when she
predicted that the Family Learning Team would lose good tutors because
they would choose not to up-grade their qualifications due to the part time
nature of their work and the low level of remuneration available to them
–it would not be worth the aggravation of giving up significant periods of
time to do so. Without the new qualifications the tutors would be unable to
continue to teach in Family Learning.

Practitioner Case Studies

Below, I use two case studies to explore some of these issues and identify points
of tension that emerge from the narratives; one with an experienced numeracy tutor
in a voluntary and community education provider; the other an experienced teacher
trainer based in a local FE college. I recorded both interviews and transcribed them
into written form and asked the interview participants to comment, clarify or make
additions to their text; I use pseudonyms having asked both participants whether
they wished to be anonymised, which both requested. Italics are used to indicate
extracts from the actual interviews, and […] brackets are used to indicate editing.
While both narratives were offered in the knowledge of the research I was carrying
out, the analysis and conclusions are my responsibility alone.

Simon

Simon is a numeracy tutor, who works for a local adult and community education
provider. He also teaches English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) and,
unusually for a numeracy tutor in adult education, has a maths degree. Simon
has worked in a variety of situations before coming to adult education and in his
narrative he emphasises his experience by reference to his voluntary work:

“I’ve been involved in teaching for perhaps… 6 years, including a stack
of voluntary work… at the very start…”

He acknowledges the structure offered by the SfL programme and the
way it had developed to provide a set of coherent interlinked resources for
practitioners, and also refers to his own development within this framework:

“I suppose the feeling was that this was something evolving, a
framework that was evolving…and I suppose I evolved with it[...]”

Early in Simon’s narrative he discusses the value to his own professional
development of recent subject-specific training (the City and Guilds certificate
9486 in teaching adult numeracy):

“I thought that was a really good course for me…[...] didn’t like it
straight off, but as the course went on I actually found it [...] did
broaden and strengthen my views as to what good numeracy teaching was about... beyond just the subject matter but what it means in terms of people’s lives...that training programme, but not just the training programme but what I was able to take from there and put into practice in the classroom at the same time and after, making me more aware of the people in the classroom and their circumstances [...] their motives for doing numeracy classes and what they hope they might be doing next...."

In this extract Simon registers a significant change in his own professional teaching expertise, and signals a sense of illumination and enabling as he views his students and his practice anew. This is a trope that is repeated at intervals throughout his narrative as he returns to his experience on the City and Guilds (C&G) course, thus indicating the significance of his participation for his developing sense of identity as an adult educator. The threading of this story element throughout Simon’s narrative underlines the potentially transformational nature of well-considered professional training programmes for practitioners.

While this trope recurs repeatedly throughout Simon’s professional narrative, he also introduces an underlying note of discord at the new requirement for LLL practitioners to maintain their training profile through participation, and maintenance of evidence of participation in, 30 hours of continuing professional development (CPD) annually: I suppose I have mixed feelings about that. However, he reiterates the value and need to continually learn and develop:

“[...] I quite like the idea that people carry on taking an interest in things and developing[...] and evolving, changing, growing.... So, I quite like the idea that we would do that anyway [...] its something to be encouraged [...] you know, why stop[...]”

He then qualifies this enthusiasm and critiques the manner in which training programmes had been offered. In this section, Simon indicates a sense of imposition that has removed his personal agency from the process of learning and developing, in language contrasting sharply with his earlier rejoicing in the possibility of lifelong learning:

“So, let’s think about the training courses... to some extent, as you go along through the work you become aware of areas where you could do with more input, or development or more training or more contact with somebody who knows about that sort of thing...and that you can become aware for yourself when you feel the need for ...further development and it might not be when the time is proscribed for you from above, [...] my fear, as these courses were being built in, that we’d be made to do them one after another like on a conveyor belt system... so to spent 5 yrs studying intensively on all these things then the next 15yrs forgetting it all...

so, I suppose that was a reservation... I think there’s something about the [...] way changes were communicated to people working in the field [...] there were a lot of people who thought, ‘well, I’m already doing my harthest to do reasonably well in my job [...] and all of a
sudden I’m being told I have to do this and this and this’ […] I think to some extent it was demoralising […] for many people, perhaps, as though it rather undermined their work and their capacity to do their work…particularly people who’d been in the field much longer than me, who’d worked in other teaching environments as well[...]

This extract indicates the complexity underlying Simon’s unease at the new training frameworks that impact upon his professional practice and that of his colleagues. His narrative suggests a general sense of embattlement, within a process of change that is viewed as problematic, and is experienced by practitioners as disempowerment and anger:

“I’d hear quite a lot of people, say, in their 50s, talking about retiring… that was something I used to hear a lot…rather than go through another programme of training…I suppose that’s more the training courses which are big blocks of time… they take up a lot of time and that’s difficult to manage… I think there was something wrong in the way these changes were broadcast... but it had that effect because there wasn’t a great deal of information…. It was all whispers […]Yea, people didn’t know where they stood and it had a demoralising effect, I felt. …but for me […] I digested the thing a bit better when people… made it a little clearer to me why these training programmes were in place… and .. apparently there was a need for people around basic skills teaching to up their own personal skills for example, in the subject areas they were teaching… like me, a lot of people came in the back door […] but informally it was pointed out to me that there was a sort of general need to up people’s own personal knowledge… that a lot of people perhaps had holes that needed plugging… and I did…and do…and so, at some point the whole idea was made more acceptable to me, but for a long time I didn’t think the idea was very, very acceptable to people and it had a demoralising effect”

In an essay exploring the effects of restructuring in the US school system on one dedicated high school teacher, Ivor Goodson argues that ‘implicit in the reforms is a notion that many teachers are inadequate and need to be put to work in a more targeted and rigorous way’ (Goodson, 2006: 258). Simon’s narrative echoes this as he indicates the complex pressures on practitioners to deliver within an outcome-focused learning programme (SfL) and the apparent dismissal of experience that is unaccredited or that has older, vocational accreditation.

Simon signals a change early in 2008 when the national training and development initiatives took a more local approach to professional development:

“…I think also… at some point they started canvassing […] about what tutors in the area might need…and I think that was a change… I think, maybe at the beginning of this year, at the beginning of 2008 maybe […] what tutors needs were, what qualifications they had, what qualifications they might be expected to get, what the numbers of these people might be and what could be provided …. And perhaps in what time scales even…whereas, prior to that it all was a bit piecemeal,
courses would be offered then withdrawn through lack of numbers, or it was suggested you might go to London or Crawley or somewhere... and fit this in within a regular teaching week... so... it became a bit more... concerted..."

Simon’s narrative turns to an exploration of his own sense of agency within the training framework in which he suggests a tension between participating in training when it was the right time for him, and the pressure to pursue specific qualifications in order to acquire the required accreditation profile now needed within the LLL sector. This is a repeated motif that emphasises the centrality of this tension and the debate around his professional identity and sense of purpose and achievement as an adult educator:

“that C&G 9486 course [...] did help me to tackle an area where I was quite weak...now I did... a C&G 7407...which is like the 1st year of a Cert Ed...but it’s also a free-standing qualification...its one that, circumstances paved the way, I felt the need for more training... a course place popped up and I went... and I stopped and I didn’t carry on, like many people doing the course, to do a...2nd year of a Cert Ed... because I felt it had been a very good course ... I then wanted to spend time putting into practice... I didn’t really feel... that I wanted to go on and do a 2nd year of a Cert Ed...and I didn’t...I sometimes kick myself... yes, for a while later I did kick myself...yes, when this panic set in about ‘oh, you’ve got to have this mounting series of qualifications that you’re supposed to have with goal posts receding into the distance’... did kick myself afterwards for not doing that 2nd...but in fact, my thinking was right I now believe... at the time it seemed right to spend more time in the classroom practicing what I had learnt on the 7407...rather than spending less time in the classroom and more time doing training [...] I made the choice that I made...though later on I may have been ...I may have thought, ‘Oh dear, why did I do that?’...actually, now thinking back ... I am alright with that and at some point I would like to go back and do the 2nd year of that Cert Ed. [...] I would feel happier going back to it, say, next September even... September beyond... because now... there are areas in work where I feel’ ‘Oh, I could do with...’ [...] but I don’t think its good that tutors should be driven into a feeling of being cornered by feeling they haven’t gathered up enough qualifications... which is what started to happen to me a little bit... ‘Ooh, I never got the 2nd year of a Cert Ed and now I know I’ve got to get a level 4 numeracy and a level 5 ESOL and a ...’ you know, whatever else may be added on...so... you know, I think there was this kind of fear mongering to some extent...which rather detracts from the purpose and value of training if its being done out of compulsion...rather than being driven by... personal need... amongst other things”.

The current focus within SfL on diagnostic assessment is reflected in Simon’s comments on reasons for returning to training:

“... one of the areas I’m thinking about is assessment methods again... this is a topic that comes up, you know, periodically, isn’t it? And that’s
kind of on my mind at the moment and I know its probably an area that would get focussed on quite sharply in the 2nd year of a Cert Ed...and I could probably make something meaningful for myself ....because it would come out of practice and I would have a motive...”

In talking through the value of returning to the 2nd yr of the Certificate of Education (teaching qualification) with increased experience and therefore the ability to make more of the opportunities offered, he indicates the value of embedding his personal training programme within his own sense of his experience and his personal reflections on developing his practice. He reasserts a need to retain agency and determine for himself what training he does rather than have it dictated for him.

Kate

Kate is a teacher trainer in a local further education college with significant experience both as a trainer and more recently as a subject learning coach, for which she qualified 2 years ago. As part of the SfL improvement programme, Kate has developed a preparation course for numeracy teachers with funding from the National Research and Development Centre (NRDC) for SfL. She runs informal weekly resource sessions for maths and numeracy tutors in the college:

“I do that every Wednesday...if anyone cant make that time I plan individual sessions...so within our college there are opportunities for anybody teaching maths... somebody who’s just having to teach key skills or just suddenly having to teach basic skills and they think ‘I haven’t done this before, help!’... and that’s where I come in...”

Kate indicates the tensions that basic skills practitioners have to deal with within the FE system:

“people [...]needing to teach basic or key skills [...]are teachers who [...] are often the least confident and managers often think that teaching numeracy is dead easy...if you can do it yourself you can teach it....& it think most teachers would find that that’s absolutely not true and I’ve known teachers who’ve tried to do it thinking “I’m very confident’ but found then that [...] its actually quite difficult”.

Practitioners within the LLL sector have a wide range of formal qualifications and informal experience and knowledge, and significant sections of the sector workforce could arguably be characterised as non-traditional learners. Reflecting on the conversations and interviews I have carried out so far in this research, the professional development practices associated with the SfL strategy could be viewed as ‘wounding learning practices’ (Wojecki, 2007: 169), which have turned some adult education practitioners into ‘reluctant learners’ themselves. Kate indicated such a possibility in her account of one of her numeracy trainees:

“someone who’s in my preparation class [...] when she phoned me she said, ‘I’ve got my Cert Ed, I don’t know why I have to get this! My students are passing their tests, why do I need to do it? [...] part of that was anxiety [...] I think it was because her personal maths skills she was concerned about [...] many of these teachers have got
...barely an O Level [...] but possibly when you get down to the core, it could be ....their own lack of confidence in their personal maths[...]
I'm convinced its probably a major issue [...] I've had people [...] they've been teaching numeracy for some time and when I give them a self-assessment sheet I could sense this...'Oh my god! Can I do that?' [...] I think that can be quite a barrier”.

Kate indicates the difficult position that teacher educators involved in developing and delivering the range of qualifications linked to teaching on the LLL sector can find themselves in, as adult educators themselves, dealing with other educators whose sense of professional identity is under threat, but also as teacher trainers who have to interpret and deliver new qualifications they are unfamiliar with:

“...but [...] they've completely changed how the whole thing is assessed so that its much more difficult to ... to map it across... to work out how I'm going to deliver it ...the Level 4 was straight forward... it's a list of contents... I can see ... ' I know how to do this, this and this' and fit it all in [...] some of its very straightforward [...] but then you look at something else...[the Level 5 element] but, 'wait a minute... a whole year's work has got to go into that....how am I going to put it together?'... and that's going to be the big challenge ...trying to work it out....”

Kate also suggests the isolating and pressured experience of working at the interface between practitioners and the implementation of new professional qualification frameworks:

“there's going to be some free professional support, so I emailed a split second back to say 'yes please!' .... So that's where I'm going to get my support from as it's certainly ... I don't know where else to go...”

The difficulties in working in the ‘spaces in between’ to encourage a re-engagement between research and practice that is not merely instrumental in its outlook, are manifest in Kate’s comments regarding a potential informal network to facilitate this:

“there is a network already set up [...] and in this particular college any maths teachers already have a space to discuss how you teach maths and what do you do...there would have to be a very good reason for teachers in this college to go outside of that [...] so what would worry me is having too many of these things where people think...'oh no! not another one, I can't go to that’”

She is not hostile, but concerned about her own struggle to encourage engagement with training and with the SfL strategy by practitioners within her FE college.

The possibilities for facilitating ‘spaces in between’ have been complicated by the legislative and practical demands on practitioners to deliver learner targets and their own required professional development. Although Simon is supportive of opportunities to share practice in the LLL sector between research and teaching practitioners: I don’t think it can be a luxury, he is equally reticent about the issues of time and priorities.
Some initial reflections

– In circumstances where adult educators’ own professional identities are under threat either real or perceived, what are the implications for their work in facilitating the learning of adult learners?

– If practitioners operate with a deficit model of basic skills needs rather than the positive abilities of their learners, they also perceive themselves as lacking in ability, as having major gaps in knowledge (Simon’s personal ‘gaps’), rather than areas of expertise. The language they use to describe their own skills echoes that used to describe the ‘lack’ in learners.

– The deficit model of learners within the SfL agenda rolls over into a deficit model of practitioners who lack formal teaching qualifications and, by implication, learners receive sub-standard teaching.

– CPD tends to be about delivery and practice; spaces for engaging with research and exploring ideas more widely are squeezed by both the requirement and the provision of often very instrumental, delivery-focused training, important and valuable though they are.

– The tensions between the acknowledged need for coherence in training and development frameworks in the LLL sector in England and the delivery frameworks of the SfL strategy have implications for continued creative practice on the boundaries, along the margins of formal systems that can critically question the status quo.

– What happens to those spaces when, as Kate articulates, the training agenda renders them invisible or marginal? Concerns she voices for good reasons, but which, nonetheless, indicate the pressured and sometimes embattled situation of practitioners across the sector. How can they be rendered more visible?

Some final thoughts

Kathryn Ecclestone signals the importance of engaging critically with the implications of policy pressures within adult education and the necessity to:

“…offer positive images of learners and pedagogy, in contrast to images all too common in policy discourses about targets for participation, retention and achievement across the education system, which depict those refusing or unable to do these as ‘demotivated’, disaffected’ or vulnerable’ (Ecclestone, 2007: 129).”

She further underlines the necessity to

“…counter the instrumental way in which policies turn agency into choice and decision-making where individuals ‘maximise’ use and calculate coats and benefits. Not only does this not reflect choice, action and outcomes; it enables policy makers to recast agency as responding ‘appropriately’ to opportunities ‘offered’ by policy (Ecclestone, 2007: 129).”
References


32. SHIFTING THE DISCOURSE: MEDIATING PROFESSIONAL IDENTITIES IN A PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY
Aileen Ackland

Introduction

In this chapter I discuss the pilot phase (2006-2008) of a new professional development programme for Adult Literacies tutors in Scotland which aimed to facilitate the negotiation of professional identity. The discussion is informed by: ongoing research into the processes of change in the adult literacies field in Scotland (Ackland, 2006), which utilises the methodological framework of Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 2003); experience in curriculum development for the Scottish TQAL Consortium; and evidence from the evaluation of the pilot TQAL programme.

The Scottish Adult Literacy and Numeracy policy (Scottish Executive, 2001) explicitly promotes a social practices perspective of literacies (for a summary of this perspective see Papen, 2005). The TQAL (Teaching Qualification: Adult Literacies) programme was introduced to improve the quality of teaching and learning by embedding this theoretical perspective in practice and to contribute to the professionalisation of the field. Developed and delivered by a consortium of HE and FE institutions, the pilot programme brought together practitioners from a range of educational contexts across Scotland. The blended learning programme connected four geographically dispersed study groups in a shared virtual learning environment – a ‘knowledge building community’ (Swan & Shea, 2005: 6) in which they could discuss, collaborate and negotiate new meanings of professionalism.

Before reflecting on the programme, I will begin by sketching the Scottish context of Adult Literacies in which it was located. My argument is that the tensions in the altered field of practice necessitated the negotiation of a new professional identity.

The Epistemological break

The publication of the Adult Literacy and Numeracy in Scotland report (ALNIS) in 2001 marked a radical shift in the topography of the field of practice and may

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1 The Scottish TQAL Consortium consists of the Universities of Aberdeen, Dundee & Strathclyde, Cardonald and Forth Valley Further Education Colleges, and two representatives from the field. It is contracted by Learning Connections, Scottish Government, to develop and deliver the new TQAL qualification.
be viewed as an epistemological break in the tradition of literacies education in Scotland. The report proposed a distinctive approach to adult literacies:

“The Scottish approach adopts a social practice model, which sees literacies as key dimension of community regeneration and a part of the wider lifelong learning agenda. (http://www.scotland.gov.ukTopics/Education/Life-Long-Learning/17551 [accessed 31/10/08]).”

Literacy and numeracy are acknowledged as ‘skills whose sufficiency may only be judged within a specific social, cultural, economic or political context’ (Scottish Executive, 2001; 7). The report asserts that learners should be supported to develop their own situated uses of literacies. This approach contrasts sharply with a traditional deficit model of literacy and numeracy which focuses on narrow decontextualised skills and what people need to know. The new policy statement heralded a change of circumstances for literacies practitioners. Unprecedented levels of funding were invested in local partnerships, on the basis that reaching the most marginal learners required ‘collaboration and synergy of effort across all sectors’ (Leavey, 2005: 23). Organisations which had previously operated in isolation and according to their own distinctive cultures and institutional objectives were induced into new social relations (Cardini, 2006) through funding mechanisms which encouraged the redefinition (made possible by the broader conception of ‘literacies’) of a wide range of educational provision as adult literacies work.

The ALNIS report also called for professionalisation. It promised ‘national training standards’ (p 4) and new qualifications for a previously unregulated field of practice. In Scotland, therefore, the who, what and why, as well as the how, of adult literacies work changed dramatically. Colleagues from wider afield have looked on, sometimes in envy, at what has been described as a ‘grand experiment’ (Merrifield, 2005: 22).

**Evolving cultures and identities**

Cultures do not change overnight, however. New conceptions and new expectations were experienced differently by practitioners in a range of sectors such as Adult Basic Education (ABE), Further Education (FE – the post-compulsory sector) and the voluntary sector who came to them with their own continually evolving professional narratives and a range of practices that could be located within distinct functional, liberal and critical traditions of literacies (Papen, 2005: 9-11). In each of the sectors, the new initiative was contextualized in a different historical perspective. For some in community based ABE, it represented an iteration in a cycle of political attention and neglect going back several generations. They remain sceptical about government commitment being long term. In contrast, there is a more linear sense of time (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2000: 295-319) in FE, for whom one priority is replaced by another in an endless drive into a future of improved quality.

Practitioner identities are not only distinct but relational; practitioners define their own identity in relation and in contrast to other identities. For example, some community-based adult literacies tutors define their identity
negatively—as not a teacher. For many practitioners, the informal nature of their practice was at variance with their concept of a ‘professional’. Practitioners suddenly found themselves in the ‘open moorland’ of lifelong learning (Usher et al, 1997, 27), in competition not only for resources but for definitions of practice and the appropriation of the enterprise. The influence of the new policy was thus mediated by discrete communities in which meanings are negotiated in practice (Wenger, 1998: 85). Five years after the ALNIS launch doubts began to be expressed about the claim to be enacting a social practices approach in Scotland (Ackland 2006; Maclachlan, 2006; Tett et al, 2006). Examination of the hybrid discourses of the ALNIS report and the range of policy and practice artefacts flowing from this (Ackland, 2006), combined with evidence of local practices, led to the conclusion that the social practice discourse in Scotland was aspirational (Maclachlan, 2006). It was not yet consistently reflected in action.

**Pedagogy as a discursive move**

Discourse both represents and constructs reality. Within discourse, ideologies are projected, contested and resisted. Within the text of Scottish policy, conflicting discourses - of social practices, functional skills and performativity - compete (Crowther et al, 2001; Maclachlan & Cloonan, 2003; Maclachlan, 2006; Ackland, 2006). These discourses are in turn reinforced, resisted or reframed (Fairclough, 2003: 32) in a series of discursive moves and countermoves.

Following on from 2001 and ALNIS, a number of moves and countermoves (in the shape of, for example, publications, funding allocations, training, inspections, changes to practice) shifted the discourse of Adult Literacies in different directions as policy was mediated by official agencies as well as practitioners. The introduction of a new professional qualification was an important stage in the dynamic of policy implementation and represented a significant opportunity to influence the discourse in the emergent professional field. In 2006, The Scottish Consortium was contracted by the Government to develop and deliver the new qualification for Adult Literacies practitioners. Guidance was provided in the form of a set of Benchmark Statements. The Benchmark statements (Learning Connections, 2005) exemplified the conflicted and intertextual discourse of the field at this time. Whilst a social practice perspective of literacies is mentioned, the benchmark statements were derivative—adapted from the Initial Teacher Education standards applicable to the Scottish school sector, formulated before the 2001 watershed. The expectations of ‘the good teacher’ (Edwards et al, 2004) stipulated in this document are more consistent with a traditional model of teaching and learning than one derived from a social practices perspective. In the pursuit of a professional model, it appears that equivalence with other established educational professionals was an important characteristic.

Goodson (2003:125-126) makes an extremely useful distinction between professionalisation and professionalism: the professionalisation project is ‘the pursuit of status and resources for an occupational group’. Professionalism, on the other hand involves ‘teachers’ definitions of their peer group practices’. The
professionalisation project was made explicit in the introduction to the TQAL Benchmark statements:

“In order for adult literacies teaching and learning to be recognised as a legitimate, specialist area and therefore have the prerequisites to be recognised as an area of professionalism – the need for a Teaching Qualification: Adult Literacies is pressing (Learning Connections, 2005: 5).”

As the development proceeded, the title of Teaching Qualification was to crystallise many of the contested issues of the professionalisation project. The inclusion of the term ‘teaching’ was queried by practitioners whose values were invested in the term ‘tutor’ and who sought thus to distinguish themselves from what they perceive to be the authoritarian methods of the school sector. The title was also called into question by the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS), the professional body of school and college teachers. They pointed out that the denotation of the qualification as a teaching qualification contravened legislation which limited the use of this terminology to specific situations; it is part of the mechanics of gatekeeping professional ‘teacher’ status.

The Consortium thus found itself in a contested space in which language was of critical importance. Acknowledging the inherently ideological nature of education, it chose to align itself with the pursuit of professionalism as opposed to the professionalisation project and to found the new programme on the rhetoric of a social practices perspective. By choosing to amplify one discourse over the variety of others in circulation, the consortium sought to resist the recontextualisation of the social practices discourse by a discourse of performativity and reject interpretations of professionalism as compliance and accountability (Goodson, 2003). Instead, it offered an opportunity to negotiate a new form of professionalism.

**There is nothing more practical than a good theory:**

**Communities of practice**

Because learning transforms who we are and what we can do, it is an experience of identity. It is not an accumulation of skills and information, but a process of becoming. (Wenger, 1998: 215)

The TQAL curriculum development team began with the belief that teaching itself is best understood as a type of social practice (Ackland & Wallace, 2006). Starting from ‘a socio-constructivist perspective on learning’ (De Corte et al, 2003: 25), we therefore approached the design of the programme with an emphasis on the situatedness of learning within a ‘community of practice’ (Wenger, 1998) in which learning is seen to occur in a ‘network of relations’ (Felsted et al, 2005: 364). We adopted the metaphor of learning as becoming as opposed to learning as acquisition. The social practices of teaching are shaped by the prevailing norms of specific socio-cultural contexts. The prevailing social norms of the diverse contexts in which adult literacies work takes place are distinctive in significant characteristics such as their allegiance to traditions of literacies education (Papen, 2003), historical narratives (Turner
& Trompenaars, 2000), levels of knowledge codification (Boisot, 1998). To achieve the aim of the development of a new professional domain in which the norms and practices of a social practice perspective of literacies were shared, it was crucial to provide the opportunity for participants to address and reshape the social norms which prevailed in the patchwork of the contemporary field. The programme sought to engage explicitly with the question of what it means to be a literacies professional in the new theoretical paradigm.

The idea of the ‘social practices model’ of literacies teaching has considerable rhetorical power in Scotland. Most practitioners have readily adopted the language of social practices (Maclachlan, 2006), grafting it onto pre-existing values of teaching and learning, such as learner-centredness. Social practices theory is primarily a theory of literacies in society. It is not an educational theory. Articulations of the implications of this perspective for teaching and learning are beginning to proliferate (e.g. Appleby & Barton, 2008) but in Scotland, the discourse is so powerful that these implications are assumed to be self-evident. It was our intention in TQAL to re-examine this concept and its meanings, including its meanings in practice. We believed this to be a project of fundamental importance to the formation of a new professional identity of Scottish Adult Literacies practitioner. Our response, then, to the new ecology of literacies learning and teaching was to draw upon contemporary anthropological understandings of social learning. Communities of practice are social organisms that evolve, they cannot be created; but Wenger(1998) does suggest that a number of aspects of community are critical to learning, including connectivity, imagination, alignment, and artefacts. In the design of the TQAL curriculum we attended to these elements and concentrated on nurturing process rather than delivering content.

### Synchronising Discourses: Critical Reflection, Action Enquiry, Activist Professionalism and Social Practices

“Grasping a threshold concept is transformative because it involves an ontological as well as a conceptual shift. We are what we know. New understandings are assimilated into our biography, becoming part of who we are, how we see and how we feel. (Cousin, 2006: 4).”

Four threshold concepts (Land & Meyer, 2008) were central to the programme and became community artefacts which helped to established alignment through a shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998, 153). First, we employed Brookfield’s theory of the four lenses for critical reflection (1995): 1. Our autobiographies; 2. Our learners’ eyes; 3. Our colleagues; and 4. Research and theory. The programme embedded the concept of the four lenses at all levels. For instance, assignments required participants to reflect on their own experiences, to work with their learners to explore literacies in a social context, to observe and collaborate with colleagues, to review recent research and to engage with policy and theory.

For some participants, critical reflection did not come easily. It appeared that community-based tutors tended to invest value in the practical rather than
the intellectual. Their knowledge and understandings are largely tacit and a significant part of their identity is in ‘just knowing’ what to do. They tend to be wary of ‘theory’ which they perceive to be some distance from practice realities. At all times the tutor team were adamant about our rejection of the theory/practice split. We worked with participants to explore the theories embodied in their own practice, yet some participants still experienced the early stages of the programme as ‘academic’. The synthesis of this discourse with the next –Practitioner Enquiry– helped to make the idea of praxis more tangible. By the conclusion of the programme, the idea of critical reflection and the mechanism of the four lenses was common currency in the community. The social practice of critical reflection had become a norm of the community of practice.

The second key idea was of Practitioner Enquiry. From the outset, participants in the programme were required to investigate aspects of their own practice. Starting with a case study, collaborative enquiry was an expectation of each of the assessment tasks. Later, a formal Action Enquiry process required participants to share their experience with the wider community through blogs. For many participants this was a pivotal point in our learning. Action Enquiry helped us examine our own practice and see whether it lived up to our expectations (Whitehead & McNiff, 2006). In the words of one student ‘action enquiry helped me see I’m living the right way.’ Enquiry is a state of mind –participants did not just do enquiry they became enquiring. Each of these concepts was reinforced through modelling by programme tutors. Critical reflection and enquiry were not just assessment tasks students were set, they were instead, the assumed norms of the learning community.

The third element we introduced was the idea of the Activist Professional (Sachs 2003). Sachs’ conception of activist professionalism is located in the context of the compulsory education sector. Although she elaborates this in the experiences of secondary school teachers, it was our contention that the characteristics of the activist professional are congruent with the Adult Literacies professional committed to a social practices perspective. In TQAL, we translated her ideas into our own context and negotiated a meaning of activist professionalism that could be embodied and enacted in our own communities of practice. An important characteristic of the activist professional is their commitment to constructive dialogue with other stakeholders. Again, collaborative enquiry tasks encouraged participants to experiment actively with this connected identity.

In the main, these three ideas were fresh to participants in TQAL. However, the fourth and most critical threshold concept, ‘social practices’, was more problematic in that people came to the programme with their own meanings of the term, mediated through the communities of practice in which they operate at work. These meanings reflected professional identities shaped in the diverse cultures and were refractions of existing values, beliefs and expectations. The TQAL programme provided the focus for a negotiation of meaning of the Scottish ‘social practice approach’ and created explicit articulations of this that could be shared with others.
Online community: co-creating professional discourse

The negotiation of meanings was supported by a blended learning approach that aimed to nurture a ‘knowledge building community’ (Swan & Shea, 2005: 6). Connectivity in the TQAL community was facilitated by the use of a Virtual Learning Environment (VLE). As well as affording communication between all participants, and in particular, the four separate study groups, the VLE sustained the circulation of the synchronising discourses and provided shared tools and artefacts around which the co-construction of knowledge could take place. The online community therefore acted as an expansive learning environment (Engestrom, 2001) in which participants could transcend their restricted local communities of practice and engage in the co-construction of an ‘imagined community’ (Anderson, 2006) of Scottish Adult Literacies professionals. One crucial aspect is that online discussion requires writing. Co-created texts operated as thinking tools in the learning community in which social dimensions were integral to the learning process. Every contribution, formal or informal was recorded and so shaped the nature of future interactions, which in turn constructed the expectations of community talk so that over time, participants moved from being consumers of the discourse of the profession to becoming active authors of that discourse.

In addition, the VLE provided three critical benefits to participants. Firstly, the creation of text supported the development of the authorial voice in the professionals. According to Brandt (2005: 1), writing is now ‘the productive skill of consequence’ and increasingly central to the role of the professional at work. Rehearsal of contributions to professional discourse in the online community increased the confidence of participants to contribute to the wider professional discourse as people became active contributors to national networks, conferences and publications. Secondly, online discussions scaffolded a move from tacit to articulated knowledge, not only for the individual but also for the community of practice and beyond. Finally, the use of the VLE provided an opportunity for powerful experiential learning of the skills that allow learners to flourish in the digital age. The use of web2.0 tools and multimedia expanded the repertoire of resources available to serve enquiry and, consistent with the programme philosophy of ‘loop input’ (Woodward, 1991), encouraged the use of these new tools and resources in practice. As we all participated together in the expanded repertoire of digital practices, these social practices were confirmed as part of the repertoire of the literacies professional.

The VLE was, therefore, a powerful mediating tool. Not everyone participated equally; some participants struggled in a variety of ways with the challenges of the medium. However, ‘it was hated, enjoyed, used but never ignored’ (Hillier, 2008: 20). The VLE was central to the experience of the programme. The repository of community artefacts – such as photos taken at events – contributed to the collective self awareness of the community; the artefacts formed a mutually familiar backdrop to the final conference at which the national group met for the first time.
Experience of change: becoming activist professionals

Transformative learning is not a comfortable process (Brookfield, 1995 & 2005). Some participants referred to this as being taken out of their comfort zone, acknowledging their new-found empathy with their own learners:

We ask learners to go outside their comfort zones in their learning... so why should we not be pushed outside ours? And it's good to see how this feels (on reflection of course!) and be reminded of how valuable it is to face challenge (Student comment).

A process of becoming is simultaneously a process of ceasing to be; both in the sense that one leaves behind previous identities but also one abandons the security of a settled existence. This position of ‘liminality’, as Land and Meyer (2006: 2) term it, can include resistance or contestation but may also be the locus for creative tensions. Some participants experienced dissonance between the discourse of the ‘imagined community’ and the discourse of their local communities of practice. This could be acute and bring with it the threat of cultural suicide (Brookfield, 2005). As they became a core member of the new community of practice they began to see the world with fresh eyes and in some instances became more critical of local practices that they perceived to be inconsistent with the professional identity they were co-constructing with others on the programme. Activist professionalism is not for the faint hearted (Sachs, 2003) and in some instances, participants who began to inhabit this identity became successful ‘brokers’ (Wenger, 1998: 109) between the imagined community and the local communities of practice; the discourses of critical reflection, practitioner enquiry and activist professionalism began to circulate more widely, influencing local practices, of, for instance, CPD and tutor support. Practitioners became ‘more linked into policy and practice professionally’ (Hillier, 2008: 15) with ‘the confidence to voice opinions and suggest ways forward for the development of the strategic planning within the local authority.’ (Student comment)

Whilst it is dangerous to generalise about the identity outcomes for all participants, the majority of the practitioners involved in the pilot programme now appear to be active discursive agents in their field of practice, inhabiting a new professionalism which has criticality at its core. Some have moved into positions of agency in national organisations and networks. Most have taken ownership of the ideas of criticality and activism and are contributing to the circulating discourses with their own projections of these ideas:

“As ‘professionals’ I feel we need to keep stretching the boundaries, doing the requirements of the job but always, always broadening this out to include a critical analysis of what we are doing, why and in whose interest - if we don’t challenge these and put forward alternative visions then we are not active participants in anything, we are merely deliverers of governmental economic policy and we limit not only what we do but what literacies are! (Extract from Student Comment on the VLE).”
Conclusion

A national community of practice in a new professional domain can be considered an ‘imagined community’ (Anderson, 1983). It relies on practitioners identifying themselves with one another despite the distinctiveness of their local cultures and having a shared sense of the norms, values and social practices of the overarching community. A professional development programme which intentionally creates space inside the discourse to negotiate the meanings of professionalism can contribute effectively to the process of collaborative change in a field of practice. In mediating professional identity, such a programme does significant discursive work.

Evaluations of the pilot TQAL programme indicate that a community of practice approach supported practitioners to take ownership of the experience of their own professional development. It has had transformative effects on their self-confidence, sense of agency and professional identity. Together, we have constructed our own concept of activist professionalism (Sachs, 2003) and begun to forge a reflexive, critical and connected professional identity that is congruent with a social practices perspective of literacies.

References


33. A STUDY OF THE MOTIVATIONS AND OBSTACLES INVOLVED IN ACCESSING THE VOCATIONAL TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES SCHEME IN IRELAND

Laurenz Egan

The research context – The Vocational Training Opportunities Scheme

The Vocational Training Opportunities Scheme is a government funded adult education scheme introduced in 1989 by a decision of the then government cabinet following a piloted scheme called the Education Opportunities Scheme, (EOS) which was first initiated in 1986. The EOS was piloted in Dublin and Limerick and the findings from this pilot scheme led to the introduction of a unique educationally orientated national training scheme called VTOS. The scheme was introduced to tackle a great economic challenge of that time, namely unemployment, which was then nineteen percent. At the time of writing this paper despite great economic turmoil nationally and internationally Irish unemployment today is just over six percent. The objective of the scheme was and still is to enable adults outside the workplace to make the transition to stable employment or to further education and training. VTOS is confined to those adults who are in receipt of a social welfare payment for at least six months and who are over twenty one. Where there is over demand, and it often happens, persons with the lowest educational standard are prioritised.

In the first year of the scheme it operated in seventeen Vocational Education Committees (VEC’s) throughout Ireland with an enrolment of four hundred and fifty participants. By 1994 it operated in over thirty VEC’s and had an enrolment of two thousand five hundred participants. By the turn of the millennium enrolment numbers exceeded five thousand and have remained largely static since with the number in 2008 standing at five thousand four hundred and three (Source: Further Education Section, Dept. of Education and Science). VTOS students are divided into ‘Core’ (3,746) and ‘Dispersed Mode’ (1,657) and for the purposes of this study this researcher focused exclusively on core VTOS.

The VTOS is a second chance education and training programme of between one and three years duration for adults over twenty one. Usually participants complete within two years yet a small minority apply for and are granted a third year in certain circumstances.

When first introduced it was specifically targeted at those on long term unemployment but over the years the target audience for the scheme has
been expanded to include single parents, those in receipt of a disability payment, dependent spouses of eligible persons and certain categories of pension recipients. VTOS was designed to re-integrate the unemployed into the workforce, with training identified as a means to achieving this. VTOS was a unique vocational training programme as it was an educationally led vocationally orientated programme. VTOS recognised the breadth and depth of the problem of educational disadvantage amongst the unemployed and addressed the issue with needs based courses. VTOS also enhanced the capacity for social equity in a rapidly changing Irish society and economy.

When VTOS was introduced the Adult Education arena in Ireland was, and indeed still remains, the least developed and under-resourced branch of education in Ireland, though acknowledging much progress has been made. VTOS was significant in contributing to a good practice model for adult education. The adult education landscape has undergone a significant change particularly around the turn of the millennium and it has all been largely for the better. The focus of VTOS as a labour market intervention has remained over the past two decades but in more recent years VTOS has become more important as a social inclusion measure for vulnerable groups of adults on the fringes of our society. With full employment in our economy up until recently, VTOS had the opportunity to provide educational opportunities to the most hard to reach of its target audience. Changing current economic conditions will again change the target audience of VTOS.

**The Irish context**

Without doubt the single most important document in Irish adult education for many years was the governments policy paper on adult education; Learning for Life, DES (2000). The result of a broad consultation process, Learning for Life sets out a blueprint for the future development and expansion of adult education in Ireland. It facilitated greater access, sought to end the notion of ‘terminal exams’ and it fostered the notion of lifelong and lifewide learning. It prioritised basic adult education and adopted a more philosophical base than all previous government publications. Literacy and community education were recognised as playing an important part in lifelong learning and community facilitators were appointed throughout the country.

**The European context**

EU influence has shaped legislative and funding arrangements as well as attitudes on lifelong learning in Ireland. With the European Commission declaring 1996 as the European Year of Lifelong Learning and a series of emerging policies around lifelong learning being agreed collectively, Europe made clear its intent in relation to lifelong learning. What was not clear however was how the policies were to be implemented, documents such as The Key Competences for lifelong learning (2005), European Council and Parliament sought to further clarify and integrate the activities of each member state in this area.
Methodology chosen – a pragmatic approach to a sequential mixed methods strategy

This mixed methods study involved the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study in which data was collected sequentially, with priority given to the quantitative strand of the study, see diagram 1.

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<tr>
<th>Quantitative strand</th>
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<tr>
<td>On line survey to VTOS co-ordinators (or gatekeepers)</td>
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<tr>
<td>On line survey to VTOS students</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Qualitative strand</th>
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<tr>
<td>One Day VTOS co-ordinators workshop</td>
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<tr>
<td>Student Focus Groups (one in each of our four provinces)</td>
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Diagram 1.

The paradigmatic foundation for this mixed method research is pragmatism as advocated by Datta (1997). Pragmatism was chosen as in the opinion of the researcher it; supports the use of both quantitative and qualitative research methods; places the research question at the core of the considerations; embraces many points of view; avoids metaphysical concepts, for example ‘truth’, and thus reduces debate; and most importantly presents a very practical and applied research philosophy.

It is the view of this researcher that rather than trying to create an absolute objectivity, an impossible task, by transparently stating the researcher’s relationship with the study, the reader can accept the findings mindful of this researchers stated position. As an interested researcher, a tutor on VTOS for seven years, a co-ordinator of a VTOS adult education centre for seven more years and currently both a co-ordinator and tutor with VTOS, the position and view of this researcher is one from the inside. The national focus of the study has allowed the researcher to observe much more than the familiar local context and this researcher enjoyed the cooperation and support of co-ordinators and students throughout the process.

Research Findings

VTOS is more accessible for females than males - ‘blessed art thou amongst women’

VTOS is accessed mainly by Females. 71 percent of students surveyed were female. 76 percent of those who participated in the focus group sessions were female and from most recent figures to hand (2008) 67 percent of participants
on VTOS nationally were female. Furthermore 73 percent of VTOS co-ordinators surveyed online were female, 82 percent of all co-ordinators said they had a female dominated staff and 72 percent of all co-ordinators said they had a female dominated student profile.

Females overall had a better standard of education on entering VTOS than males. In terms of initial schooling, overall the response from both genders was positive, yet females were more positive than males. Of the ten attitudinal and six financial questions asked in the survey females were consistently more positive than males. The feminisation of VTOS was raised at the VTOS co-ordinators workshop, where it was accepted that VTOS is now gender imbalanced but that this was not always the case. In the mid nineties gender participation was evenly balanced but has been shifting since. In fact in the early nineties males were in the majority by two to one. This complete shift can be briefly explained by a number of factors; changing policies in respect of access eligibility; our ‘celtic tiger’ and low skill job opportunities; and other state training agencies such as Fás with male dominated training programmes, to name but a few.

In the focus groups overall females were much more comfortable to participate with males being more reserved. Before starting the course many of the females were at home, the majority minding children or elderly relatives, with the vast majority of males occupied outside the home prior to starting their course. In the survey VTOS was a return to education for the vast majority of females as opposed to a continuation where for males the response was far more evenly split. In this researcher’s observation males just like females experience a great deal of fear on entering VTOS. Yet females appear better able to find comfort and support in their new surroundings than males. One male who was the only male in a large class commented, ‘blessed art thou amongst women’.

‘No car, no course’

The majority of students drive each day to their VTOS course with males at 37 percent and females at a much larger majority of 65 percent. This difference can be explained in part by the fact that the majority of female students surveyed live in the countryside, proving that transport continues to be a big access issue. Some participants in the focus groups were driving over one hundred and thirty kilometres on rural roads each day to participate. One focus group participant summed it up well, ‘no car, no course’.

‘You are never too old’

Another emerging access trend over recent years is the age profile of VTOS students as demonstrated in Diagram 2, which presents a snapshot of the national number of VTOS students over the past decade according to gender and age profile.
A STUDY OF THE MOTIVATIONS

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<td>406</td>
<td>1567</td>
<td>876</td>
<td>1040</td>
<td>528</td>
<td>5174</td>
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<td>2005</td>
<td>646</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>1781</td>
<td>756</td>
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<td>2008</td>
<td>537</td>
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<td>1748</td>
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<td>1331</td>
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<td>Change</td>
<td>(312)</td>
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<td>775</td>
<td>(141)</td>
<td>1047</td>
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Diagram 2. Source: Further Education Section, Dept. of Education & Science.

Clearly the age profile of VTOS is shifting towards the more mature learner. Females over forty have increased nearly four fold with males over forty more than doubling, where both genders under twenty five have been declining steadily. The changing national trend towards a more mature profile is proof if it were needed that ‘being too old’ is becoming less of a barrier as more adults are aware of and indeed embrace the concept of lifelong learning and the concept of ‘you are never too old’.

‘The building is grand’

The physical buildings from which VTOS operate vary greatly. Unfortunately the majority of VTOS centres visited operate from old former technical or religious-run schools which were vacated by students requiring more modern facilities. Other VTOS premises were very modern and demonstrated an ideal physical environment for adult learning yet these were the exception rather than the norm. In the focus groups many spoke of their anxiety at going ‘back to the old tech’, reminding them of ‘school days of old’ rendering the physical environment a legitimate access concern.

Motivation to access VTOS

Females surveyed felt ‘a qualification leading to a job’ was the primary motivator followed by ‘improving ones overall standard of education’ and then ‘to achieve a personal ambition’. Males cited ‘improving ones overall standard of education’ as the primary motivator followed by ‘to achieve a personal ambition’ and then ‘a qualification leading to a job’. When the co-ordinators (or gatekeepers) were asked in their survey what they thought motivated their students using the exact same headings the following results emerged in order of importance; for females it’s about a qualification leading to a job, improving ones overall standard of education, then boosting self confidence/self esteem.

For males it’s about a qualification leading to a job, a qualification leading to further studies, and then improving ones overall standard of education. A summary of overall results is presented in diagram 3.
At the co-ordinators workshop specifically exploring motivating factors influencing access the following arose; an adult learning environment, with an adult ethos, peer support and peer learning, generating successes and creating a sense of enjoyment all lead to encouraging access. Word of mouth with students spreading the story of success to their peers is a significant motivating factor for those learning about and considering accessing VTOS. Many examples were given where students were encouraged by family and friends and in that encouragement were given practical information on one hand but also a sense of what is achievable. Co-ordinators at the workshop also highlighted that ‘student’ carries less stigma than ‘social welfare recipient’, ‘on the dole’ is less attractive than ‘on a course’, which is a motivator of a sort, similarly some students wishing to avoid the pressure of social welfare officers, chose training over having to apply for jobs.

Practical supports such as crèche facilities play a big part in facilitating access to VTOS. Once learners realise their own learning achievements this acts as a key motivator to continue in their learning. Given the numbers of students who accessed VTOS having already participated in some adult education course previously (50 percent of those surveyed and 45 percent of those in the focus groups), previous successes played a key part in students accessing VTOS. This was a constant finding in each of the four focus groups where VTOS was a building block on a previously laid foundation.
Obstacles to accessing VTOS

Eligibility is the single most obvious and effective barrier to accessing VTOS. Applicants must be over twenty one and in receipt of a qualifying payment for at least six months to participate on VTOS. In the near twenty years of VTOS the eligibility criteria were extended just once, some ten years ago to increase access opportunities for lone parents and those in receipt of a disability payment. One group in our society, spouses in the home, where their spouse is working, are completely excluded from VTOS. A further barrier is the national cap on VTOS numbers where no more than approximately five thousand persons are permitted to participate in VTOS. This cap has remained for many years at a time where other adult education initiatives have dramatically increased, for example Post Leaving Certificate students over twenty three years of age have increased by over fifteen thousand in the years 2001 to 2006, source ESRI (2006).

The image and profile of VTOS nationally is such that for many potential students they simply do not know about it. This point was highlighted in the student survey and in the focus groups. In other cases as it is exclusively for persons in receipt of social welfare payments it creates a stigma which puts certain persons off attending. Whilst attitudes to lifelong learning are improving as evidenced by our maturing profile on VTOS, many still feel they are too old to participate in a training programme. Health too is a barrier as many VTOS eligible persons are in receipt of disability payments and may have issues with their health which act as an obstacle to participation. Fear is a significant and often underestimated barrier to accessing VTOS. Many co-ordinators commented that the hardest part for many students is coming in on the first day. The size of classes can also be a barrier with many adults uncomfortable in large class groups at the start of the course with some learners choosing to leave as a result.

Funding support disparities were cited as a barrier with many students choosing the learning programme with the greatest financial incentives rather than the learning programme which best meets their learning needs. The length of the VTOS training year is ten weeks longer than the mainstream second level year, six weeks longer than the primary school year and 14 weeks longer than the standard third level year. This is a significant barrier for some students where they need to be off when their children are off school. The length of the course day, typically between 9am and 4pm, creates an obstacle for those adults who have to maintain a busy household on top of trying to keep up with the classes and also find time for study in the evening.

The lack of political will to address the financial supports for students is an obstacle. Most particularly, childcare rates, meal and travel allowance rates and financial assistance with the extra costs associated with participating on VTOS are simply not sufficient. For example between 1998 and 2008 meal allowances have increased five percent and travel allowances have increased twenty percent and the training bonus has remained unchanged, also in that period inflation (our consumer price index) has risen almost sixty percent. Finally the feminisation of VTOS has created a barrier for some males and many co-ordinators noted the frustration experienced by many males on VTOS who were trying to ‘fit in’ to their new learning environment.
Conclusion

Overall students are motivated to access VTOS to improve their employment prospects and once engaged in VTOS are also highly motivated to access further education opportunities. The main practical obstacle is the national cap on VTOS numbers, a further obstacle is around awareness of what is on offer to the target audience. Nationally VTOS numbers remain small (approximately 5,400) and particularly now in a time of rising unemployment a review of the capping policy on VTOS would be merited.

References


34. An Examination of the Potential Impact of the Interview for PGCE Courses on Stopping or Restricting Learning Journeys: An Empirical Study

Sinead McCotter and Colette Murphy

Introduction

This research considers possible barriers to applicants’ learning journeys within the context of admission to the Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course, the main route into secondary level teaching. It also examines the validity and reliability of some decisions made within academic selection processes; clarity of the purpose of selection methods; whether selection methods restrict or widen access to the PGCE course; selection methods for teacher education courses adopted by HEIs in other jurisdictions; and whether unsuccessful applicants to the PGCE might have fared differently had screening only been based on prior degree qualifications. Given the pivotal role education has to play in shaping the changing face of Northern Ireland at a political, economical and social level it is inferred that how applicants to initial teacher qualifications are selected will be crucial to shaping a teaching work force which can continue to support and reflect the changing demographic make-up of Northern Ireland’s society.

Consequently, this research investigates whether the interview, commonly used as the critical method for selecting students to Queen’s University Post primary in the UK to the Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) secondary students, is a better predictor of success than selection based mainly on the degree class. The degree class, together with other biographical information, is used to select students for the equivalent course (Higher Diploma in Education) by many institutions in the Republic of Ireland. More than 500 student records have been examined during the course of this study which is in its second phase. The study examines interview results and compares them against modular grades obtained on the PGCE to determine if academic and teaching performance could be predicted. In addition students’ primary degree results were also compared with modular grades to see whether the degree class was a predictor of performance on the PGCE course. Students specialising in science, English and mathematics were examined covering four academic periods: 2003/04; 2004/05; 2005/06; 2006/07. Science and mathematics are currently two subjects targeted by the Department of Education Northern Ireland (DELNI) as being under resourced at present within the teaching profession in Northern Ireland. This study is interdisciplinary, combining the fields of education and human resources.

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Background

Selection Methods – A Human Resource Management Perspective

“The purpose of the selection interview is to obtain and assess information about a candidate which will enable a valid prediction to be made of his or her future performance in the job, in comparison with other candidates.”

Armstrong 2006

Much of the literature in this area recognises the interconnection between recruitment and selection (Taylor 2002, Baroukh and Kleiner 2002, Beardwell and Holden 2001, Corbridge and Pilbream 1998). For the purposes of this paper a distinction is made between both processes. Whereas recruitment essentially involves seeking applications from potential candidates, selection refers to the methods used to choose the most suitable candidate to fill a particular vacancy, Taylor (2002). Colbridge and Pilbream (1998) refer to ‘matching activities’ when referring to recruitment and selection which further highlights their connectivity. Indeed, the authors outline three key areas for consideration: clearly define and specify the recruitment need; utilise appropriate recruitment and selection methods; and review, evaluate and modify recruitment and selection methods in light of experience.

Gunnigle et al (2006, p 102) argue that recruitment and selection decisions are likely to be the most important decisions recruiters [managers] have to make as they are prerequisite to the development of an effective workforce. In addition a number of authors have pointed to the long lasting effect of poor selection processes given that “ineffectual commercial viability” can at times be linked to years of poor recruitment and selection methods (Russo et al 1995; McMahon 1988; Lewis 1984). As Isles (1999) suggested, selection traditionally placed a heavy reliance on predictive efficiency. However, more recently the focus has shifted to seeing selection more as a social process, a negotiation between candidate and recruiter where the foundations for the psychological contract are laid. In addition it is the vehicle through which both parties can decide whether or not to continue. This is particularly important within a competitive labour market.

While Colebridge and Pilbream (1998) stress there is no one overall approach to recruitment and selection, they emphasise the need for such processes to provide choice and flexibility. Many authors while not setting out a one size fits all approach to recruitment and selection do suggest the need to adopt a systematic approach. The model put forward by Gunnigle et al (2006) suggests the need to have very distinct steps pre and post a selection process. Of particular note is the emphasis it places on the need to have clarity in regard to the vacancy being filled as outlined in the pre-recruitment phase. This suggests the effect such clarity will bring to the methods and mechanisms of any subsequent selection process. Other authors’ variations on this model include external influences such as economic situations, demographic changes, competitor activity (Colebridge and Pilebream 1998) and the impact of competencies (Taylor 2002). The inherent danger in any recruitment and selection process is
that recruiters assess candidates against one another when in fact they should be assessed against set criteria for the given vacancy. Dale (1995), Taylor (2002) and Armstrong (2006) put forward the case for developing a short-listing matrix to assist in determining those candidates who have or have not met the minimum requirement required for short-listing applicants.

While Taylor (2002) also recommends drawing up short-listing criteria from a person specification, other recommendations include the establishment of a short-listing panel, (Torrington et al 2005). Such a panel, the authors suggest, would require each member reviewing all applicants in turn and short-listing against set criteria. Panel members would then come together to discuss the merits of remaining candidates until agreement is reached. Such a process, Taylor (2002) argues, provides a level of fairness and discourages panel members either consciously or unconsciously from discriminating towards candidates on factors which are not related to the nature of the job - e.g. names which they perceive to be male/female, addresses which they perceive to be within a particularly poor/affluent region of the country etc. Research by Cook (2004) found evidence of such discrimination taking place at the short-listing stage on the grounds of men/women’s perceived suitability for a particular role; as well as first names that were perceived to be unusual, old fashioned or associated with low levels of education (cited in Taylor 2002 pg 206).

Wood and Payne (1998 pg 77-81) put forward their recommendation for short-listing systematically through the use of A, B or C categorisations. As with the panel process put forward by Torrington et al (2005), panel members would in turn short-list all applicants against set criteria. They would then however, award A (high level of evidence for the criteria sought), B (moderate level of evidence) or C classification (little or no evidence of the criteria sought). Those applications with the most A’s are put forward to the next round, those with a number of B’s are debated and those with more than two C’s are then eliminated. While systematic approaches to short-listing bring a degree of fairness they are not without their weaknesses. Mainly, such methods may be too restrictive for example where a role requires three years managerial experience, the best candidate for the post will be screened out if they have only two years experiences.

The selection process for the equivalent to the PGCE course in the Republic of Ireland (the Higher Diploma in Education) however, is totally different. It is predominantly based on academic performance (Colohan 2003). Interviews have been largely discontinued on the basis that interviews were not reliable discriminators between applicants and were very time-consuming (ibid). Mechanisms such as aptitude tests are not applied due to the unavailability of satisfactory tests. Those opposed to the current system in the Republic of Ireland argue that for a caring profession, academic criteria need to be supplemented by more personal suitability data. This issue was debated at a recent conference organised by the Standing Conference on Teacher Education: North and South (SCoTENS, 2004) and, whilst members tended to agree that the interview as a means of selection was more appropriate for applicants to post-graduate level courses (such as PGCE and Higher Diploma in Education), they expressed caution in relation to the potential subjective nature of interviews. References were also discussed as criteria for selection. Some members thought that references were
particularly subjective and that suppliers of references might give highly positive ones to most applicants to provide them with a ‘good start’ to their chosen career. It was also pointed out that fear of litigation might restrain reference authors in terms of writing potentially negative comments about an applicant. It was noted that previous teaching experience counted as a factor that was taken into account in gaining admission to the Higher Diploma in Education in some of the institutions in the Republic. Concern was expressed that this encouraged the employment of unqualified teachers on a short-term basis in some schools.

The PGCE interview for science students at Queen’s University Belfast is carried out by panels comprising science education tutors from the University and senior school teaching staff. Candidates are interviewed individually. The interview lasts between 20 and 25 minutes. Each candidate is invited to present a 5-minute pre-prepared talk on a science topic which interests them. They are then asked questions relating to career awareness, specific issues regarding the teaching of science and extra-curricular activities. They are invited to add anything they might have wished to say to the panel which was not covered by the questions, and given the opportunity to question the panel. Candidates are scored on categories relating to communications skills, intellectual attributes, disposition, career awareness, and so-on.

**Clarity of purpose in Panel Interviewing (NI legislation)**

Following the Good Friday Agreement, the Northern Ireland Act 1998 was introduced. 1999 saw an amendment brought in the form of Section 75 which introduced new duties on public authorities to promote equality of opportunity and good relations on a range of grounds. The Equality Commission set up to oversee equality practices in Northern Ireland, state in their code of practice for removing sex bias from recruitment and selection state that, ‘it is recommended that more than one person should be involved in short-listing candidates.’ And that ‘Consistency of approach is important to ensure that all candidates are considered on an equal basis and this is likely to be enhanced where more than one person is involved.’ (www.equalityNI.org 2003). In addition the commission recommends in section 9.1 of the code that interview panels should have female and male members; if this is not possible from within, the organisation should consider bringing in a suitable outsider. (www.equalityNI.org 2003). Indeed, many organisations go so far as to have interview panels made up of members from the main faith sections within Northern Ireland.

In addition to the importance placed on panel interviewing the question of clarity of purpose at selection is also raised in this paper. One of the challenges which this paper seeks to identify is the intrinsic difference between the purpose of recruitment and selection within a business context and the purpose of recruitment and selection methods within a university for the sole purpose of placing students on an academic programme. Within a business context a job vacancy normally exists and the best candidate is sought through appropriate methods. Invariably managers/personnel who will supervise the successful candidate will be involved with the recruitment and selection process. In terms of the recruitment and selection processes adopted by universities they essentially exist to place students on academic programmes such as the Postgraduate
Certificate in Education (PGCE). However, placement on the PGCE and subsequent graduation is no guarantee of future employment as a teacher within Northern Ireland. And yet qualified teachers, and not just academic staff, act as panel interviewers during the selection process. This then raises the question as to whether there is clarity of purpose within the PGCE selection process. i.e. are interviewers selecting potential students or potential initial teachers.

Whether the purpose is to recruit students who can meet a required academic standard or to recruit potential teachers, lies at the heart of this empirical study. For unless the purpose of a selection process is clear to all involved, e.g. applicant and interviewer alike, it begs the question as to whether valid and reliable decisions about who are the most successful candidates, can be reached. This is particularly important when a programme is over subscribed thus requiring streams of applicants to be assessed.

**Validity and reliability**

If selection methods are used within any recruitment process, whether for academic placement or within industry, the question of validity and reliability should be considered. Ethically, a selection process should be transparent, consistent and fair. If not, the question needs to be asked: what then is its purpose and what is it measuring? While numerous selection methods exist, they do not all share the same success in their ability to be good predictors of future performance. The choice of selection methods includes group exercise, application forms, academic records, interview and references through to psychometric testing and graphology. Validity studies such as those carried out by Taylor (1998) and referred to by Armstrong (2006) found conventional interview methods to be questionable and suggested that alternative selection methods such as biographical data, assessment centres and work tests are more accurate methods of selection (See Fig 1).

![Fig 1: Accuracy of some methods of selection (from Armstrong 2006)](image-url)
While many studies in recent years have raised concern about selection and validity, the most widely used methods remain the ‘classic trio’ application form, interview, and references (Taylor 2001). The question remains therefore, that if these methods are among the least valid, why are they still so popular? Armstrong (2006) suggests it is the comfort factor and that recognition needs to be given to the fact that both interviewers and interviewees like them and have grown to expect them. This is also known as face validity. He also suggests that most interviewers/organisations may not be aware of what the research suggests. When compared with other selection methods, the ‘classic trio’ is relatively low-cost and provides the opportunity to have a face to face meeting. In examining selection methods, Armstrong (2006) further suggests that too much innovation in selection methods may turn prospective candidates off. While some organisations may see this as a form of de-selection, the danger is that potentially high calibre and not just the less suitable candidates may be turned off by lengthier and more drawn out selection processes; even if they are more valid. The discussion of the findings of this paper will endeavour to move towards an examination the issues that contribute to high calibre candidates being unsuccessful at selection.

All those involved in organisational selection processes have a responsibility ethically and legally to being above reproach when identifying competencies required by an employer. Indeed, there now exists a broader and more diverse range of techniques to identify candidates who match a job/person specification. In this paper, some consideration is given to whether university selection methods are measuring the competencies required for success in the PGCE course or for the schools which will employ the qualified teachers. Given that the predictive quality of the traditional interview is very limited, consideration needs to be given to using methods which would expand the data and provide more evidence on which a selection decision can be made (Armstrong 2006). Many organisations today often combine a number of different selection methods, collectively known as an assessment centre. Taylor, as cited in Armstrong (2006) reported that:

“.well planned and administrative assessment centers are the best predictors of success on the job, but they are only practical for a limited number of more complex demanding jobs or for selecting graduates and entrants to programme (Armstrong 2006).”

Learning Journeys, Identities and Learning Careers

Bloomer and Hodkinson (1999) consider that policy assumes that what we term learning careers are predominantly linear and predictable. As a result considerable effort is placed upon getting young people to progress from school to post-16 education and then into a job, or higher education and then a job (cited in DfEE, 1999; Social Exclusion Unit, 1999).

Given the influencing role which education has to play in Northern Ireland with its changing political, social and economic landscape, the issue of what impact, if any, the education system has on lifelong learning needs to be considered. This is important if Northern Ireland is to meet the challenges it faces with an
increasing diverse population and a volatile economic climate given the current financial downturn. While Northern Ireland post primary students consistently out perform their Scottish, Welsh and English counterparts academically, this paper considers whether higher education in Northern Ireland supports ongoing academic achievement, not just through the standard of its teaching but also though the processes it adopts in academic selection at third level. Life long learning as Tierney and Slack (2005) outline has both social and cultural aspects. Yet they point out, the promotion of lifelong learning tends to be more influenced by economic factors than by personal and social gains. In their examination of what propelled students to study for foundation degrees, Tierney and Slack 2005, found that a ‘desire for professional development’ was a key factor which propelled students to taking up their chosen course of study. Indeed most interviewees questioned in the study assumed they would go on to take an honours degree. This study has significance in terms of this paper as it raises the issues that when students apply to a programme, they are to a greater extent driven by a willingness to further enhance their professional development. It is therefore assumed in this paper that students expect that when they are accepted on to or rejected for an academic programme, that such a decision is reached using valid and reliable methods which are underpinned, consciously and unconsciously by fairness and transparency.

Bloomer and Hodkinson (1999) refer to much research in the area of learning careers which assumes that the majority of young people’s aspirations, dispositions to learning and career ambitions remain largely unchanged, once a sensible choice of option has been made at the age of 16 or 17. Indeed, their own research has challenged these earlier findings. Rather, they found that young people and their learning are interconnected with a wide range of issues. In referring to Brown et al. 1989; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Guile and Young, 1998 and their work into learning and context, they found the communal nature of learning and the significance of situation and activity in shaping the learning process.

This debate is added to by Bentley (2000) who suggests that if education is a process of knowledge acquisition which society deems necessary for young people to reach a particular level of success in their careers, then it raises issues about curriculum content, the duration of education as well as ‘the validity of qualifications and the levels of achievement which different young people will be expected to reach. (Bentley, 2000: 356). This issue has significance for this paper in that the question is asked whether an interview as a method of selection at third level, is a better predictor of academic performance than a primary degree.

It is therefore considered that in order for interviewers to be consistent in their decisions, they need to be clear on the what they are assessing, how to verify that information, to adhere to ethics and legislation and be able to verify their decisions under scrutiny. Experience alone in a particular profession is not a sufficient reason to be an interviewer. Awareness and training in the interview process must in itself be consistent and be delivered in the same manner to the same degree by all involved in selection. In considering any likely
impact of selection method on the teaching profession in Northern Ireland, the
issue of whether the competencies against which candidates are measured
are reflective of the diversity challenges their students will face once they
leave school needs to be considered. While this may be an issue more for the
relevance of curriculum being taught in schools, it also challenges the need for
teachers to adapt to changes within their profession and the classroom, and be
responsive to the changing needs of the workplace for which they are preparing
their students.

Method

Data relating to grades in PGCE modules, interview and honours degree
grades for the years 2003/4; 2004/5; 2005/6 and 2006/7 was collated and
entered into Excel spreadsheets. Modules were as follows:

Methods – refers to subjects studies

Education Studies – refers to study of broader educational issues

Teaching – school placements

Interview and degree grades were compared with those achieved for modules
and the overall grade. They were considered in range if they fell within the same
grade as the interview or degree (for example, for the grade B+, grades B and
B- were scored as ‘in range’). Grades in the lower band were scored as ‘lower’
(for example, for the grade B+, grades C+ and below were scored as ‘lower’) and
‘higher’ (eg for the grade B+, grades A-, A and A+ were considered as
‘higher’). Data over the four years was collated and presented as charts.

Findings and Discussion

When the grades for interview and the PGCE modules were compared, the
percentage of interview grades which were recorded as ‘in range’ was lower
than that for the primary degree grade comparison for all modules and for the
overall PGCE grade (see Figure 2).
Further interrogation of the data revealed that the module grades were consistently lower than the interview grades (Figure 2a). The degree was more accurate at predicting module grades in range and there was a more equal distribution between higher and lower grades (Figure 2b).

**Figure 2: In-range grades for interview and degree for each PGCE module and overall grade (%)**

**a) Interview score as predictor (n = 153)**

**b) Degree score as predictor (n = 153)**

**Figure 3: Further Analysis (PGCE Subject A: 2003-7)**
Reliability across Interview panels

The reliability results indicate that members on different panels do not always appear to award similar scores, for a particular competency, for the same reasons.

Reliability across Subjects

In addition, an examination of how reliable panel decisions were regarding scores awarded to the same competency, show inconsistencies. What raises most concern is that in one case scores are supplemented by comments which may be interpreted as being biased towards one section of the faith community. i.e. in one case a candidate was awarded a score of 4.5 for Motivation (Weighting 5). The score was supplemented by the comment ‘member of Boys Brigade’. Based upon Northern Ireland stereotypes, the assumption is made that more male members of the Protestant community will have been members of the Boys Brigade as children than those from the Catholic community within Northern Ireland.

Other Initial Teacher Training Institutions

Of the ten other teacher training institutions which were surveyed, all but four conducted interviews during the selection process. While primary degree scores were the main short-listing criteria, they also formed the main form of selection in just under half of those surveyed.

Gender

There appears to be little impact of gender in selection for the PGCE. The proportions of successful males and female were similar for each year over the 4 year period (see Figure 4)

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<th>PGCE English: successful applications for gender</th>
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<td>20F/60F</td>
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<td>5M/17M</td>
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Figure 4: Successful applications for gender

Discussion

The crucial outcome from this research is that the findings support those of surveys carried out into selection methods within the business environment, cited by Taylor (2001) and Cook (2004), which suggest interviews are not a successful method for predicting future performance. Indeed, not only did interviewing prove to be less effective than primary degree in predicting modular and final grades, the fact that it failed in the areas of subject methods and
teaching practice, raises particular concerns for this method of selection. In terms of moving towards recommendations, the initial phase of this research would suggest that attention needs to be paid not just to the type of selection method but also to a clarification of what it measures. Examination of the results of interview grade as a predictor, (Figure 2(a)) suggests that module grades were considerably lower than interview grade. While there was a small improvement in those grades within range, the interview was weakest in predicting performance in the higher grade band. It is worth taking into account that the current interview process could be over-rating students. Considering the quote from Haberman (1987) cited in the introduction to this paper, any review of selection methods for students applying to the PGCE, would need to focus on whether selection is measuring ability to perform on an academic programme and/or a student’s ability to perform successfully within the teaching profession.

Currently in Northern Ireland interview panels must be representative of the main communities. With Queen’s University Belfast, interview panels for PGCE applicants must also have a representative each from the university and from schools. Panels must be balanced in terms of gender and perceived religion. The question remains that the level of training of panel members might need to be improved in order that selection can identify effectively the most competent new teachers. While experience within the education field is of paramount importance, thought must also be given to the legal responsibility carried by interviewers should decisions be challenged.

If interviews are so ineffective at predicting future PGCE performance, is there any justification for their continued use? As outlined by Cook (2004), it is important to remember that interviews do have ‘face validity’. When they appear to be handled in a professional manner, it gives the impression to candidates that the process in tum is professional and fair, and provides a comfort factor. Interviews also provide the opportunity of letting the candidate see the organisation within which they will be studying (or working), in a favorable light. There is however, more of a case to be made for the continued use of interviews when the values and competencies they aim to measure, have been thoroughly researched by all key stakeholders. In this instance stakeholders might be regarded as: the HEIs, teachers, teaching unions, Government departments, district councils, ethnic minority representatives, education authorities, faith representatives, initial teaching students, pupils, and the public at large. In terms of moving towards a more democratic and representative education system, such an approach cannot be ruled out.

In examining any future adjustments that might be considered within the selection of PGCE applicants, lessons learned from the business community nationally and internationally could to be taken into account. In essence, methods of selection which are varied and applied within an assessment centre environment do provide much more accurate predictions of future performance as pointed out by Taylor (1998). It is not sufficient that any ‘off the shelf’ approach be adopted. The challenges faced by Northern Ireland, not least within its educational system in a post-conflict era, will require a measured and tailored
approach to any new selection methods. In considering this longitudinal study, the next phases of the research will attempt to examine the spectrum of subject applicants within the PGCE and determine how representative applicants are of the changing profile of Northern Ireland Society. Later phases will endeavour to examine whether the competencies outlined by the Government in the Policy Review of Teachers Education in Northern Ireland (Olser 2005) are reflective of the challenges facing the teaching profession as they prepare children and students for work, in particular the issues of whether selection methods consistently and effectively measure student teachers on their attitudes and behaviours to diversity issues and whether selection methods contribute to an ‘integrated society’ or a ‘cohesive society’? (Curriculum Review on Diversity and Citizenship, Ajegbo 2007).

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35. Why do they leave? Should attrition, or could attrition in teacher education be prevented?
Sissel Østrem, University of Stavanger, Norway

In Norway 35% of the students in general teacher education (TE) drop out and never complete their education. The authorities see this as something which should be prevented, but not at any cost, as students are also subject to a probationary period throughout their education. This presentation discusses the reasons for attrition through research conducted in 2008. Drawing on interviews with 26 students who left TE during their first year, most of the former students interviewed, report personal factors as their reason for leaving. These personal causes may be seen as interconnected with several other additional causes, and it seems difficult to identify one single reason for attrition. In this cohort, though, there is one aspect worth discussing. Most of them mention perceived problems in mathematics, one of the compulsory subjects in TE, as an additional cause. A smaller group of students report their reasons for attrition as being the problems of mathematics only. Attrition rates could probably been lower if subject matters were optional, or if knowledge was presented differently. Still, we know too little about the reasons for attrition and whether attrition should be prevented or not. The last part of this presentation discusses some possible approaches to how further research may contribute to more knowledge about attrition and also teacher education. Not as a means to make political decisions, but to understand what is going on and what is at stake within a study programme like TE.

Attrition in Teacher Education

There are several ways of becoming a teacher, but general teacher education in Norway is recruiting about 80% of the teacher work stock. It lasts for four years, and the two first years consist of compulsory subjects like Norwegian, mathematics, pedagogy and religion, and also periods of field experience. During the last two years, subjects are optional. In addition to exams and assignments, the students are also on probation. This is the task of every teacher educator, whether she/he works at universities or in schools as supervisors during field experience. Concerning probation, attrition should not always be prevented, but should be seen as a consequence of a total assessment of the individual student and his or her behaviour during initial teacher education. All teacher students in Norway need to have grade mark 3 in Norwegian and mathematics by entry, otherwise all applicants with higher secondary education are welcomed.

Research on attrition

Attrition and retention in higher education have been studied since the middle of the last century, and researchers have tried to find reasons for
attrition without being able to identify any clear and general factors. Newer studies have tried to identify the characteristics of students in the risk zone (Yorke 1999, Yorke and Longden 2004, Hovdhaugen and Aamodt 2006), and a long list of risk factors are presented. The studies also show that there are great differences between programmes, indicating that it will be more interesting to study the specificity of programmes and students involved in them rather than general factors. Most studies of attrition use questionnaires and large scale samples. Often demographic background variables are used to inform these studies, like gender, age, parents’ education, ethничal and social background. Most of these studies may be said to belong within the paradigm of evidence based research and rely on information about the students, instead of information from them.

Evidence based education signifies the idea that educational policy and practice should be guided by the best evidence about what works, and Oancea and Pring (2008) argue:

“What works’ conceptualises practice and policy as interventions to which research is to make instrumental contributions. It thus fails to recognise the ethical and social nature of educational practice, and the creative encounters of practical wisdom and technical rationality within it.”

So far, it seems, research on attrition has never managed to give guidance to politicians about what works and what does not.

**Causal explanations**

The dominance of a research model that seeks accumulation of knowledge through thoroughly tested hypothesis concerning ‘what works’, often conducted through large scale comparative and control groups, calls upon a view of causality such that the successful intervention in the experimental group could be said to be the cause of what works, Oancea and Pring (ibid) continue. In Norway we see a growing interest in this kind of research, also from the Norwegian Research Council, which decides which projects are given funding.

In addition, higher education in Norway is annually allocated by funds according to how many graduate students the institutions produce, and thus the institutions have economic interests in keeping the students. Simply, students’ departure means loss of money. This explains some of the reasons for the interest in the causes of attrition. Regarding teachers, we will need a lot of new teachers in the years to come, and the question of attrition and retention is therefore of special interest within TE. A study on attrition in TE was conducted in 2006 (Naess and Vibe), and from this study we know about number of leavers, and about differences in numbers between institutions. We also know that most students leave during their first year of TE. The reasons for attrition are often explained by individual or institutional causes, and as initial teacher education at the University of Stavanger (UiS) has the highest attrition rate in Norway, it may be of special interest to look at institutional factors and the study programme of this institution.
The investigation at The University of Stavanger

The investigation referred to in this presentation is part of a project financed by the Ministry of Education in Norway (Kunnskapsdepartementet) concerned about recruiting the best students to general teacher education, and where the problem of attrition is part of the total project. The assumption behind is probably that by attracting ‘the best’ students, we will also be able to educate the best teachers. On the other hand, attrition rates may be seen as a sign of how well the study programme is able to answer to the expectations and needs of the students, and in both cases blame is put on either the students or the programme. Attrition in this study is defined as the difference between numbers of students entering TE and numbers of students completing their first year, regardless of what the students do afterwards. Lists of students from the university were used to identify those who had departed during their first year of TE.

As researchers, we wanted to listen to the voices of the former students and their own reasons for dropping out. Not to regard their reasons as truths, but to get hold of information given by participants within a programme and compare their utterances with other reasons often used when trying to explain attrition in TE. Both among teacher educators and politicians, causes of failure or attrition are often explained by low grades at entry, lack of motivation, and little time spent on studies. Could we learn something new by this way of approaching the question of attrition? We chose telephone interviews as the best way of getting into contact with our former students, and 26 out of 27 former students chose to participate in the study and answer our questions.

The interviews were conducted in June 2008 with students who left TE during their first year in 2007-2008 at the University of Stavanger. An identical investigation is going on in another institution, and comparisons are going to be made.

The Interviews

The interviews were conducted by five interviewers, all teacher educators, relying on an interview guide with ten questions all together. The questions were informed by research on student attrition and students’ satisfaction in higher education (StudData¹, Næss and Vibe 2006, Aamodt 2001, Heggen 2003, Ostrem 2008), in addition to a similar study in 2006 at our own university. As our research interest and questions were connected to the reasons for leaving teacher education, the interview guide had predefined categories informed by the research mentioned above. The example underneath shows how the interview guide was developed:

1. You have decided to leave teacher education. What would you say is your main reason for this choice?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal conditions</th>
<th>Conditions at the university</th>
<th>The study programme</th>
<th>The characteristics of work</th>
<th>Other reasons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

¹ StudData is a data base built on surveys conducted at the start of study programs of the professions, at the end of the education, and finally after three and six years in work.
Still, the questions were mostly open ended, and the interview guide may be called semi-structured (Patton 2002) with the opportunity to catch different points of view that were not thought of in advance by the researchers.

The informants’ answers were written down while talking, and further notes were taken right after the interviews. The conversations lasted from five to thirty minutes, dependent of the informants’ willingness to talk. Some of them answered our questions without any further comments or explanations, while others seemed to be happy to get the opportunity to talk about their experiences, and gave a lot of background information, also telling about their plans and hopes for the future. Later the interviews have been discussed and compared among the five interviewers involved. The analyses have consisted of what Miles and Huberman (1994) call horizontal and vertical approaches. Though the reasons for attrition may be said to be individual with a lot of different causes given by the informants, it became apparent that they could be grouped in three broad categories: Informants who explained their departure by the characteristics of teachers work, by the characteristics of the study programme and by personal reasons (like changes in family life, illness, and an urge for doing other things than being a student). The latter category may be said to include external reasons that the programme normally has no influence on. Nevertheless, in most cases related causes were mentioned, indicating that interrelated circumstances should be part of the total picture and discussed. Additional causes were thus established within the three main categories, and it is possible to suggest that interplay between several subjective experiences, including conditions within the study programme, contribute to the final decision of attrition. Later the interviews have been cross examined with other variables, like gender, age, grade marks by entry, and evaluation reports from their supervisors in schools.

1. **Characteristics of work**

Seven of these informants reported that they discovered teachers’ work as different from what they had foreseen, and decided to depart because of the characteristics of work. Six of them departed during their first period of field experience early in autumn 2007. The last one departed when she also failed in mathematics at the Christmas exam. It was the behaviour of the pupils that were frightening to five of the students within this group. The sixth informant explained his reason for departure by all the administrative work of teachers, and too little time to spend together with students. The seventh said she discovered that this work was nothing for her without elaborating on this. One of the informants also mentioned the salaries of teachers as an additional cause. All these informants had already either started another education, or had plans of doing so. Course change can be a positive outcome for some students, and in this case these students discovered early that their choice of education was wrong.

2. **Characteristics of the study programme**

Six informants explained their reasons for attrition by the quality of the study programme. Most of them (4) still want to become teachers, but they wanted to choose the subject matters themselves. Especially mathematics was mentioned
as problematic within this group, and both this subject and the teaching of it by
their professors were criticised. Most of these students left by Christmas time or
earlier, and at this time of their teacher education, they have only been introduced
to mathematics and pedagogy. Though pedagogy and other aspects of their
study programme also were criticised, their ways of talking about these aspects
were mild and modest compared to their ways of talking about mathematics.
Within this group a lot of blame is put on the individual teachers in maths, and
the teachers were described as not willing to listen to their questions, not willing
to explain basic rules of the subject, being sarcastic when questions arose, and
in addition one student explained her reason for attrition by the behaviour of one
teacher only. Even the two students with grade mark 5 in maths by entrance
described the subject as difficult and demanding, and that the teachers were not
able to understand the difficulties of their students.

3. Personal reasons

The thirteen former students who reported leaving TE because of personal
reasons, talked about difficulties in combining child care with their studies, sudden
death in the family, moving away to another part of the country, and prioritising
other interests at the cost of being a student, and one student left because her
friend did. In addition, about half of these informants mentioned problematic
conditions within their study programme. Also within this group mathematics
seemed to be the obstacle, both the subject and the teaching of it. Five of the
thirteen students that explained their attrition by personal reasons had been away
from university for some weeks due to health problems or minor surgeries. They
all said it was impossible to keep pace in mathematics afterwards, and thus they
gave up. Also within this group, several of the informants still want to become
teachers. Two of them will start general teacher education anew when their life
conditions have changed, while six of them want to choose subject matters
themselves and thus become teachers by participating in other programmes.

The interviews and cross examination with other
background variables

Most of these students had TE as their first choice, and about half of them
still want to become teachers. Their grade points by entry were higher than
the average student on a national basis, except for two of them. They were all
regarded as able students by their supervisors, according to the reports after
their first period of field experience. Their reasons for choosing general teacher
education may be seen as weakly developed, but so is the case for most
students in TE. Relying on students’ texts in pedagogy after their first period of
field experience in 2007, a lot of the students write that they had to choose
something, and that their choice was not very well grounded. After their first
period of field experience, though, most of the students got confirmation that
they really wanted to become teachers, and only a few of them left. Looking
at other background variables, there is no indication of coherence between
gender, age, grade marks at entry and evaluations by their supervisors after
their periods of practice and the decision of departure.
What is there to learn?

From this rather simple and small scale study about attrition, what is there to learn? First of all, the study shows that reasons for attrition in most cases are interrelated, and that no single cause can be identified and thus guiding political decisions aiming at preventing attrition. The investigation also challenges the established view of teacher students who fail or leave (having low grades at entrance, or not being motivated enough for teachers’ work). Neither grade marks nor motivation can explain the departure of the students in question here. But making students put effort into their studies seems to be a challenge across subject matters and institutions. In this study we do not know anything about how hard the students have worked, or how much time they have spent on their studies. What is common to about half of these students who had left TE in this cohort is the obstacle of mathematics. It seems as if attrition rates could be made lower if subject matters were made optional. But should it? Putting the question the other way round: Why do many students remain in TE though experiencing failure in exams, personal strains and frustrations both within their studies and in private life?

Mathematics

The curriculum of mathematics, as decided by the state, has detailed prescriptions of what the subject should comprise. Nevertheless, on a national level failing rates at exams differ between institutions (NOKUT 2006), and there are also great differences between the forms of exams and the content in which students are tested. There are also differences where in the four years programme the subject matters are placed. At the University of Stavanger mathematics is one of the first subjects teacher students meet when entering teacher education. If attrition should be avoided at any cost, it is possible to conclude that by making mathematics an optional subject some of these former students would have stayed in TE. There is reason to believe that the attrition rate could have been lower if the programme had been different. By presenting mathematics later in TE, students may be better prepared to handle a difficult subject matter and more willing to put efforts into their study, but we do not know, and replacing mathematics with Norwegian could just as well lead to the same problems, as failing rates in Norwegian in the second year are almost just as high as in mathematics the first year. Instead, could the obstacles of this subject also be seen as a test of students’ willingness to put efforts into their studies, and could it be interpreted as signs of how future teachers are prepared to deal with the demands of work? From a psychological point of view we know that putting the blame on external factors is quite common and makes us able to live by what’s happening to us. One of the informants, who put the blame on mathematics for his attrition, said that he liked pedagogy, but detested mathematics. The subject made such heavy demands on him that he could not combine it with other interests in life. Drawing on these interviews the final question could be: what is the real reason for departure? This cannot be explored without taking the students’ intentions, hopes and aspirations into the picture, how they interpret and explain what’s happening to them, and what they make happen.
Further research on attrition in TE

Like policy makers, I’m also interested in what works in practice, but unlike them I don’t believe that evidence based research will help us any further, or that political decisions will make any difference in TE. Only human beings taking part in activities can make something work, and in this case both teacher students and their teachers are subjects of interest. Some course change and attrition may be regarded as part of a settling-in period in the transition from school to higher education, and attritions should not be avoided at any cost. Still, there is of interest to study further ‘what works’ how and why. A study of TE and its participants from the ‘inside’, where education is seen as dialectical movements between teachers, students and content, will probably be able to highlight the question of attrition from other angles, including the subjective experiences of the participants. While classroom research in schools has got a lot of attention, we have few qualitative studies of TE in Norway with qualitative approaches. The exception is Inger Anne Kvalbein’s study from 1999 and her field work in TE. She describes the education as an encounter between the postmodern students and the modern teacher educators. From another study (Ostrem 2008), drawing on interviews, teacher students claim that subject matter knowledge is presented isolated from the reality of teaching, and the students miss connection to the work they are supposed to do. Subjects for their ‘own sake’, the students claim, is most common in TE, in contrast to subjects connected to the activity of teaching. Though it is expected that all subjects presented in teacher education should include didactic components, the students do not experience the subject matter knowledge presented this way. On the contrary, teacher students experience teacher education mostly as a repetition of what they were exposed to in compulsory and upper secondary school (Ostrem 2008, Kvalbein 1999). This is in concert with several of the utterances from the interviews with the students who have departed. In short, they have problems in seeing the subjects in TE as relevant for the act of teaching. A growing interest in teachers’ knowledge (Hiebert et al. 2002) and subject matter knowledge for teaching, as for instance shown by scholars at the University of Michigan about mathematics (Fauskanger and Mosvold 2008, Ball et al. 2005, Cooney 1999), may contribute to the development of subject matter knowledge within TE, making it more in common with students’ expectations, intentions, and images of work, and connecting it to the act of teaching.

Tinto’s model of student departure from the seventies is often used to understand and explain attrition (Hedin 2004). This is a model relying on rather common sense theoretical foundation. Tinto sees departure decision as a process dependent on pre-entry attributes consisting of the students’ own goals and intentions together with social and academic experiences at the university. This model needs to be developed and theorised to serve my purpose, and the theorisation also needs a societal framing where teachers’ work and education of our time are inscribed, because intentions do not arise in a vacuum. They may arise from certain dispositions to behave in a certain way, and these may be seen as being created within a particular climate of social expectations. Explanations of attrition require reference to the social rules through which the subjects in
question interpret actions. The general explanation for attrition which gives rise to particular intervention, might fail because it fails to take into account the many different ways in which students interpret the situations differently, have intentions that the intervention take no account of, and ignore the diverse social rules through which the social reality of the students is defined. This also calls for analyses of teachers work and education within a broader societal context.

The attractiveness of teaching and the importance of the teacher

It seems as if the attractiveness of teaching as a profession has faded in most of the western world, and in Norway we observe a decline in number of applicants to teacher education—a decline of 17% in 2007 and further a decline of 1.5% in 2008 when talking about the general teacher education. At the University of Stavanger we gave access to all of the applicants in 2007, without any waiting list that we have been used to have. This year the situation is the same. As a lot of the teacher work stock in Norway is about to retire, and as the individual teacher is more and more seen as a crucial factor for students’ achievement in schools, the interest in recruiting enough students and also the ‘best’ is predominant in the Norwegian debate. Both the well-being and development of newly qualified teachers have become an imperative for policy makers throughout the world as the role of the teacher has increasingly been recognized as the most important mediator of students’ outcome. An example of a text that stresses the importance of the teacher is taken from St.meld.16 (2001-2002), which says (p. 6):

“No single factor is more important for the quality in schools than the teachers. Good teachers may attain good results even with different abilities of the students and through the use of different methods. Because the quality of schools is fundamental for our future, teaching is the most important knowledge profession that we have.”

(translation by the author)

Lately several other public documents and white papers have been stressing the importance of the individual teacher. This is not only a Norwegian phenomenon, and the OECD-report from 2005 (p.26) says: ‘In particular, the broad consensus is that ‘teacher quality’ is the single most important school variable influencing student achievement...’

This report bears the title: ‘Teachers Matter. Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers’. The title tells a lot about what is at stake in the present discourse about teachers, schools and their contribution in the so-called knowledge society. Within this discourse the effective teacher has been made an ideal, and this is a teacher who attains results in one way or other. In Norway the results of PISA, TIMMS and PIRLS are hotly debated, and we do not like to be among the average scoring nations. We want to belong among

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2 At the same time we also see a growth in numbers of applicants to other kinds of teacher education where students may choose one subject matter or several. There is also a growth in numbers of applicants to the pre-school education.
the best, and the ranking list of PISA with Norway as an average scoring nation is often explained by teachers’ lack of effectiveness. When it is stated that the teacher is the most important factor for the quality in schools, policy makers are particularly interested in raising both educational standards for teachers and easing the transition between initial teacher training and helping to acclimatise to the teaching environment. Effectiveness and results at national and international tests is probably not a driving force for teacher students. On the contrary, research has suggested that motivation for teaching is grounded in social interests and an interest for the development of children, is often seen as valuable within the caring professions. In the Norwegian context assessments and evaluations tell us about lack of coherence between teacher education and work in schools, and both teacher students and teachers regard the relevance of their education for the performance of work as negligible (NOKUT 2006, Klette 2002, Ostrem 2008). This seems to be an international phenomenon regardless of country and in spite of variations in length, content and emphasis in the initial teacher education (OECD 2005).

**Teacher education and its contribution to students’ learning processes**

Subject matter knowledge is claimed to be one of the most important factors for effective teachers, but teacher students seem to value subject matter knowledge lower than students within other professions by entry. And at the end of their studies the value of subject matter knowledge has declined, in contrast to students of other professions (Heggen 2003). From a data base in Norway (StudData)\(^3\), we further know that teaching and social relations seemed to be the most important factors for students’ satisfaction with their studies. The importance of how subject matters are presented and worked with is also apparent in my study (Ostrem 2008) when interviewing students at the end of their education. Students’ satisfaction may be one of several indicators of quality in education, but as already mentioned above the question of probation may be another perspective regarding TE. Still, any education has to take into consideration the intentions and aspirations of its participants. A basic assumption will be that intentions, goals, and motives are not stable factors like something you have or not have as a property. It may be argued theoretically that they are changing dispositions or attitudes, developing by taking part in activities in the world together with other human beings.

To study TE from the inside will require participation in activities, including both interviews and observations. A study of this kind could be restricted to the first year of TE and include at least two different institutions for comparison. The focus of interest could be: what makes students put efforts into their studies, how do they make meaning of subject matter knowledge or not, and how do

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\(^3\) The purpose of the database is to stimulate and make possible comparative research on professional education and practises across different professional programmes and institutions. The database is built on questionnaires from students at the entry of a programme, after three years in it, at start of work, and after some years in the profession.
students and teacher educators struggle to realise the prescribed curriculum? Mathematics may be seen as an example of a subject that puts demands on the students, and as such the question of how much efforts students put into their studies is of interest.

Instead of the question in the title of this presentation (why do they leave), the research question could just as well also comprise the students who complete TE, and ask: why do they stay? Comparisons between students’ reasons for leaving or staying could be seen within the framework of the education they take part in. At the same time, a study of this kind could include the perspectives of the teacher educators and how they make meaning of work. Probably, attrition or retention cannot be understood without taking subjective interests and ways of interpreting experiences into consideration. Instead of studying attrition as a phenomenon detached from context, it should be studied within a broader framework including both activities within a programme, the rationale behind the programme and its status within society.

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Introduction

Conceptions of expertise in early childhood education have changed radically over a relatively short period and thus experts in early childhood education are at the centre of a rapid process of change and development. These changes reflect changing policies and practices, and involve increasingly complex functions. The aims of this study was to explore how students of early childhood education construct their meaning perspectives in relation to their educational expertise and professional development during their studies. It is assumed that the development of expertise involves a transformation in an experts’ meaning perspective and identity. This study (Kupila 2007) addresses an expert identity and the elements in the construction of an expertise during the learning process. One of the aims of the process was to strengthen the pedagogical expertise and the sense of ones’ professional, pedagogical identity in early childhood education.

Theoretical background

The theoretical background of the study is based on Mezirow’s (1995, 1997, 2000) theory of transformative learning. Transformative learning has both individual and social dimensions and implications (see e.g. Kasl & Elias 2000). Significant learning, involving personal transformations, is a social process with significant implications for social action (Mezirow 1991, 208). Transformative learning involves participation in constructive discourse to use the experience of others to assess reasons justifying these meaning perspectives, and making an action decisions based on the resulting insight (Mezirow 2000). Transformative learning occurs when, through critical self-reflection, an individual revises old meaning perspectives and develops new ones. By meaning perspective is meant the structure of the psycho-cultural assumptions within which new experience is assimilated and transformed by the learners’ past experience. Emphasis is put on making explicit the perspectives which have earlier been tacit and implicit. The process of transformational learning is developmental. Development in expertise is considered as including transformations in meaning perspectives and thinking. Development refers to a movement towards more progressive meaning perspectives.

The development of expertise and teacher professional development is also scrutinized from the sociocultural point of view, with particular emphasis on the interaction between social and individual processes in the construction of expertise (John-Steiner & Mahn 1996; Packer & Goicoechea 2000; Vygotsky 1978). The pedagogical expertise in the process emerges from the dialectic between the individual and the student-group while examining and working with
questions surrounding expertise in early education. The sense of pedagogical expertise is thus also formed by social processes. A sociocultural perspective draws attention to how individual efforts, interpersonal involvements, and culturally organized activities constitute each other.

The theoretical frame considers that social interaction may contribute to students developing expertise and further meaning perspective making. Individual meaning making occurs through dialogue situated in joint activity (Mezirow 2000). The individual and social are not analytically separate influences on the course of development. Instead, the individual student, social partners and the cultural milieu are as inseparable contributors to the ongoing activities in which development of expertise take place. The focus is on the views that stress the importance of social processes in the individuals’ knowledge building. The construction of knowledge can be seen both as interpersonal and intrapersonal process. Thus, an overarching focus is the interdependence of social and individual processes in the co-construction of knowledge and in the co-construction of developing expertise. Accordingly, a structured, interactive and social process was developed.

**Research design**

This study addresses how does an expert identity develop during the course of the perspective transformation process? How does a student build his/her expertise? What types of expert identity evolve? What is the relationship between meaning perspective and types of identity?

The research took the form of a qualitative case study. A phenomenological approach was used in the analysis of the data (see e.g. van Manen 2001, Kvale 1996, Patton 2002). The focus was on exploring how students made sense of their experiences in early education and transformed experiences into consciousness, both individually and as shared meaning (see Patton 2002, 104, 106).

The analysis began as a case analysis. As a case study, change in meaning perspectives were scrutinized in the context of students’ learning processes. The first phase of the analysis attempted to describe the essential details of individual cases. Every student and his or her learning process were treated as an individual case (see Yin 2003). The relevant information was collected separately for each individual and analysed for the significant experiences. Each students’ meaning perspectives and the process of transformation of those perspectives were analysed. In these case descriptions the characteristics of the learning context were also scrutinized. Thus, an effort was also made to understand the social and situational nature of the process of becoming expert.

In this study, changes in individual cases were also scrutinized as a general phenomenon. As a case study this research evolved around the in-depth study of single event and a series of linked cases over a defined period of time. The first phase of the analysis attempted to describe the essential details of the individual cases. In the second phase the individual cases were compared by using a modified constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss 1967; Maykut & Morehouse 1994) and thus a multi-case study was carried out (Merriam 1998). Comparative analysis was done in order to clarify the themes that emerged as a result of the first analysis and also to deepen the researchers understanding of these themes.
Data collection and participants

Data were collected from various sources. The primary data consisted of semi-structured and non-structured interviews with 20 M.A. (Ed) students. Semi-structured interviews were implemented as personal (individual interviews n=9), and non-structured interviews were implemented as group interviews (n=4). The interviews were held one to three months after the learning process. Portfolios kept by the students’ were used as secondary data to support the interview data. The portfolios consisted of students’ written work, including self-assessment. The researchers study log was also used as a data.

The participants were two different groups of students taking the M.Ed. in Early Childhood Education at the University of Jyväskylä. The students were qualified kindergarten teachers who were pursuing their Masters degree in education. Some of the students, therefore, already had considerable professional experience. They had explored their expertise also in a social and real-life context, through which knowledge was constructed through authentic activity and social interaction. The learning process continued throughout the whole academic year.

The results

Types of identity

As this study proceeded, identity improved from a state of disorientation to full understanding of one’s own expertise. However, identity did not turn out to be the same for all students. Instead, four identities emerged, namely, the convinced pedagogue, the identity seeker, the community actor and the specialist. The convinced pedagogues were highly motivated to teach and educate young children. They wanted to use their expertise and also wanted to influence the quality of early childhood pedagogy. Pedagogy played an important role in their work. The identity seekers were still seeking their career and uncertain whether they would remain in the field of early childhood education. The specialists understood expertise in early childhood education as a clearly delineated specific domain. The community actors understood expertise in early childhood education as combining broad contextual knowledge and a professional orientation.

Meaning perspectives

Three different meaning perspectives emerged, relating to: 1) the individual himself/herself, 2) the community and 3) society. These meaning perspectives influenced identity in expertise and how it was built. For those students whose meaning perspective primarily developed in relation to themselves the process deepened their knowledge and understanding of themselves as a person. For those students whose meaning perspective changed towards the community the process deepened their knowledge and understanding of the work community and context. These students wanted particularly to orientate their activities towards developing the content of their work and also their work unit and the community. Those students whose meaning perspective changed towards society showed a
comprehensive understanding of the relationship between the system of early childhood education and the wider social context, its structures and changes in it, and they emphasised its importance accordingly. They also felt that an expert has a responsibility to influence development at all levels of society.

**Empowerment**

Empowerment was essential. During the empowerment process personal self-knowledge emerged. Empowerment extended to the professional field, including development work for the benefits of early childhood and children in society. The results also indicate that as ones’ meaning perspective becomes clearer, ones’ empowerment and identity as an expert also become stronger. However, change and empowerment were different processes to different students. There was no one way to change.

**Conclusion**

What kinds of educational practices support the development of an expert identity and empowerment? First of all, it is important to support the development of an expert identity throughout the educational process. This calls for a thorough discussion of the nature of expertise. When discussing identity, it is important to consider what kind of meanings students attribute to their own expertise.

Likewise, it seems to be important that during the training process the student is encouraged to reflect on his/her meaning perspectives. This is also a major goal of transformative learning. It is crucial to create and organise the kinds of learning environments in which social reflection is possible. Results offered evidence that social reflective processes are crucial in encouraging professionals in early education to reflect upon and articulate aspects of their educational expertise and practice. The students in this research project linked a number of professional development issues to social reflective practices.

**References**


Within the body of academic writing relating to leadership, an increasing interest in focusing on the learning of leaders and organisations can be charted (Gronn 1999). In terms of considering leadership development emerging leaders are under-represented and, despite studies of their experiences in general terms (Gronn & Lacey 2004; Ribbins 2003), there has been little focus on their learning. This study draws on socio-cultural perspectives and therefore takes a participatory view of learning (Sfard 1998). Learning is believed to take place through practice and with others; situated in context (Wenger 1998). The work of Wenger has been applied to the exploration of the learning of recently promoted leaders as they take on new roles in addition to their classroom teaching. In particular his ideas of identity and belonging are explored. It was also informed by those within the emerging field of workplace learning and those studying leadership development and management. The work presented is an emerging analysis from a partly-completed Doctoral study in which the research questions under study are:

RQ1 How are leaders’ individual goals derived and how do they change on becoming a leader?

RQ2 What are the learning processes utilised by emergent leaders?

RQ3 How do individual emergent leaders construe the opportunities and constraints to their learning?

RQ4 How does an emergent leader balance learning between that for their teaching and leadership roles?

Towards a conceptual framework

This chapter shows how Wenger’s (1998) notions of learning as identity formation and hence relating to senses of belonging have been applied to data as a way of understanding the experiences of new leaders. Wenger sees a ‘profound connection’ between identity and practice and asserts that developing practice requires membership of what he terms ‘communities of practice’ (Wenger, 1998, p149). He emphasises the need to recognise a temporal dimension to identity and talks about trajectories into, within and out of such communities. The leaders in this study were selected to be in a period of transition from solely teacher to also leader and notions of learning trajectory seemed therefore helpful in understanding their experiences. Wenger also poses the potential to hold multiple identities and identifies what he terms the ‘work of reconciliation’ needed to deal with the intersection or ‘nexus’ of such multi-memberships. This offered a possible way of thinking about leaders’ learning both as classroom teacher and as leader (RQ4).
Wenger’s view is that learning requires both participation in communities of practitioners and a formalisation and articulation or reification of this learning with others. These processes he argues ‘form a unity in their duality’ (Wenger, 1998, p62). The processes he explains can be understood in terms of the roles of imagination, engagement and alignment. Imagination considers an individual’s views of the possibilities available and images of the future in relation to the past. This allows a way of conceptualising the leader’s goals (RQ1). Engagement, in terms of relationships, interactions and practices, connects with the research aims of considering the leaders’ learning processes (RQ2). Alignment accommodates the discourses and activities relating to, responding to and complying with broader structures and resonates with reflecting on perceptions of leader’s contexts (RQ3).

This chapter proposes that there is a need to look elsewhere to examine in more detail these learning processes and explores work from the field of management looking at how learning approaches can be categorised from an individual’s perspective (Mumford 1993).

**Methodological approach**

Evidence which would inform a socio-cultural understanding of the leaders’ experiences was collected though a set of longitudinal case studies. These considered learning from the perspectives of the leaders, exploring with them the factors that appeared important to them. Both product and process are an attempt to merge autobiographical and biographical methodologies. Comprehensive ethical analysis was conducted, using a combination of Seedhouse’s grid (Seedhouse 1998) and an interpretation of the work of (Flinders 1992). The work was strongly influenced by relational ethical views such as collaboration, avoidance of imposition and confirmation that supported this choice of iterative analysis and feedback. The approach developed draws on an iterative and collaborative approach taken by Kelchtermans (Kelchtermans 1994) along with a merging of life-history and life-course methodologies such as articulated by the UK-based ‘Learning lives’ project (Biesta et al. 2004). The first phase took three different life history approaches to gather an understanding of the perception of the learning experiences for each leader pre-study (Figure 1). These interviews took a chronological look at learning influences from childhood to the current workplace environment, a consideration of with whom leaders interacted and an overview of the learning opportunities from a typical week in the current workplace.
After a largely descriptive analysis the biographical evidence was revisited in a feedback interview with the leaders using a visual organiser; in this case a conceptual map of what was learnt and from whom. Phase 2 of the study then consisted of 2 cycles of interviews. Each began with an exploratory revisiting interview (nos. 4 and 6), followed by the collection of 10 images or text that represented learning opportunities over a month period (as a learning log) followed by a discussion of this log in a progress interview (nos. 5 and 7). Leaders were guided that, in each case, the majority of episodes should represent their learning as a leader. In addition to the interview data, supplementary documentary evidence was collected as raised as pertinent during the interviews. This included: school development plans; individual performance management data; job descriptions and curriculum vitae. A senior leader responsible for the overview of the emergent leader’s professional development was also approached for interview about the leader’s professional learning. This was possible in only two cases. A two-stage biography production is now being undertaken for each case: firstly, as case record and secondly, as analytical account.

The cases were selected using the proxy that they were all on or had recently been on the National College of School Leadership’s (NCSL) ‘Leading from the Middle’ programme; a programme aimed at supporting and developing what the NCSL termed ‘emergent leaders’. The College facilitated access to schools in which likely participants could be approached. The leadership roles of the eventual participants were largely as subject co-ordinators (Figure 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudo-nym</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>School sector</th>
<th>Subject specialism</th>
<th>Role at the start of the study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Laura</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Primary¹</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>Personal, Social and Health Education/ History co-ordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandra</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Secondary²</td>
<td>Social science</td>
<td>Head of Information Communication Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Margaret</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Middle³</td>
<td>Social science</td>
<td>Humanities co-ordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jacky</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Sports science</td>
<td>Numeracy/Physical Education co-ordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amanda</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Music</td>
<td>Assessment/ Humanities co-ordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aimee</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>English/ Drama</td>
<td>Head of Drama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philip</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>Director of learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: The set of cases

¹ Most UK State primary schools take children from 4-11 years old although some are split into Infant and Junior schools.
² Most State secondary schools take children from 11-18 years old. This is the case for Laura and Aimee while Philip’s is a Village College in which children are from 11-16 years old.
³ Middle schools exist in some Local Authorities in the UK, generally taking children from 9-13 years old.
Two pen portraits follow summarising the experiences of two leaders – Aimee and Margaret. The development of the analytical framework is then presented followed by the outcomes of analysis during cycle 1 of the phase 2 (Figure 1) exemplified particularly for Aimee and Margaret.

Pen-portraits: locating lives in context

Aimee (Spring 2008): Aimee is a teacher in her second teaching post and in her third year at her current Secondary school. She is a Drama specialist and moved from her original role at this school as Head of Drama to Head of the Faculty of Expressive Arts in September 2007. Aimee was employed as one of two Drama teachers in the school. The other has been intermittently absent for much of the last 2 years and the school had just accepted their resignation. Covering for this teacher’s activities and coping with her absence has been a significant part of Aimee’s learning as both a fellow teacher and a leader of a department and now Faculty. She is well supported by her line manager, a deputy Headteacher, and has been able to access Fast-track activities and mentoring throughout the study.

Margaret (Summer 2008): After other workplace experience, motherhood and several years as a teaching assistant Margaret trained as a teacher and has been teaching in Middle schools for 5 years in 2 schools. In her current school she took responsibility for co-ordination of the Humanities, which she has done for the last 3 years. The school was about to merge with its feeder school to become a Primary. Margaret had retained her job, including her leadership role, now with a broader remit for the age range 4-11. Margaret’s class teaching responsibility has moved year to year and she is about to work with a year group which will entail known children but new in terms of curriculum. Her new colleagues on this team will include those she both has and has not worked with before.

Analytical framework

There is a growing awareness of the potential for identity to act as a useful analytic lens for educational researchers along with an acknowledgement that greater conceptual clarity is required (Gee 2001; Sfard & Prusak 2005). Authors such as Wenger (1998), Sfard and Prusak (2005) and Harrison (2000) challenge researchers to view learning and identity as integrated rather than separate concepts. Wenger talks in terms of learning as the ‘vehicle for the evolution of practices and inclusion of newcomers’ (Wenger, 1998, p13) and hence of identity development. As has already been described, Wenger sees an iterative relationship between participation in professional practices and the reification (making tangible) of these processes. The leaders in my study can therefore be viewed as 1) learning teachers, learning about being teachers, and 2) learning leaders, learning about being leaders. Each can be examined through the lens of identity. The former identity is expected to be more established; given that none of the teachers in this study are newly qualified. Their identity

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1 A programme run by the National College of School Leadership (http://www.ncsl.org.uk/lfitm-index) for those aspiring to leadership roles which supports them during their first 4 years of teaching.
as leaders is hypothesised to be ‘emergent’. By thinking about identity as being through processes, Wenger’s notions (Wenger 1998) of identity are dynamic such that identity can be thought of as a constant ‘becoming’ along trajectories. These he qualifies as being unlikely to be linear. Holding multiple and non-stable identities offered a way to examine how teachers became leaders.

Sfard and Prusak (2005) similarly acknowledge identity formation as a process. They suggest consideration of past, present and a notion of future aspirational or ‘designated’ identities. Again they focus attention on the formative processes rather than summative identity identification. Learning is also seen as integral to these identity changes in ‘making reality of the image of fantasies’ (Sfard and Prusak, 2005, p19). It can be concluded that there is disagreement as to whether learning is becoming (identity formation) or learning is the vehicle for such identity formation. Sfard and Prusak (2005) and Biesta et al (2004) assert that identity is not an analytic tool that should be applied to data about identity but that ontologically identity is itself narrative. Identity is conceptualised as a ‘story we can tell of our lives. One way to narrate one’s identity’ (Biesta et al, 2004, p7). Identity talk is seen as of importance regardless of practice: a view shared by others who recognise identity as requiring stories being told by individuals as they become explicitly more aware about themselves (Harrison 2000) or the ‘reflexive project’ (Giddens 1991).

Opportunities for identity talk were built into this project’s design in a methodologically similar way to Sfard and Prusak’s (2005) work; which included interview only. In Wenger’s view what we say about ourselves are only reifications; only part of the process of identity development. He therefore does not believe epistemologically that discourse alone can replace trying to capture the lived experiences themselves. His methodological approaches demand observation of practice. While not in real time, or observed directly, the evidence through learning-logs of practice on which to reflect in discussion, served in this study as a bridge between the two stances.

Wenger’s ideas of identity and membership can be applied to one set of data collection in which a set of learning episodes were identified and described by emergent leaders. For each episode it was asked ‘who is the individual learning as?’ That is their identity and ‘to whom do the individuals belong whilst learning?’ ie. their membership. To answer these questions the component roles of each of: imagination, alignment and engagement were determined. Within engagement and a study of learning through practice the roles of consciousness, reactivity and responsiveness with respect to the learning episodes (Mumford, 1993) were explored. Mumford associated these with four possible learning approaches; intuitive, incidental, retrospective and prospective (Figure 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning approach</th>
<th>Dimension 1</th>
<th>Dimension 2</th>
<th>Dimension 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTUITIVE</td>
<td>Unconscious</td>
<td>Reactive</td>
<td>Responsive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INCIDENTAL</td>
<td>Conscious</td>
<td>Deliberate</td>
<td>Proactive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 3:** The classification of learning approaches according to three dimensions, drawn from the work of Mumford, 1993.

The analysis presented focuses on Aimee and Margaret while with reference to all five cases.
Findings

The learning episodes leaders chosen by the leaders select spanned: the formal to the informal; planned to the unplanned and from social to individual activities. Leaders were asked to sort their learning-log against these dimensions. Formal, planned examples included attending meetings with the senior leadership team, attending courses or learning associated with attending or leading staff meetings. Informal activities included comments or advice from unplanned conversations with a wide variety of people, including colleagues, ex-colleagues, other professionals outside school, or from observing others working. Some leaders chose to represent these all in the form of images while others chose to summarise in words. While the majority of episodes did involve other people in some way, a few were individual and reflective such as reflecting on work/life balance or how they felt about their role. Amanda discussed how she was learning to be in the ‘middle of the staff’; a tension between needing to lead others while remaining their peer and colleague. A summary of the analysis for this first cycle of learning log data collection is included for Margaret and Aimee. In Margaret’s case the underpinning analysis in terms of how each episode was considered through the lenses of imagination, alignment and engagement is also included; indicating how Mumford’s (1993) notions of learning approach have been conflated with those of Wenger (1998).

Margaret

Margaret collected 10 examples of learning episodes in her learning log – all as images. She talked in terms of belonging to the teaching profession at different scales of community and therefore with multiple identities (see Figures 4 and 5): as a teacher; a middle school teacher; a co-ordinator with whole school responsibilities; a teacher of a particular year group and as a potential primary school teacher. Despite being asked to mainly represent her learning as a leader, few of these included leadership identities. Overarching all of her participation was her sense of identity as a learner who was on a road to, but not yet achieving, expert status in any aspect of her professional life. For example, when asked to reflect on how she perceived herself as a teacher and a school leader, she replied;

“I feel inadequate as there is always so much to learn (Margaret, progress interview, 12 July 2007).”

Margaret does not see any conflict between her teaching and leading roles. When asked directly she said that teaching was always her focus rather than thinking in terms of leading. In her opinion this is partly cultural and a product of teaching in Primary schools;

“Everyone in Primary [teaching] is a leader as they all have something to co-ordinate (Margaret, progress interview, 12 July 2007).”

2 Episode 2: Learning with pupils at a Victorian workhouse; Episode 6: Learning with pupils during an ecological hands-on activity with a visitor; Episodes 7/8: Working with a professional performer; Episodes 9/10: Organising and working with children on a residential trip.
Margaret’s view of her identity in practice fits in with notions of leadership as learning such that whatever else leaders do, their primary role is to keep learning and to facilitate the learning of those around them (Antonacopoulou & Bento 2004; Vail 1996). She sees her co-ordination role as a reciprocal process of learning about what is needed for the role while supporting others in teaching Humanities aspects of the curriculum. She talked not so much as belonging to a community of co-ordinators but a community of Middle school teachers trying to bring alive an externally imposed curriculum for the benefit of the children in the school. Her identity is of someone learning to take on the mantle of a co-ordinator. Margaret enacts different aspects of this role when she talks about needing to be able to facilitate new activities, to broker resources or to support the learning of others. She selected these images, representing her finding out and responding to the needs of her colleagues, as examples of how she was learning to make the transition from teacher to leader. With respect to one of these identities; that of being a new member of a year 6 (10-11 year olds) teaching team, an example is given of how Margaret’s learning was analysed through the lenses of imagination, alignment and engagement.

The role of imagination

While Margaret brings with her the experience of teaching this particular cohort of children and the curriculum as they have just experienced it she explained that she was less clear about the possibilities of how she was to belong and contribute to the new year 6 teaching team. The other teachers in the team had previous experience of this year group’s curriculum and Margaret was unclear as to how she would be viewed and used. Margaret began the familiarisation process with the new curriculum by trying out new materials with her current classes to better assess the possibilities and implications for practice –entering into self discourse (Sfard & Prusak 2005)– as a basis for learning. During this term the teaching team were reviewing changes to the UK National Curriculum through which Margaret reflected there was even less scope for her own aspirations as valued pedagogical and curricular areas appeared threatened by their omission or marginalisation and she experienced feelings of concern for her future teaching.

The role of alignment

Compliance was a strong element in Margaret’s initial experiences of belonging to this new teaching team. She talked about the overpowering agenda of needing to comply with the new National frameworks which, through the school charging her and her colleagues to implement, imposed what she should learn. The school set a formal structure within which collaborative discourse on how to adapt current schemes of work to reflect the national expectations was

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3 Episodes 3 and 4: Other teachers looking for materials and advice on additional resources plus talking about swapping rooms in the following year. Also episode 5: Trying things out on the interactive whiteboard alone between lessons.

4 Episodes 3 and 4.
set. Each team delegated different strands of the curriculum to be studied and planned for. Due to Margaret’s whole-school role she worked on the Humanities strand. Margaret was learning about how to comply with the new arrangements both in terms of curriculum and organisational structures and expressed a lack of control over and marginalisation of her participation in the discursive activities this involved. This reaction contrasted with the attitude expressed by Margaret in all of the other communities in which Margaret was involved and in which she saw working with others as a potential opportunity. It was also despite the school setting up spaces and times for colleagues to work with one another which would have been predicted to align with Margaret’s beliefs about learning.

**The role of engagement**

In allocating a new combination of teachers (some unknown to Margaret) to the year team as a work unit, new possible relationships and interactions arise. That the team have been charged with seeking together links between the new UK National framework and their year group’s, they found themselves needing to negotiate meaning formally. The lack of shared histories of learning of this set of colleagues (something Wenger (1998) asserts will influence and characterise engagement with the community) leaves Margaret articulating that she feels ‘out of her comfort zone’ during the meetings.

After being given a strand of the curriculum to read, reflect on and report back to the team, she did feel that she now had something concrete to contribute to the team and this increased her sense of belonging to the team. She appreciated the chance between meetings to learn in ways she felt comfortable with such as trialling new resources and reflecting on the literature. This learning both in and between the meetings, according to (Mumford 1993)’s typology, can be termed prospective i.e. conscious, deliberate and proactive. The agenda was determined before the learning and required time to be set aside for it as evidenced by expected articulated outcomes. This was an unfamiliar learning approach to Margaret and may explain in part her discomfort and lack of confidence in enacting it.

**Aimee**

Aimee chose to represent her learning episodes as text (words or phrases) rather than images. She identified nine during the summer of 2008. Aimee’s identity in terms of membership of different communities also appeared to operate simultaneously at different scales (Figures 4 and 5): as an adult in a collaborative enterprise; as a Drama teacher with overall responsibility for Drama teaching; as a leader with responsibility for cross-subject Faculty activities; as a learning leader of a Faculty and as a Head of Faculty. Compared to Margaret, Aimee appears mainly to be learning as a leader, she similarly remains focused on classroom issues. Planning for coherent progression within her subject was uppermost in her mind during this learning-log, both for herself as a learning teacher but also, on reflection, for developing this across all classes taught⁵. As

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⁵ Episode 3: Adapting teaching of exam classes previously taught by another Drama teacher.
a learning leader, when considering beyond her subject to Music and Art⁶ she realised that she was not clear as to the nature and issues of these subjects as they were taught in school and that this was a necessary precursor to planning and visioning⁷. In light of her responsibilities for overall Faculty activities Aimee expressed how she was coping reactively rather than being able to apply any foresight;

“Aimee: I feel quite upset that everything I’m doing is reactionary rather than proactive, and in a way I don’t have a choice in that, but possibly as I learn.

Interviewer: Why don’t you feel that you’ve got a choice in that?
Aimee: because things just keep happening, like staff being off and, goodness knows, loads of things. They just keep happening and need to be dealt with (Aimee, revisiting interview, December 07)”

Staff absence was a big issue for Aimee and the implications for pupils were often only apparent retrospectively. In one instance, as the leader who had to take over running a trip to London at the last minute⁸, Aimee reflected after the event deliberately and consciously as to what she needed to learn from this experience. One conclusion she drew was the need to be more aware of the state of progress of trips run under the auspices of her Faculty. Such learning is self-discoursive; Aimee trying to make sense on her own of the problems she experienced as a result of the actions of others. In taking responsibility for and being accountable for these she aspired to make future decisions based on principles. She did not cite for these episodes any discussion with other people to help decide how to react. However, in other instances,⁹ Aimee does draw on the advice of her line manager as an experienced and trusted mentor in line with Wengerian views of enculturation (Lave & Wenger 1991). It was not clear whether any inferred community of leaders extended beyond this mentor-mentee relationship. Aimee certainly cited past leaders from which she was still drawing inspiration and this leaves unclear the boundaries of her current community. While she was becoming clearer on her vision for the Faculty she felt her skills to lead her Faculty were lacking¹⁰. Here Aimee reflects that she is constantly disappointed with Faculty meetings;

“I struggle to keep a positive feeling and where I would with some new initiatives naturally, and maybe it is just the way I’ve learnt, the way I am I will say ‘Oh great idea, let’s give that a go’. And I know other people don’t do that because other people see the workload implications. (Aimee, revisiting interview, December 2008)”

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⁶ Episode 2: Reflecting on reading reports written by other member of Faculty.
⁷ Episode 9: Planning for a moderation of work day across the Faculty.
⁸ Episode 1 A trip to a London theatre set in motion by a colleague, now absent.
⁹ Episode 6: Phoning the parent of a child affected by staff absence; Episode 7: Phoning previous Head of Faculty to refuse offer of cover teaching.
¹⁰ Episode 8: Reflection on recent experiences at Faculty staff meetings.
On one occasion Aimee cited that she felt she had learnt from acting as a Head of Faculty. On phoning the previous Head of Faculty she summarised her learning as that she had surprised herself as to how firm she could be and that this opened new possibilities for her.

**Cross-case comparisons**

For each leader, analysis of the set of learning episodes were similarly conducted and the following identities (Figure 4) and memberships (Figure 5) identified. These inferences have been discussed with and verified by the leaders in terms of seeing how well they connected with the categorisations allocated and therefore increasing the face validity of the analyses. If more than one learning episode seemed to be covered by the same definition, the number of episodes is followed by the number in parentheses. The figures have been presented such that leadership as opposed to teacher (and other) identities and memberships are distinct from one another. Where similarities between categorisations across cases were found, they are presented in the same row of the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher identities</th>
<th>Margaret Summer07 (n=10)</th>
<th>Jacky Autumn 07 (n=8)</th>
<th>Amanda Autumn 07 (n = 13)</th>
<th>Aimee Spring 08 (n = 9)</th>
<th>Philip Spring08 (n = 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher and lifelong learner (3)</td>
<td>A learning teacher (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>As teacher (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One of number learners in classroom (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Adult in collaborative enterprise (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future year 6 teacher (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A practitioner-follower (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A vulnerable teacher in a new school (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A part-time teacher (1)</td>
<td>Learning teacher but also as leader (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td>As leader learning as a teacher (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subject teacher with responsibility for this within faculty (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.../...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In every case, although leaders were asked to focus on their learning as a leader, examples of learning as a teacher were shown. In some, such as Margaret, the majority of episodes related to her learning as a teacher. For others, such as Amanda, learning was usually through feeling that they were practising as a leader.
If the same episodes are analysed according to perceived memberships, Margaret appears to feel that she is only a member of teaching communities, whereas Amanda perceives that she acts only within leadership communities. The other four leaders articulate both memberships.

### Conclusions and issues for the study

This analysis has allowed reflection on the progress made towards addressing this project’s research questions. Mindful that this is only one portion of the data set there is evidence of the co-existence of teacher and leadership goals (RQ1). With respect to the learning processes (RQ2), Mumford’s (1993) typology allows the representation of the differing use of learning approaches by individuals, such that some are skewed to incidental learning and others to learning cycles of linked approaches. There are indications from a further analysis of the final cycle of data that patterns of learning may change over time. This was something that was of great interest to the leaders. Wenger’s (1998) notions of ‘alignment’ allowed the influence of context to be considered in each case in a way that could be viewed in terms of the way the workplace was impacting on learning (RQ3). Further work taking this participatory view has been helpful in conceptualising the workplace as a learning environment (Evans et al. 2006). Taken together with ‘imagination’, this allowed differences in ‘engagement’ to be explained. In Jacky’s case for example there was evidence that the workplace changed so much during the study and was so restrictive that she virtually stopped participating and hence learning. Finally, there was evidence that indeed multi-membership of communities was being enacted. Intriguingly, leadership communities were largely potential or virtual rather than actually existing. Conceptual work offering understandings of what have been termed ‘figured worlds’ is proving helpful in understanding these imagined communities (Holland et al. 1998). Current issues therefore relate firstly, to

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader communities</th>
<th>New leadership team (2)</th>
<th>The new leadership team in school (6)</th>
<th>Leaders with links with other schools (2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Community of leaders in school (5)</td>
<td>Leaders able to observe teaching in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>other subjects (1)</td>
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<td>A particular headteacher’s leadership team (4)</td>
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<td>Practitioners and leaders in general (2)</td>
<td>Potential community of leaders in general (1)</td>
<td>Leaders in general (2)</td>
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operationalising the concept of Wenger’s notions of trajectory in generating biographies. Secondly, to reviewing how strongly evidence is explained in terms of considering learning as part of communities of leaders. Thirdly, to resolve whether Mumford’s learning approaches and Wenger’s notions of engagement can be reconciled.

References


Introduction

Research and teaching conditions set the terms for teachers in their workplaces. The focus of this small-scale study is therefore to understand how a course in educational design and processes, mandatory for all university teachers, influences and shapes them. To better understand this, some general background of the conditions in Sweden will be provided.

Even though the area of research concerning higher education seems to have established itself as an important research field, there are still issues that need to be considered. The division between research on higher education and other activities such as reflection and information gathering tends to be unclear (Schwartz and Teichler, 2000). Another problem, somewhat different from the one described above but still important, is the massification of higher education. Today everyone is ‘expected’ to study in order to obtain work or just to improve themselves. The Swedish government has set the goal to 50 per cent of a cohort attending institutions of higher education. The institutions also have to provide more study places in higher education for natural sciences and engineering. A more general objective is to increase the social and ethnic diversity of higher education. The number of students has increased from 16,000 in 1950 to over 330,000 in 1999. The 1977 reform of higher education in Sweden extended the definition of higher education and the number of students increased further. In 2005 the number of students was 337,415 and the degrees awarded numbered 57,099 and there were 18,639 active postgraduate students. Today there are around fifty institutions of higher education run either by the government, regional authorities or private actors (Johansson, 2007).

It is currently mandatory for university teachers in Sweden to participate in a course which highlights what being a teacher in higher education involves, focusing on planning, teaching and evaluating teaching practices. The participants in these courses are not homogenous. They work in different disciplines and differ in work experience. These are some of the facts which influence how teachers react to different teaching practices. In this small-scale study, for which five interviews were conducted, we analyse how the participants in the said course perceive their experience of teaching; i.e. how they perceive their role as teachers, including both their reflections upon themselves as teachers, as well as their educational practice. Finally, we study how this 15 credit course has ‘shaped’ them into their roles as teachers.
Theoretical standpoints

To enable students to develop an in-depth approach to learning, teachers should work with what can be called a student-focused strategy (Trigwell et al., 1999). Different disciplines can be seen as having various scientific paradigms and this can also be transferred to the educational context (see studies by Johansson, 2007, Nilsson, 2007, Axelsson, 2008). One of the main issues in the above thesis, and in this small-scale study, is the question of how the different scientific disciplines design lifelong learning.

In the mandatory course for university teachers, the participants express that one of the benefits of the course is to meet teachers from different faculties (from the various scientific disciplines). The everyday boundaries which exist on an institutional level are questioned; through participation in a cultural learning environment the participants reflect upon wider implications of learning.

Hodkinson, Biesta & James (2008) represent a critical perspective towards current learning theories. They argue that the following four perspectives are all present but the different learning theories employ only one or two, however never all four at the same time. Firstly, individual learning is not always understood as an embodied social action. In psychology, the learning theories often separate the body and mind and focus on cognition, downplaying physical, practical and emotional dimensions of learning. They often regard ‘the social’ as no more than a characteristic of the situation where learning takes place. Secondly, individual learning is often decontextualised. There is a tendency (especially in studies with a cognitive approach) to either focus on the learning situation and its participatory practice or to see individual learning as occupying a context, rather than being a part of it. Thirdly, learning theory often fails to fully incorporate wider social and instrumental structures. There are few researchers who would deny the significance of gender, ethnicity or social class, yet such broader perspectives are not always fully included into existing learning theories. Furthermore, they often disregard that learning is a process. The fourth and final learning theory often fails to fully incorporate the significance of power. Power relationships and inequalities are central to all activities within any social setting, but most of the learning theories fail to do these issues justice (Hodkinson et.al. 2008).

The answer to their criticism is to design a theory that attempts to provide a more holistic point of view (Hodkinson et.al., 2008). Every place where ‘people act and interact’ is a learning culture (2008:34). They mean that all of the abovementioned dimensions are related to each other in an interactive way and that they all must be taken into account. The individual learner is in a learning culture, they argue, and individuals influence and are a part of learning cultures just as learning cultures influence and are a part of the individuals (2008: 37). The culture is something that exists both inside and outside the participant. Learning is practical, embodied and social. Practical activity and intelligent action interact in the learning process. The body and mind are not separated. The socialisation is always present, both within and outside of your ‘body’ and therefore, of course, also influences you as a knowledgeable person (Hodkinson et.al. 2008). However, human experiences are not always a priori an asset, experiences can become the enemy if they are not constantly considered and reconsidered, interpreted and reinterpreted. When living in constant security, newly gained experiences can become threatening (Thång in Theliander, 2004).
Another, or perhaps a complementary, perspective, is that of sociocultural theory. Within this theory, Säljö argues that when we are newcomers in a specific field we can use our skills and borrow cognitive competence from a more experienced or legitimated actor. Through this cognitive transfer we can gain access to knowledge of, for instance, how to ask questions and how to respond to them in a specific field or area of employment. This is not in line with the old tradition in which the newcomers are passive listeners and the experienced individuals instruct and teach them how to do things. On the contrary, this perspective enables a possibility to engage in cooperation where knowledge is used for a clear purpose (Säljö, 2000).

**Context of the study**

The mandatory courses are presented in the figure below. This figure is necessary in order to understand some of what is said by the informants in our study. Following the figure there is a discussion of the pedagogical ideas and settings the course aims to provide.

**Mandatory education for teachers in higher education**

![Diagram of mandatory courses](Image)

*Figure 1. Mandatory course for teachers in higher education at University West, Sweden.*

The mandatory course for teachers in higher education is given at an advanced level, and a maximum of 20 participants enroll in the course once a year. The course is split into six modules. Three of them start in the autumn semester and three in the spring. The participants start their education in the autumn with the mandatory part ‘The University as a Pedagogical Setting’. After that they can choose ‘Learning for Higher Education’ or ‘Quality in Higher Education’ or take both of them. The next semester (starting in January) also begins with a mandatory part ‘Work Integrated Learning and Educational Implications’ and in this semester
they have the opportunity to choose between ‘Tutorial in Higher Education’ or ‘Work Integrated Learning and Design’ or they can participate in both. The course amounts to 21 ECTS, but only 15 ECTS are mandatory for teachers.

In one of the mandatory courses the focus is Work Integrated Learning (WIL), as this is part of the University West profile. The participants’ everyday teaching situations and practices are in focus, mainly through dialogue and seminars. At the seminars, the participants exchange their experiences. Another important educational assignment is the participants’ writing a diary. This diary is a part of their examination, but also functions as a fundamental mode of reflection throughout the course. Lectures are based on the participants’ own experiences. An important part of the course is the classroom observation, in which the participants hold a lecture for their own students and their fellow course participants are invited together with one assigned teacher (who functions as a tutor). Before the observation there is a meeting where all involved discuss what is to be observed. Then the lecture takes place, and following it the course participants and the tutor reflect upon and discuss the teaching situation.

**Method**

**Samples, data collection and analysis**

The analysis rests mainly on interviews with participants that are either at the end of a 15 credit course (in October 2008) or finalised it during 2007. In other words, they are taken from two different cohorts. This brief paper, which has the character of a pilot study, makes use of five interviews in the analysis. The interviews were carried out by one of the authors. She knows the course well and participates in it marginally and towards the end of the course. The interviews varied in length from 40 – 90 minutes. In this paper we will concentrate on mainly two questions. The first one is: What does ‘a good teacher’ represent to you? And the follow up question: What kind of traits does a good teacher possess? The other question is: Has this programme helped you in becoming a ‘good teacher’ (and if yes, how)? Follow up question here is: Could you describe how the course has helped you in your daily work?

The analysis is inspired by content analysis, the origin of which was described by Berelson as early as 1952. He described it as a technique to find an objective, systematised and quantitative description of the content in a message (Löfgren, 2008). At that time this technique focused on the directness and exclusiveness of the text, so that independently of how, where, or who read and interpreted the text, the answer would remain the same. Depending on the ontological standpoint, this can be seen as an impossible mission. The method, or technique, later became the subject of a more qualitative analysis, with the aim to find underlying and embedded messages. Now researchers agree that the technique per se always involves a phase which demands interpretations.

**Analytical procedure**

A content analysis was chosen with the aim to find the interrelations between the perceived phenomenon and its relation to a work habitus or situation. We
started the analysis in the same manner as with all qualitative analysis; getting acquainted with the transcripts. The only way to do this is by rigorous reading. Thereafter, our reading focused on some questions. Question number one was: What stands out? Question number two was: What are the ‘statements’ which make this phenomenon stand out? And, finally: Have we made the same or a similar interpretation? After finding passages which stood out, they were considered significant units and were labelled (or coded). The labels were then divided into different themes or cathegories. In the results section they are presented in tables with three columns each containing three themes.

Since we are two authors, we used each other as instruments with the purpose to see what we interpreted and why. This meant that we read the transcripts separately, trying to find ‘the content’; what is the significant result of this reasoning, and how does it relate to the interviewee’s work place? In this way the analysis has been carried out by more than one person in a process that may be called negotiated consensus (Wahlström, Dahlgren, Tomson, Diwan and Beerman, 1997).

Results

The results are divided into two categories. One is named courage, since most of the interviewees expressed the view that courage was foremost among the characteristics needed as a university teacher. The second category was labelled self-reliance, because the interviewees stated that the course they had been enrolled in gave them self-reliance in teaching situations.

Courage as the dominant trait in a good teacher

The interviewees expressed that to become a good teacher courage is needed first and foremost. One important factor to consider here is that three of the five teachers were relatively new as teachers. Their work experience differed from one year to one and a half years. Not surprisingly, they mentioned courage as an important factor in their daily work as teachers. From this essence, three subcategories were derived: to challenge yourself, traits in the role as teacher, and finally there was a dimension of practice involved.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Courage</th>
<th>to challenge yourself</th>
<th>traits in a teacher</th>
<th>in practice</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to do something different</td>
<td>to be perceptive</td>
<td>to manifest willingness to try new and challenging methods.</td>
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<tr>
<td>to open up for criticism</td>
<td>to be empathic</td>
<td>to inspire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to have faith in the students’ abilities</td>
<td>to be flexible</td>
<td>to provide space for the students’ abilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to dare to do ‘new’ things</td>
<td></td>
<td>to provide students with the challenge they need</td>
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*Figure 2: A good teacher has courage*
A relatively common experience when entering a new workplace is the phenomenon of feeling as if floating (Bron et al, 2004). This can be illustrated by using a sailing metaphor: You are in an adventure, but you do not really know where to sail from and where to go ashore. Courage can be understood in several different lights. It can pertain to you as a person or teacher, for instance, when coping with new experiences in a new setting, or it can refer to your capacities. According to the informants, it can be described as

“having courage, the courage to think in new ways...the courage to try...(Informant 1, Female)”

Thång (in Theliander, 2004) argues that some experiences can be your enemy and result in a fear that stops you from developing. The participants talked about having courage to think in new ways and to experiment with new methods in the classroom, and in this case it is necessary for the teachers to consider and reconsider their own experience in order to do new things.

A good teacher must also have some knowledge concerning different methods and provide space for the students’ own learning and feel secure in their role as a teacher. One of the interviewees stated that

“to be a good teacher you should know a little about different pedagogical methods... with PBL (problem-based learning) and such... yes to learn or help the students learn to learn by themselves (Informant 3, Male).”

This informant stated that PBL is a ‘good’ method to apply in the classroom and he also mentioned that the students must learn a new skill: to learn how to learn. Hodkinson et.al. (2008) state that learning is practical, embodied and social. They mean that people (students included) act within a system of expectations, both their own and others’. These expectations influence, structure and limit what is possible to do within this system (for instance, for the students). It is important to let the students use their senses (multiple). The teachers should not facilitate too much, because the students can be hindered from learning on a deeper level. Another informant explained it thus:

“The good teacher makes space for the students’ experience, (the teacher) takes advantage of the experiences, they (the students’ experiences) are valuable... but they should also be questioned, after the course ... (the student) has a broader perspective.. (Informant 4, Female).”

Kember and Kwan (in Hativara & Goodyear, 2002) describe teaching as a transmission of knowledge and teaching as facilitation of learning. In the latter the focus on teaching moves from a teacher-centred activity to the students. Our informants in this study thought that a good teacher is student-centred. Merrill (2001) argues that academic studies for adults (aged over 21) enable both women and men to reflect upon past life experience in a more theoretical and critical manner (p12).

The dialogue with students, and meeting them on their own level to provide for their individual needs, is something all of the teachers mentioned. One
informant stated that a good teacher must have a well-founded attitude towards the students learning are also mentioned:

“to be a good teacher ... prepared, perceptive, patient, optimistic... and to have a good attitude (Informant 2, Male).

.. a feeling that the teacher thinks it's great to do this... not just a job...
(Informant 5, Female).”

As a teacher you must like what you are doing, only then can you inspire the students.

The course increased my awareness

One conclusion we made after reading the interviews several times was that it seems that the participants in the course had increased their awareness of the complexity of teaching. Moreover, they expressed that they had started to reflect more upon themselves and their teaching methods. This part of the result deals with some questions of a more evaluative character. We asked the participants in the course how it had ‘affected’ them. Four out of five talked explicitly about their increased self-confidence and that they now believed in themselves. We named the category self-reliance.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Self-reliance</th>
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<tr>
<td>as a process of reflection upon</td>
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<tr>
<td>The students regarding themselves, the teaching, and the colleagues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an increased awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a clear vision of what to achieve in the role as a teacher, emphasising the way there</td>
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<tr>
<td>more and new different educational settings</td>
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Figure 3: Self-reliance as an important factor in teaching

In this category three subcategories emerged. The first one pertains to reflection as a necessary tool for development and support from colleagues as an important factor in attaining self-reliance in the teaching situation:

“it (the course) has helped me so I maybe reflect more on things... or I can bring up themes in the group of colleagues in a different manner... I feel I have support (knowledge) for it now (Informant 4, Female).

it (the course) has give me a lot of confidence and courage to do what I think and (now I)dare to continue to develop that (Informant 1, Female).

it (the course) has made me more daring, and not to be the traditional, the teacher that knows everything... (Informant 5, Female)”. 
The informant argued that you need knowledge, confidence and courage when you are going to teach, and the three informants above were all relatively new to teaching. Säljö (2000) considers newcomers in a specific field to be able to use skills and borrow cognitive competence from a more legitimated actor and this may well be the case for our interviewees. Nobody is a passive listener on this mandatory course, neither the newcomers nor the participants with more experience (see the context of the course above). It is just as Säljö (2000) thinks it should be; the participants have the possibility to engage in cooperation where knowledge is used for their purpose. The course seems to have given the participants some confidence and courage too, probably together with several other factors.

“... always be reflective, challenge, strive for, you know, not to be satisfied with the result of a course, not to be afraid to understand that you could have done better... or that it was a failure... it is a great part of the journey to know where to go...to have a goal to strive for... you know life is not a goal it is a journey, yeah you know...there is no final goal it is the journey there that is interesting (Informant 2, Male).

it (the course) has helped me to get a little bit more student-focused after the course, even if I considered myself to be that before also, so maybe I relax more... even more... (Informant 3, Male)”.

Student-focused learning seems to have established itself as a mantra, though hopefully it also has a bearing on practice, in line with how Trigwell, (1999) as well as Kember and Kwan (2002) discuss designing education. So is SCL (student-centred learning) a fact in their classroom or do they know what kind of answer we want?

A few concluding words

What is a good teacher good at? Or how should you be to be perceived as a competent teacher? We are, of course, well aware that these questions are extremely hard to answer, partly because of the normativity involved and partly because we ask our own participants; how critical can they be? As stated before, this is a small-scale pilot study and we are planning to expand it by interviewing participants on a more ‘traditional’ course at another university. The questions are hard to answer, but the importance of finding more substantial results in this area is significant. We are talking about our university teachers, and we need to be able to problematize the challenges of our profession, but we also need to develop the competence in what can be called student-focused strategies (Trigwell, 1999 and Kember & Kwan, 2002). A thought that emerged during this project was: Are we educating the teachers to be creative and if not, do we allow creativity within the course framework? By creativity in this context we mean that the teacher has the ability and the metacognition to change direction in a classroom when the lesson is going elsewhere than the planned direction. How many of us are sensitive to this and can make a change?
References


Introduction

The theme of the conference is ‘Educational Journeys and Changing Lives’. For every journey and the changes it brings there is a transition. Adult learners experience many transitions during their leaning careers, and for those that choose the graduate path the most significant are on entering and exiting university. While the experience of entering higher education has been widely explored (Emjay Research Consultants 1995; McInnes and James 1995; Seale 2003 and others), that of graduating and entering the workforce has not (Perrone and Vickers 2003). Therefore the focus of this study is the transition of the graduate into their first professional role, in particular that of the newly qualified midwife (NQM). I have not included findings that are specific to midwifery and but have reported the findings that could be relevant to all adult learners.

In the last few years there has been much concern regarding the national shortage of midwives in England and the Royal College of Midwives (RCM) warns that this is set to worsen (RCM 2007). Impacting negatively on the situation is the high levels of attrition noted among NQMs when in transition to their new role (Ball et al. 2002). What I propose to do is to explore the experience of this transition for newly qualified midwives and to identify the factors which may facilitate or inhibit it. If we can understand this then perhaps we could ease the process. Potentially this could mean happier midwives (personal satisfaction), staying in their jobs (trust and professional satisfaction), which would also mean better care for their clients (woman satisfaction).

Literature Review

As the transition from student midwife to qualified midwife involves a change in role, models of role transition were examined. Role transition is the process of changing from one set of expected positional behaviours in a social system to another (Allen and van de Vliert 1984). Although various models were considered, notably Bridges (1980), Allen and van de Vliert (1984) and Nicholson and West (1988), it was the latter that was found to be most appropriate. Each element of Nicholson and West’s (1988) transition cycle reflects the overall aim of the study (Figure 1). It is described as ‘a simple cyclical model of adjustment to transition as a basic framework to which can be added the richness of detail and diversity observable in people’s experiences of transition’ (Nicholson and West, 1988:8). The model acted as a framework for the literature review and also as an aid to analysis and interpretation.
The work of researchers in nursing has recognised that the early stages in
the nurse’s career are often the most difficult, and that the metamorphosis
from student to staff nurse creates professional and personal conflicts as well
as role stress (Kramer 1974 and Maben and Macleod, Clark 1998). Although
the ideas from the nursing research could be utilised in midwifery as we have
our own rules and standards, enabling greater autonomy, they are not easily
transferable (Nursing and Midwifery Council, 2004). As midwives are expected
to exercise this high level of autonomy relatively quickly following qualification
their learning continues with many competencies to achieve in the first year
(Department of Health (DoH) 2004a). Feedback from NQMs suggests that
this ‘reality shock’ is also a common phenomenon for them and that requires
careful consideration (Hobbs and Green 2003).

Stage one of the cycle is the preparation stage, which is viewed in terms
of readiness; the amount of forewarning and how well equipped in skills and
knowledge one feels. Although elements of preparation are mentioned in many
studies (Amos 2001; Bradley 1998; Gerrish, 2000; Maben and Macleod
1998; Ross and Clifford 2002; Whitehead 2001,) it is only the focus of one,
Maben and Macloeds’ (1997). The Newly Qualified Nurses (NQNs) in their
study felt that it was unrealistic to expect the course to fully prepare them for
every aspect of their role.

The second stage is encounter, the first few days or weeks in a job. This stage
may involve a degree of ‘reality shock’, referring to the specific shock-like reactions
of new workers when they find themselves in a work situation for which they have
spent several years preparing and for which they thought they were going to be
prepared and then suddenly find they are not (Kramer 1974). Although ‘reality
shock’ is mentioned in most studies, two similar studies, by population and design,
are in disagreement with each other as to whether it happens (Evans 2001) or
does not happen (Dearmun 2000). If the key to whether ‘reality shock’ happens
depends on the readiness of the newcomer, as suggested in the preparation
stage, perhaps the NQNs in Dearmun’s (2000) study felt prepared.

The third stage is that of adjustment which involves fitting in. There are three
principle levels this involves; in one’s work role, the people with which one
interacts and the culture of the new environment. NQNs found the experience
of transition easier if there was clarity about what was expected of them in their
new role (Amos, 2001; Evans, 2001). Their interactions with work colleagues
both positively and negatively affect their transition depending on the person
and the situation (Amos 2001; Chamley 1999; Maben and Macloed 1997).
Maben et al’s (2006) study on the ‘gap’ between the nursing taught and the
nursing practiced revealed a discord for neophytes in the culture of their new
environment; this is the concept of professional-bureaucratic work conflict.

Support is key to the facilitation of the adjustment phase for the neophyte.
The notion of support is at least mentioned, if not a key finding, in all the
studies on transition in literature reviewed. Those NQNs that experience a
supportive environment find their transition process easier (Macloed Clarke et
al.1997; Maben and Macloed Clarke 1998; Maben et al., 2006; Miller and
Blackman 2004). One support strategy identified in the literature for neophytes
is preceptorship. The NMC suggests that all newly qualified practitioners have a period of support and guidance provided by a named experienced professional colleague, a preceptor (NMC 2006). However, it is clear from the literature that the provision and quality of preceptorship varies a great deal (Amos 2001; Bradley 1998; Dearmun 2000; Gerrish, 2000; Jackson 2005; Ross and Clifford 2002; Macloed et al. 1997).

The fourth, and final, stage of the cycle is that of stabilisation; ‘sees the individual striving to maintain valued elements of the role, making fine tuning adjustments to the experience and action, and enjoying or suffering the fruits of success or failure’ (Nicholson and West, 1988: 14). The interface between stabilisation and commencing the next transition is appraisal, in the forward-looking goal setting sense. This is not discussed in the literature reviewed, as the NQNs of the studies may not have been qualified long enough to reach this stage. NQMs may not have the opportunity to experience stabilisation as they are expected to be ready to move onto their next role, the next pay band at about a year qualified (Department of Health 2004).

It has been demonstrated that the problem of transition can be contextualised in Nicholson and West’s (1988) ‘Transition Cycle’. Furthermore, it is clear from what we know of nurses’ experience of the transition from student to qualified practitioner that it is a troublesome time for them, and that there are factors that help or hinder the process. What had yet to be discovered was midwives experience of this transition. So this is what I planned to explore: NQM’s perceptions of their experience of transition from being a student to being a qualified midwife and to identify the factors that may facilitate or inhibit transition. In order to address this, a qualitative research study was carried out.

![Transition Cycle Diagram](image)

**Figure 1: Nicholson and West (1988) The transition cycle**

**Methods**

Naturalistic inquiry was the paradigm of choice as the focus of the Study. NQMs and their experience of transition, concern social processes, which suggests multiple realities, these realities can only be studied holistically until some level of understanding can be achieved (Lincoln and Guba 1985).
The primary methods of data collection in the study were semi-structured interviews supported by the use of illuminative expression. Interview method was deemed to be the most appropriate means of data collection as interviews are well suited for the exploration of the perceptions and opinions of respondents regarding complex and sometimes sensitive issues, and enabling probing for more information and clarification of answers (Barriball and While 1994).

As transition is identified as an emotional time with areas of conflict it was anticipated that the participants might find it difficult to talk about it and so alternative methods of expression were reviewed. On consideration, it was anticipated that the distancing or intermediating elements of art would be especially helpful to aid the NQMs express themselves. We tend to think of verbal communication as being the core of our communication but as Hass-Cohen points out ‘Art is an ancient mode of expression that precedes the evolution of verbal language’ (2002, 1).

A method of being able to use art purely as a form of expression, rather than in a therapeutic manner (as in art therapy), is called ‘illuminative expression’. This is when the participants make a picture and then interpret it themselves. The distancing or intermediating elements of art, when used in illuminative expression, can be especially helpful in interactions about issues that are highly emotional and may contain conflict, such as transition (Liebman 1996). As transition for NQMs is likely to invoke a similar array of feelings perhaps the use of art would aid their expression. Spouse (2000) used illuminative art in her naturalistic and longitudinal study investigating nursing students developing their professional knowledge while working in clinical settings. Spouse did not analyse the pictures but instead used them as a trigger for the interview; ‘In this situation, it was not intended to impose my analysis of the students illuminative images but to encourage participants to use them in the same way as metaphors are used to express tacit or pre-conscious apprehension of experiences, and then explain their significance’ (Spouse 2000, 255). This is the manner in which illuminative expression was employed with the NQMs: in the first part of the interview they expressed the reality of their experience of transition in the form of art (Figures 2 - 9) and they then talked to me about their artwork, interpreted the meaning from the pictures. This was therefore unstructured with the remainder of the interview semi-structured.

In keeping with the assumption of naturalistic enquiry, purposive sampling was chosen. A NQM was defined as a midwife who had been qualified for a year: this would be the inclusion criteria. A sample size of eight was estimated which was determined by feasibility and the resources available.

The site of choice was a National Health Service hospital, as this is the natural environment where NQMs are found experiencing their transition. Permission to enter the site as a researcher was sought and obtained through the Local Research Ethics Committee, the hospital Research and Development department (R&D) and the head of the midwifery department. Ethical issues centred on three main areas: informed consent, confidentiality and the well-being of the NQMs. Eight NQMs were recruited some were from the core team in the hospital and some from the integrated teams based in the community (Table 1).
As there were only eight participants to interview the decision was made to treat the first two interviews as pilot interviews. The only aspect of the interviews that required fine-tuning was the ability of the interviewer.

The Lincoln and Guba (1984) framework for data analysis was followed. Data was initially broken down into units, which were then built back up into categories. The type of respondent was designated according to the course the NQMs qualified through i.e. either ‘SM’ for the shortened eighteen-month midwifery course or ‘DE’ for the longer three-year course. Member checking was carried out at two points in the inquiry, verbally at the end of each interview and after my initial analysis of the data.

**Findings and Discussion**

The data revealed both positive and negative experiences of transition from student to NQM with most participants describing it in terms of being on a journey, essentially a journey of confidence. It is not always a pleasant journey; at times it can be quite difficult. Poppy’s description of being on a roller coaster ride captures the essence of what transition is like for the NQMs:

“It's just a bit like riding a roller coaster really. One minute you’re sailing along nicely and you’re thinking that’s all roses, really really happy in your work and then there'll be a point where you’re really not so sure and you feel like you want to get off. There were lots of points along the way where I felt like that sometimes I guess still do really but not as frequently as in the beginning. Poppy: SM: 4”

The NQM’s confidence is fragile at first and affects how they feel, but it is something that gets better over time, as will be discussed.

**Getting started**

The category of ‘Getting started’ involved how the NQMs felt about starting in their new role and also about their experiences of orientation. In the beginning the NQMs were pleased to be finishing university but the prospect of
commencing their new role was a source of apprehension. When they started in their new post all experienced some form of orientation but this was variable, they would have appreciated a more well thought out programme and specific guidance on what the role involved.

On the way

The NQMs perceptions of their experience of the journey once they were on the way consisted of the aspects of becoming a NQM that they enjoyed, ‘The ups’, and the aspects that they found challenging, ‘the downs’. ‘The ups’ included the notable sense of achievement at having completed training, reflecting pride and respect for the new role:

“obviously three years of hard work and you’re finally doing what you set out to do and that’s quite a nice feeling knowing that..... So you’re kind of proud of yourself for doing it, you know your family are proud of you for doing it and I think that helps you a little bit when you come into it ...that whole having RM after your name it kind of just makes you think you know what I am somebody important now and you know, you can do this. Sophie: DE: 113”

This was something that was reflected in the nursing literature (Amos 2001; Evans 2001) but the NQMs expressed a strong sense of identity with ‘being’ a midwife:

“And its nice that I am a midwife now instead of I am training to be a midwife. I am a midwife Jenny: DE: 355”

This reinforces the findings of Kirkham et al. (2006) that midwifery is not just a job but is a key part of midwives identity. This will have implications in the transition as it has been recognised that the amount of psychic turmoil experienced will be more when the role is important for one’s social identity, as being a midwife is to midwives (Allen and van de Vliert 1984).

As in Maben and Macloed Clarke’s (1998) study the NQMs dwelt more on the negative aspects of transition, ‘The downs’, than on the positive although they claimed that there were positive aspects. This is explained by Berne’s theory (1975) that it takes ten positive interactions to balance one worrying incident.

The ‘honeymoon period’ NQMs experience at the beginning only lasts weeks. Then they frequently talk about feeling ‘stupid’, ‘scared’, ‘alone’ and ‘vulnerable’. These are very complex feelings that are related to their confidence and the level of support they receive. They experience a crisis as a result of the increased responsibility and accountability that comes with registration, as encapsulated by Sophie:

“Obviously it is that whole you are officially... now you are a registered midwife you are wholly accountable, fully responsible and on your head be it kind of thing and that’s a bit of an overwhelming thing. Sophie: DE: 10”

This ‘reality shock’ has already been identified in the nursing literature (Bradley 1998; Evans 2001; Gerrish 2000; Kramer 1974). The midwives who had completed the shortened midwifery course felt that this transition was more intense than when they had previously qualified as a nurse due to the
increased autonomy. This would suggest, according to Nicholson and West (1984), they were not prepared for the transition. Yet Annie didn’t think you could be fully prepared:

“..you have to go through the training but nothing can actually prepare you for well, I don’t think nothing can prepare you for transition from student to qualified midwife. Annie: SM: 84”

Perhaps it is a tall order to expect a course to fully prepare them for every aspect of their role (Maben and Macloed Clarke 1998). Gerrish (2000) would argue that failure to prepare students for the neophyte role is inevitable as it was only when they qualify that they are exposed to the realities of the job and that, ultimately, there will always be individual differences in the experience, and amount, of ‘reality shock’.

All of the NQMs had concerns regarding their confidence, internal pressures: ‘Were they good enough?’ ‘Were they ever going to be able to do it?’ Several NQMs talked about feeling ‘stupid’ or ‘like an idiot’. However they did recognise that confidence was born of experience. Beth recognised that she had knowledge but didn’t have the experience.

“Now you don’t have that person you just have you and you’re qualified and you have the skills because from your training but you don’t have that wealth of experience that mentors and people who have been qualified for a long time have. Beth: DE: 19”

Being able to put this knowledge into practice at a preliminary level has been described by Benner (1984) as an uncomfortable process of gaining experiential learning that cannot be conveyed by formal models, theories or forecasts about what a situation will be like. The NQMs recognised that confidence is fragile, that they could be starting to feel confident one minute and the next it would be gone. This is possibly because they continually have to learn new things, which erodes confidence (Amos 2001). It was recognised that others may have more confidence in the NQMs than they had in themselves, which was related to their expectations of themselves. It is these self-expectations and anxiety relating to perceived lack of knowledge, the internal pressures that appears to cause the crisis of confidence (Whitehead 2001). Confidence in the neophyte is therefore something that cannot be taught but that is developed over time (Amos 2001; Dearmun 2000; Whitehead 2001).

The summation of this experience is that it is a turbulent one and will no doubt have negative effects. Three of the four Shortened Midwifery course midwives said that had thought about leaving. However it was not that they did not like midwifery, it was the conditions they had to work in as NQMs. Audrey highlighted that when there is a shortage of staff it affects you more when you are newly qualified:

“And why else would I have left? Yeah just the..the staffing. You are just expected to cope and I don’t think you should be expected to cope especially not when you are newly qualified Audrey: SM: 236”

These midwives already have a qualification in nursing it would be relatively easy for them to get another job, whereas the Direct Entry midwives do not have the same flexibility so perhaps leaving was not an option for them, they felt trapped and could only dream about escape.
Factors perceived as hindering transition

The NQMs identified issues that hindered their transition, categories identified were: staffing issues and bullying. All the NQMs identified that the levels of midwifery staffing in the unit had been particularly poor during the previous few months. The poor staffing levels were ascribed to high levels of sickness and maternity leave.

“People must be going off sick because they are so tired...Thank God I only work part time. Delilah: DE: 336”

This is what Kirkham et al. (2006) calls the ‘vicious circle of stress through shortages’. When staffing levels are poor, for whatever reason to start with, this causes increased stress in the remaining staff. The lack of support due to lack of staff has been identified as inhibiting learning for neophytes (Amos 2001; Maben and Macloed Clarke 1998) and is the organisational sabotage as described by Maben et al (2006).

Some NQMs experienced unpleasant behaviour from the people they worked with. Audrey talked about some reactions to her asking questions:

“...when I know I am working with particular people I know I can’t ask questions and when I ask a question their face ...just disgusted that you don’t know really. Audrey: SM: 117”

Audrey was the only midwife who spoke about personally experiencing this type of behaviour but others spoke about observing it in practice, about other NQMs being in tears at the thought of having to work with some midwives. This was not the first time Audrey had talked about being made to feel small as she depicts in her artwork:

“Sometimes when you came on you could see peoples faces change that there was a junior member of staff and you could hear, sometimes you could hear people just saying, not really hurtful things but little snide comments which isn’t really positive and doesn’t build your confidence. Audrey: SM: 85”

On a personal level being exposed to this type of horizontal violence, or bullying, will have personal consequences for NQMs in the guise of stress (Hastie 2006). Midwives who experience bullying find it devastating and, unsurprisingly, want to leave the profession (Kirkham et al. 2006).

Factors perceived as helping transition

The NQMs identified many issues that they found helpful during transition. The categories identified were: getting in the ‘clique’, role models, and feedback. When the NQMs started in their new posts there was a sense of being orphaned and not belonging to any social group. Sophie saw getting herself into the ‘clique’ as part of her socialisation into the unit. She felt that how you got on depended on being in it and that she had to work her way in there:

“...things have improved and I think once you, I know it sounds horrible, but once you’re in the clique they (senior members of staff, especially some coordinators) tend to react and respond with you better than if you’re not in the clique, so to speak, and that’s really sad but that
is very much the way it is and I worked very very hard to make sure I could try and get in the clique.

I: What do you have to do to get in the clique?
S: Beg and grovel. Make lots of tea Sophie: DE: 173”

This successful socialisation of NQMs depends on them ascribing to ‘covert bureaucratic rules’ regarding what is acceptable practice and behaviour (Maben et al. 2006). One of these rules is ‘fit in’ and don’t ‘rock the boat’ just as Sophie felt she had to do.

Feedback was viewed as important to the transition process. Beth pointed out the importance of receiving feedback, and how it made her feel appreciated:

“...that was from a manager which was nice and it makes the world of difference if somebody says to you ‘Oh I’ve heard good things and its nice to see you, you know and you look like you are really enjoying your job’ That makes the world of difference because you think ‘Oh somebody really appreciates me today’. And it doesn’t take much to say that to somebody. Beth: DE: 340”

This was the only mention of formal feedback by any of the NQMs. Informal chats and passing comments are most common method for neophytes to receive feedback (Miller and Blackman 2003). Yet unless there is good feedback then Eraut suggests that ‘one will continue to misread situations and to deceive oneself that one’s own actions are best in the circumstances’ (1994, 116). Therefore constructive feedback helps NQMs to reflect on their practice and improve client care. This has the implications of sustaining their confidence and ultimately for them staying in their jobs.

**Support**

Key to transition is support, although support technically comes under the category of helpful factors, as it was so important to the NQMs and their transition it was decided it deserved its own category. When they felt that they were well supported they had a more positive experience than when they did not feel well supported as Audrey says:

“And then this picture is the hospital and I have an arrow going up because sometimes I have really good days and I feel really positive and feel really well supported and really enjoy my shift and then I have an arrow coming down because not always sometimes I have days where its not as positive I could have had more support or it could have just been better really.” Audrey: DE: 25

Indeed support is the single most important factor that helps neophytes settle into their new role and develop (Amos 2001; Maben et al., 2006; Maben and Macloed Clarke 1998; Miller and Blackman 2004). The NQMs identified that the majority of staff were supportive but that the amount of support they received was directly related to the staffing on the unit. When staffing levels were good the NQMs felt that they received good support and often felt 'looked after'. However when the staffing levels were poor there was either no support there or they had to actively seek it out, both of which they found stressful.
All the NQMs identified that it was important to ask for help otherwise they would end up in situations that they were not able to cope with. It is reassuring to know that neophytes have an awareness of their limitations in practice (Bradley 1998; Gerrish 2000; Maben and Macloed Clarke 1998). One of the main factors affecting being able to ask for help was the staff that were on duty and how approachable they were. Neophytes value friendliness and approachability of staff in relation to seeking support (Amos 2001). Having a ‘safe’ environment where they can ask questions without the fear of being ridiculed is very important to them (Amos 2001; Miller and Blackman 2004). Yet not all NQMs felt that they could ask for help, as described by Audrey previously. This is disturbing as it prevents NQMs from asking questions and so exposes an issue of risk.

Peers were identified by NQMs as being the most helpful source of support. Annie found it helpful to chat to peers about work:

“This support is also the people who you qualify with as well which is really good, so to meet them and all talk about you’re experiences and actually, kind of almost sort of, offloading onto one another and supporting each other and just talking through things that have happened. Annie: DE: 65”

They find it helpful to ‘offload’ and also to find out if the others are having similar experiences. Many talked about their good friendships with colleagues and Pat identified that role modelling aided her transition:

“I felt as if my transition from a newly qualified midwife into somebody that feels quite confident was quite a smooth process and I think that was helped by people that have sort of become friends and felt that I had a lot of respect for and they did of me when I was a student midwife and then that just grew as I qualified. Pat: DE: 28”

Bandura’s (1977) social learning theory highlights the strengths of learning by role modelling and observation of the work of others, and the importance of seeing good practice in action. Role models are essential to integration and development of the newly qualified (Kramer 1974; Evans 2001).

Generally the coordinators, senior labour ward midwives, were seen as supportive although there were a couple that were not:

“...in the beginning it depended on who was coordinating whether you feel supported or not by them. There is one maybe two that you don’t feel as supported with and do find your self looking at the off duty and thinking ‘Oh God’. But most of the time it is ok. Poppy: SM: 57”

Qualities that they appreciated in a coordinator were: always being there when the NQMs needed support, standing up for them, giving them recognition that they were newly qualified, giving them encouragement and saying ‘thank you’. They did not appreciate the co-ordinators telling them to do things before they felt ready. Some NQMs felt that the co-ordinators could offer more support but they all felt that they had a very difficult job to do.

The NQMs experience of preceptorship was erratic and it was the issue of not having a named preceptor that most of the NQMs talked about:

“...when we first qualified and we were given our newly qualified preceptorship booklets it was made quite sort of obvious that you would
have a buddy that would be your support but it was never actually said to us ‘This is your buddy, this is who you look to for support. Beth: DE: 189’

This promising of a preceptor and then not providing one taints staff views of the profession possibly making the transition more difficult and prolonged (Charnley 1999). The NMC (2006) advocate a period of preceptorship yet they have not produced a clear guide or standards to aid its implementation leaving it open to interpretation and, perhaps, to the discrepancies in its provision. Other sources of support mentioned by the NQMs were team leaders, the woman, clinical skills facilitator and friends and family outside work.

NQMs talked about getting support from their families, friends and partners. For some they provide much support, as Pat says of his family:

“…they were always good for sounding off on the phone and telling me that I will get through it. Pat: SM: 50”

However, that was not the case for all and some did not feel understood. The NQMs appreciated that sometimes it was difficult for those around them to understand what it was like to work in the Health Service:

“I made a bad mistake and get all upset and distressed and try to talk to my partner about it and he’s the big fire breathing crocodile. Delilah: DE: 11”

But even if they do not always understand they are still rated as very important in helping midwives to keep going (Kirkham, Morgan and Davies 2006).

Arriving: Getting better

There was a definite sense that the situation was improving for the NQMs:

“And I don’t have as many of these peaks and troughs. I still get them [laughter] but not as regularly it’s normally, kind of, on one level now. Obviously you have bad days the same as everyone else. Annie: SM: 37”

This suggests the NQMs enter Nicholson and West’s (1988) stabilisation phase.

There was definitely a sense that with time they became more confident and that they could start to look to the future. Even Delilah who was only qualified for six months had this feeling. This would suggest that it is NQMs need most support in the first six months.

Strengths and limitations of the study

The study was constructed within the constraints of time, place and circumstances of a Masters’ programme dissertation and cannot, therefore, be used to generalise to a wider population of NQMs beyond this. However it has given us insight into the experience of transition for the NQM and of some of the factors that may help or hinder. Having some idea about the experience enables us to have starting points for further research.

Lincoln and Gubas (1985) criterion was used to establish the trustworthiness of the study. The criterion of trustworthiness, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985), is credibility (referring to confidence in the truth of the data),
transferability (referring to the extent to which the findings can be transferred to other settings or groups), dependability (referring to the stability of the data over time and over other conditions) and confirmability (referring to objectivity or neutrality of the data). These criteria were achieved by implementing the following techniques: member checking (as described above), triangulation, peer debriefing, keeping a reflective journal and an audit trail.

Conclusion

This study has revealed that journey of transition for the NQM is often a difficult one that results in personal dissatisfaction and can lead to attrition from the profession. It can be suggested that the factors that the NQMs identified as facilitating their transition can be strengthened, as those that inhibit their transition can be challenged. It can be argued based on these findings that there are issues that need addressing in relation to education, clinical practice and professional development. The educational issues involve the preparation of student midwives for the transition, particularly in relation to preparation for autonomous practice. Issues relating to clinical practice focus on orientation into the role of qualified midwife and the support provided during transition. It must be recognised that transition is an ongoing process in career/ professional development and so becomes an important consideration both in the appraisal system and in supervision.

As identified in the introduction if we can ease the process of transition, it could mean happier midwives (personal satisfaction), staying in their jobs (trust and profession satisfaction), which would also mean better care for their clients (women satisfaction). In a profession that is facing a severe crisis (RCM 2007) every NQM is precious and should be treated as such. Investing in NQMs now is investing in the future of midwifery.

Although the focus of this study is specifically the transition that NQMs make after graduating into their new role perhaps the findings give us an insight into what it is like being a graduate adult learner on the educational journeys that changes their life. The internal pressures discussed may be similar, as possibly the external pressures of socialising into an organisation, both of which will impact on their learning. Ultimately the amount of psychic turmoil experienced in transition will be more when the role is important for one’s social identity, as is for graduates, and so it is worth considering how to ease the process.

References


40. Motivation to Nurse: Symbolic Capital and Violence in Professional Education

Melody Carter

Background

This chapter is derived from work undertaken as part of a doctoral thesis at the University of the West of England, Bristol, UK. It is a study which explores the place of vocation and altruism in the careers of nurses working in primary care and delivering community nursing and health visiting services in various localities. The findings of the study include some new perspectives on the career journeys of these nurses some of whom have been in practice for more than 30 years. There is an expectation that a career journey in an established profession in nursing within the British National Health Service would be a straightforward one but the nurses’ accounts tend to belie such notions. A number of vagaries, arbitrariness and inequities have been highlighted by other writers who have taken an interest in nursing careers (Davies 1995, Miers 2000, Denny 2003). Others have taken an interest in the way that Bourdieu’s ideas can be applied to choice of careers more widely (Grenfell and James 1998). The conclusions of this paper are that there are lessons to be learned from these contemporary accounts for nursing by those involved in recruitment to nurse training, curriculum planning, development and careers support as well as by nurses themselves.

Introducing Bourdieu

Habitus and Field

Motivation to pursue a nursing career is governed by more than the simple need to earn a living. Although the focus of this paper is the significance of symbolic capital and violence these concepts are best understood within the wider context of Bourdieu’s sociological thinking. For this reason both, what Bourdieu would call field and habitus (Bourdieu and Wacquant 1992) will be introduced. The field in this context is the field of health and social care within which exists a set of stakes, power forces and interests which govern the properties of the laws and rules that exist within the field. To operate or navigate within the field the individual must both know and understand the rules and laws of the field in order to play the game. The capacity or capability of the individual to play or at least to have a feel for the game is dependent on the habitus, that is to say the individual’s predispositions or dispositions which in turn influence the way that people interact with their social world. This idea relates to Wittgenstein’s (1953) ideas of rule playing or rule following. This is not meant to be seen in a prescriptive or predetermined way, but rather the habitus is highly personal and individually shaped. It is dependent on the experience and cultural influences and encounters from the earliest stage of life and is reflected in the generally unconscious way that we classify all aspects of our social world. Bourdieu’s view was that all forms of capital, whether economic or cultural, are symbolic but the nature and value of these and how they are recognised, acquired and exchanged will be directly subject to the influence of habitus and field.
Symbolic Capital

Bourdieu (1989) writes that in various ways we are all preoccupied with the acquisition and exchange of different forms of capital which allow us to achieve a certain amount of autonomy from the structures that surround and influence us. The nature and influence of symbolic capital in our lives, as individuals or as groups, is of course dependent on a wide range of possible factors and inheritances beginning with family life and childhood development through to key stages of formal schooling and beyond.

Becoming and remaining a nurse will be dependent on the recognition, acquisition and exchange of a wide range of forms of capital. Nursing in Britain has been subject to a set of arrangements which are marked by gender and social class divisions and difference. Symbolic capital works in different ways, as it has different effects in different circumstances, (for example its recognition and association with worth) according to the symbolic space in which it is situated; Bourdieu (1989) explains this idea as follows:

“‘through the distribution of properties, the social world itself, objectively, as a symbolic system which is organised according to the logic of difference, or differential difference. Social space tends to function as a symbolic space, a space of lifestyles and status groups characterised by different lifestyles’ (page 20).”

Through his explanation of the significance of cultural capital, Bourdieu’s theoretical model lends understanding to the role that it plays in the continuing struggle between the dominating and the dominated classes. We can also begin to understand the way that the power of such capital, although desirable, also brings with it a degree of oppression because of the nature of the field and the inequity that exists amongst individuals and social groups. In the end it is through the acquisition of such symbolic capital that academic and employing authorities perpetrate acts of symbolic violence ensuring both the legitimacy of certain forms of capital and a process of cultural reproduction which determines the way that such capital shall be recognised, acquired and exchanged. Professional occupations such as nurses and doctors are preoccupied with the recognition of their qualification and its currency in the work place. There is also concern that its value is enhanced or diminished according to national or state control but often this is not questioned or challenged by the individuals who desire it because of the effects of the process of cultural reproduction.

Symbolic Violence

Like Marx, Bourdieu believes that the more this process of symbolic violence is hidden from sight and left unchallenged, the more powerful it is in reproducing class dominance (Bourdieu & Passeron 1990). Such class dominance is transferred in and out of the institutions of employment and education and it is through the acquisition of various types of symbolic capital and through linguistic competence that this is perpetuated. To step outside of this process of recognising, utilising and or aspiring to acquire different forms of capital would require a very particular and rare disposition or set of predispositions.
Scholastic achievement is an essential form of symbolic capital in nursing and as nurses and possibly other professions, we spend a good deal of time explaining and describing our efforts and achievements towards such goals. How successful we are, in truth, depends on a whole range of social conditions not least of which is the way that the conditions of the chase both affect our skills of operation and the predispositions of the habitus as well as being dependent upon the recognition of these activities as being successful or otherwise. Pierre Bourdieu (1986) argues that:

“Individuals do not move about in social space in a random way, partly because they are subject to the forces which structure this space (e.g. through the objective mechanisms of elimination and channelling) and partly because they resist the forces of the field with their specific inertia, that is their properties, which may exist in embodied form, as dispositions, or in objectified form, in goods, qualifications etc’ (page 110).”

It is through the acquisition of capital and the use of ‘symbolic capital’ that professionals perpetrate symbolic violence and that their class ensures its own legitimacy and reproduction. As the ideas of Marx indicate this process of symbolic violence is hidden from sight and, where left unchallenged, its effect in reproducing class dominance increases (Bourdieu and Passeron 1990). Although one may argue that a particular concept or practice is legitimate it is only through a critical reflexive process that we can question the inherited idea of legitimacy which has been transferred through a process of dominance to others by class, gender, profession and culture. According to Bourdieu, reflexive sociology is an important tool with which to battle against these effects of symbolic violence and social reproduction.

**Bourdieu’s reflexivity**

Reflexive sociology or reflexive approaches to research are not new as they are evident in the writings of the symbolic interactionists and feminist researchers. Although one of a long line of sociologists writing about reflexivity, Bourdieu himself calls for a more specific, focused and purposeful approach to reflexivity (Bourdieu and Wacquant 1992). In a practical application to this study a response to the three elements of Bourdieu’s approach follows. In the first instance, Bourdieu is not saying that this is about the individual’s cognitive or intellectual response to observations and experiences, but rather that it is the social and intellectual unconscious embedded in the chosen approach to the research that needs to be reflexive. This implies that it is not adequate for a researcher to simply submit their own response to the interview data to scrutiny, but they must also look at the methods of research, research design and motivations for asking the question in the first place. This is what Bourdieu might explain as an analysis of the relationship between personal disposition and the object, design of the research, its interpretation and presentation of data.

**Methodology**

**The research question**

The main question in this study is Motivation to Nurse: what is the place of vocation and altruism in primary care careers? The question arose from a concern and interest, based on popular discourse about nursing motives,
as to the place of such ideology and belief in contemporary nursing practice. Researching nursing careers requires a perspective that can encompass the unique and specific historical, philosophical, social and cultural dimensions that have influenced the development of a nursing heritage.

**Ethics**

Research, involving NHS patients and staff, is subject to the research governance requirements of the Department of Health (2005). This means that before participants could be approached or recruited ethical approval was required from the Local Research Ethics Committee. Ethical concerns include the need to demonstrate that the whole process is conducted in such a way that ensures, in so far as it is possible to achieve, that it is scientifically rigorous, is not abusive and does not misrepresent the intentions of the study or of the content of interviews.

**Methods**

Reflexivity is an important dynamic in relation to ethical research practice. It is more than the awareness of the presence of self in the data collection process but extends to every level of the inquiry from inception to dissemination. The application of a critical reflexive approach was something that grew and evolved and took on a new emphasis as the project progressed.

The first stage of the project was to undertake a pilot study of colleagues in the Faculty and then to follow this with a main study of 12 community nurses. From the initial interviews the interview technique was reviewed and the methodology, particularly in terms of reflexivity, was enhanced. This approach included the use of a personal reflexive account based on the researcher’s personal career journey. Through this process, the approach to classification, and the construction of ideas and their application to the research process became more transparent.

**Sample**

Participants for the pilot study were volunteer nurse academic colleagues (4 volunteers) form the Faculty. For the main study (12 volunteers) district nurses, health visitors and practice nurses, were recruited from local NHS Primary Care Trusts. A poster advertising the project and an information leaflet with details of the research intentions and the nature of participation was produced and provided to the Trusts and to groups of staff.

**Interviews**

The method for data collection was through the process of a long interview conducted in the setting of the nurse’s choosing, either in their own home, their workplace or at the Faculty. The interview was audio-taped and consisted of a dialogue between interviewer (the researcher) and a volunteer respondent of between 45 and 60 minutes duration. Each interview followed a common format beginning with an invitation to the respondent to ‘tell the story of how she/he became a nurse’ and then a response to a focussed question about ideas about vocation and altruism and motivation to nurse. The events that occurred and
the people met are considered to have significance and lasting difference in the course of a life. The interview was later transcribed and was subject to a thematic analysis with the use of a computerised qualitative data analysis package, from which a number of themes emerged, two of which, symbolic capital and symbolic violence in professional education is discussed as follows.

Findings and Discussion

In their explanation of their career history, the role of education is to the fore, as the nurses present the details of their formal educational achievements at the age of 16 and beyond without any prompt to do so. They themselves make a direct connection between their educational status and their approach to nursing. Issues relating to qualifications, class and access to categories of State Registration and State Enrolment and the elite training schools are clearly articulated in the accounts. The idea of choosing a career in nursing is somewhat misleading as many of the other interviewees talk about their beginning in nursing as if they were channelled into it by virtue of their class, gender, academic achievements and the expectations of others. The following extract reminds us that there was an alternative route into British nursing State Enrolment (SEN) over two years for those who did not have the prerequisite qualifications to access State Registration (SRN/RGN/RN) achieved over 3 years:

Respondent: “Oh how did I get on the course? I just applied to the local hospital when we got back to Newcastle and had an intake interview, couldn’t do what I wanted to do, I wanted to do my RGN and couldn’t because in Newcastle you needed ‘A’ levels and I didn’t have them. That didn’t deter me, I did my SEN training - just to get my foot in the door.”

9-2 DN 11-07-05

What seems apparent is that qualifications at the end of full-time education are a means to an end but for those who have continued to study to degree level and beyond it has a much more powerful meaning. What is clear is that in these examples the nurses who started from the lowest position, educationally speaking, seem to have journeyed the furthest, or simply had to make the most effort, in their educational achievement.

Respondent: “After school, I was led to believe, I wasn’t bright enough to do ‘A’ Levels, which is a bit of a shock now that I’m doing an MSc. (which I don’t tell many people that I am) but I was obviously not directed very well at school. I’m from a really working-class background, so nobody’s done any education or anything. So then I went onto a quite basic care course, City and Guilds, but with that I obviously did children, elderly, learning disabilities, so that was really good in a way, because you could decide what was it I enjoyed. While doing that course, I left home quite young, so I needed to fund myself financially, so I did a lot of work in care homes with the elderly, so I think that’s where most of the experience, and when I look back, actually doing that, I was only sixteen/seventeen, which is quite a young carer, but it was enough to see if that’s what I enjoyed doing.”

8-2 DN 07-07-05
They seem to indicate that there is an expectation that education will be central to who they are and what they still might be, both professionally and personally. What is also of interest is the way that for some nurses entrance into nursing seemed to be a legitimate way to opt out of scholarship.

Respondent: “I think I just, in a way it was a way out of school because I didn’t want to take my 'A' levels. I actually left just a couple of months before I was due to take them, to everybody’s disgust, but I did go to a London teaching hospital, so it was quite acceptable. And I think, I mean, I had wanted to become a nurse, but I think I wanted to do it there, and I wanted to be out of school, and that’s how it started. That was 1965 when I left, so very much the ethics of, you know, that’s acceptable, but if I’d gone to the hospital round the corner, then that would have made a difference, I think. Yes, so it was acceptable because these places were alright.”

The interviewer was left with the impression that the efforts of some of the respondents are directed towards tailoring their personal ambitions in order to be able to fulfil the requirements of existing jobs. We are also left wondering whether for others it has been about finding and maintaining a job which suits their disposition and personal aspirations - something suitable to do, a fulfillment of the anticipatory assumption that govern an individual’s possible options and constraints. This seems to be an example of how disenfranchisement of professions/practitioners could easily occur in our institutions. The ambitions and priorities of this field are politically determined and therefore may vary and alter as the forces in the field shift and change. This may advantage or disadvantage those in the role according to their ability or willingness to make a virtue out of the necessity of change. This in turn is an echo of what Bourdieu (1986) describes as the way that respondents produce something which will seem legitimate in the eyes of the interviewer. In his research, it was the knowledge about a piece of popular music to indicate taste, whilst in the case of the nurse respondents; it seems to be about the source of enjoyment in their work that is the area that brings the greatest reward.

There is a clear theme within the nurses’ accounts of the difference between the legitimate educational achievement and those which had to be achieved on their own. For example a number of nurses in the study made efforts to convince the interviewer of their ‘legitimacy’. They do not talk about their own needs but instead speak of the difference their studies have made to their work. They may have been through conversion from SEN to RGN, at a time when you would be paid less for the duration of this process. It might be through ‘distance learning’ and other training but this is not celebrated. What seems to be legitimate about nurse education is when you are sponsored or otherwise funded to train for a specialist qualification, health visiting, district nursing or practice nursing, or a master’s degree.

The conditions of the institutions, the personal effort and the cost of the ongoing process of continuing education certainly have an element of what Bourdieu (1992) calls symbolic violence. Moreover the recent changes to nurse education do not seem to have removed the barriers and inequities that exist in the field where the ‘diploma’ trainee has none of the status of the undergraduate or the promise of the capital of a degree. It is more than likely that given the
financial and career status of the individual they must work part-time and fund themselves through university in the old style of an apprenticeship.

Another area of legitimacy in the accounts emerges from discussion of the nature of their work. In nursing there is an *aristocracy of culture* which arises from particular aspects of practice that legitimise one’s position or identity as a nurse. Different nurse specialties derive their legitimacy from different aspects of their practice but these are never adequate in themselves, however all roles express relationships and intimacy with patients/clients as a source of satisfaction which are summarised as follows:

- The practice nurse works alongside the doctor to deliver primary care services. She is close to the patient she may define this as a relationship; she may also be competent in a range of technical/skilled activities. From gaining certificates in taking blood, to cervical smears to being even more like doctors, and acquiring skills in diagnostic reasoning and perhaps prescribing.
- The district nurse is closest to patients as she visits the sick in their home and carries out intimate care for the very sick/dependent patient. She also is a manager with a team of subordinates, and also has a range of specialist competencies from dressing wounds to prescribing. She also values her public health knowledge and assessment skills, she distances herself from a purely ‘medical’ model of care and talks about her knowledge and use of social science and psychology.
- The health visitor has a distinction which derives from specialist training in addressing health inequalities/health improvement and is distant from the intimate caring role. Her role is advisory and based on assessment and usually the specialist nature of child protection activities. What is interesting about the health visitor accounts of their motivations to practice is that their capability and expertise is taken as read. Unlike the other nurses they share very little detail of the nature of their practice or the training they have undergone. Their explanations of success and motivation are harder to discern whereas from the other nurse disciplines it is expressed in terms of continuing training and education as well as the nature and complexity of their work. Attitudes to further study imply a profound sense of security and competence within the role as it stands.

The impression arises that it is the individual that must adapt to accommodate the work and its structural relations and to bend to societal systems and structures in order to succeed in a career. The connection between those achieving at degree and master’s level is most clearly articulated by those who left school achieving the least academically. This is expressed both in the account of starting out and in the narrative accounts of the journey. This begs the question of whether academic achievement at school leaving age provides enough capital and legitimacy to sustain an individual through a long career in nursing, and if nurses who learn through their own self- motivation and personal cost equate with the term autodidact (Bourdieu 1986). Moreover do all nurses involved in scholarship find themselves making this extraordinary level of effort, dragging together the sum total of their philosophical and research knowledge and expertise to shape the argument from that ‘set of unstrung pearls’ to the required level of coherence? Probably not, if the educational process has followed that institutionalised, standardised series of stages which could be
ranked against a recognised scholastic culture, but given what some of these nurses have said there is also an awful lot of self reliance to their success also.

Those with more cultural capital do not need to share or express it as there is a confidence and continuance in these personal attributes that although known, need not be acknowledged. Perhaps this is what is recognised in the health visitor accounts. Those who begin with less, work harder to accommodate, to mould themselves towards what they, by their understanding believe is needed. It is evident that there is a difference between the idea of developing and cultivating your skills and other attributes to meet the needs of a role as an expression of motivation or perhaps vocation perhaps, and choosing a suitable role for inherent attributes and aspirations which could possibly be named as altruism. This could also be expressed as the difference between what is possible and what is suitable depending on class, gender, symbolic capital and habitus.

Conclusions

These deeply personal accounts illustrate the way that a nursing career enables people from a wide range of backgrounds to access a long, and for many, a fulfilling career. But one cannot help but feel concern about the arbitrariness of the education system that they have to navigate. The participants are occupying specialist roles but they have arrived at their position though different routes and for some it has been a very tortuous journey. What is of concern is the effect that the vagaries of the education system have played in this. British nursing, as with many other institutions and professions, has always been arranged on the basis of class divisions with a very visible hierarchy between specialities and first and second level opportunities to register. In Britain we are moving towards an all graduate training for nursing and for some this represents an opportunity to sweep away some of the divisions that exist in the profession but without considering the need for a critical examination of how such divisions and inequities are reproduced we will end up replacing old inequalities with new.

References

VI. ROUND TABLES
Introduction

The deep changes that are taking place in our present societies force individuals to search for a lifelong education that allows them to approach the diverse life transformations: professional, family, cultural, personal and social which they are fated to face. In this work, using the concept of lifelong learning, we try to deal with how research education university students in tertiary education, produce diverse types of learning: professional, scientific, existential, gender, and identity reconstruction, through the development of their doctoral theses. Learning which leads to the development of diverse abilities and allows a greater unfolding of personal, professional and social possibilities.

We also understand that they not only unfold new potentialities, but that the supervisors of their research who accompany them in the development of their theses, also develop new personal, professional and social abilities.

Thus, in this work, we try to explain and to show how the university adult student, through the accomplishment of a doctoral thesis, develops an important...
education that leads to new personal, professional and social reconstructions, with some of the learning that is developed being the following:

– Learning around a determined theme in which one specialises within a field of knowledge.
– Acquisition of research resources and methodologies, that allows the development of research abilities and capacities.
– Specialised professional development in a precise field.
– Existential development in relation to the path of life, the life moment and gender.
– Identity reconstruction.

We also believe that the supervisors of the research work, when they accompany the dissertation students, are confronted by a series of challenges that oblige them to develop important personal and professional education abilities. Such as:

– To learn to detect what relationship the research theme proposed by the dissertation students has with their cognitive and life interests.
– To discover what availability of involvement this has with ones own education, commitment, responsibility, etc.
– How to accompany them without diverting their interest, motivate them, support them in difficult times and to encourage their cognitive and research resources.
– What accompaniment to give them at certain life moments that trigger important existential situations, and where the training, the scientific and the clinical are difficult to define.
– What level of scientific, personal and emotional involvement does this accompaniment require.
– What new scientific and professional abilities does the supervisor acquire and how do they affect their identity reconstruction.

These, among others, are some of the aspects that seem important to us to emphasise in the mutual education of the dissertation students and the supervisor/companion in the process of the development of a thesis.

The people presented at this Round Table work in three distinct universities from three different countries: Spain, Mexico and Venezuela. Three of us work in the specialisations of Pedagogy and Psychopedagogy and one in the field of Psychology and human development. Our professional and research careers, although diverse, converge in themes, perspectives and approach. Two of us have been Doctors for a considerable time and the other two are finishing their doctoral theses at the moment. We converge in the development of some themes related to gender and university education and in some qualitative research methodologies, such as autobiographies, biographies and life stories, among others. We understand education from a complex perspective which affects the diverse dimensions of the individual. An education throughout life, that reconstitutes the individual, autonomised and enabled to direct their life project. We will approach this vision from the different works:

“Some challenges of professional development and identity reconstruction entailed in the supervision of research work and doctoral theses’. Isabel López Górriz.
‘Learning, cognition and emotion in the programme of researchers on histories of life with psychology degree students’. Maria Teresa González Uribe.

‘Learning triggered during the process of construction of a doctoral thesis from the experience and appropriation of an autobiographical researcher process’. Dolores Jurado Jiménez.

‘Development of doctoral research and the configuration of learning generated from the accompaniment process’. Venus Nahir Rojas de Guevara.”

In each one of these papers appear some specific educations that complement each other, and others that are common and appear as transverse educations. Thus, then,

– Education is approached from the specific vision of the supervisors/companions of the theses (it is coincidental that we are all women). Education of the dissertation students and the supervision.

– The requirements and specific education that are entailed in the autobiographical research are considered, which lead the authors to their own identity reconstruction, in addition to developing cognitive, scientific, methodological, clinical/therapeutic, existential, emotional and professional knowledge.

– It is shown how our research themes are related to our life moments and life interests, from which really our personal, research and professional development leads us to a new identity reconstruction.

– Also, reference is made to the role of the supervisor and companion in this research process, to their education, involvement and capacity to discover and to respect the subject and research interest of the dissertation student without distorting it, and accompanying them to create an object of original, creative and novel study.
Introduction

The deep changes that are taking place in the present world, in the knowledge society and globalisation, make visible the phenomena: political, economic, migratory, metamorphosis and transformation. The present citizen is in a complex world that changes at accelerated rates and within which they must relocate constantly, on many levels of occasions undergoing deep family, professional, cultural and identity transformations. These phenomena, among others, have led to the development of a concept of lifelong learning. Although this term, at first, was more bound to the field of economic development and professional retraining, it has also been extended to other spheres of education related to the identity reconstruction of the social actors throughout their diverse life cycles.

Using the concept of lifelong learning, in this work we want to approach the nature of the education and learning developed by the supervisor/companion of the university student who follows tertiary educational studies and must undertake research for a doctoral thesis. We understand that it is an important stage of education in the lives of the PhD students, those that have to be supported in designing and developing the thesis research, and to acquire some investigative, scientific and professional specialisation abilities. Undertaking the supervision of these works and accompanying the students in a more individualised way in the development of this research process, not only leads the students to acquire a series of knowledge and abilities, to which we will make reference, but also confronts the supervisors with certain challenges and decision making so that the research can be rigorously and exhaustively developed, producing original, creative, and novel scientific knowledge. To discover the learning and abilities that this accompaniment requires is the objective of this work.

The Decision to Produce a Thesis

When a person takes the decision to undertake tertiary educational studies, and to develop a thesis, they normally not only want to train in a determined
field of specialisation, but also to begin research, to develop an investigating capacity that allows them to look for work or to obtain retraining and/or a professional promotion. In the demand of the accomplishment of a thesis, the students rarely make reference to an existential education. Nevertheless, we understand that the educational process of these studies also usually leads the students to an identity reconstruction.

When the tertiary education student proposes a lecturer with whom they would like to do the thesis, they can have different reasons for doing so: for the specialisation of the research subject, for the affinity they have with that lecturer, for the relationship they have with them, for the research methodologies that they use, because that lecturer can open certain scientific, institutional and professional doors for them or simply for other reasons. We have observed that when the student approaches to ask us to supervise a research work for them, there are motives that are specified and many others that are not demonstrated. In the process that leads to the development of the thesis and the accompaniment given them, other motivations appear, that sometimes, not even the student is aware of what they are requesting, nor of the type of knowledge that the supervision must put into play to accompany them.

In order to be able to understand what the accompaniment and the supervision of research work for a doctoral thesis entails for us, we will present some of the works that we are supervising. In a more precise way, we will refer to two of them, whose dissertation students participate in this round table expounding the learning that the development of their doctoral theses entails. We refer to the pre-doctoral lecturers: Dolores Jurado Jiménez and Venus Nahir Rojas de Guevara, who are undertaking their theses within the Doctoral Programme: ‘Educational Research and Intervention’, of the Department of Methods of Investigation and Diagnosis in Education, Faculty of Educational Sciences, University of Seville.

Knowledge Necessary to Undertake the Doctoral Thesis

To undertake tertiary educational studies entails that the students who follow them need to learn to propose, design and develop research, through which not only is a specific field of knowledge entered into, but also that they become trained in resources and methodologies of research, thereby acquiring a series of research abilities.

To develop research around a subject of interest that makes an advance in scientific knowledge, demands a series of knowledge and research abilities (Blaxter et al, 2008), which the student who registers in tertiary educational studies does not at first have, and in order to acquire that learning, it is necessary to train, orient, advise and accompany them. The basic knowledge to consider and to develop research is the following:

- **Consider a research question** There are students who come to train without knowing very well what they are looking for, nor what might be a question and subject of research they might be interested in. On the contrary, others, who are professional in a specific field, come to train with the aim of advancing in the knowledge of their profession. These students usually bring many questions with them to which they need to find
clarifying answers to advance in their profession. However, this does not mean that they know how to formulate their research question accurately. They need to be oriented and to be accompanied to clarify and to specify their question. Sometimes, they only find the answer by entering into the research process. In our case, one of the people seemed to know it clearly from the start, but the other did not.

- **Make a review of the bibliography on the subject to which the research refers**, the research made in that field, the theories created, and the research methodologies used. Become familiar with the research field. Look for the pertinent information, read it, interpret it, extract the most significant, and use it to develop the theoretical basis, etc., conduct certain mental operations of: comprehension, interpretation, extraction of the fundamental ideas, ordering them, comparing them, recreating them, etc.

- **Theoretical basis of the research.** Once the basic authors of the research field have been reviewed, and the important information extracted that makes reference to the question and research subject, it is necessary to organise that information, logically and exhaustively, to create a basic discourse where the different theories that form the theoretical body of that research field are seen and which can fit the research problem considered.

- **The design and development of the research project.** Specify the research problem, hypothesis, objectives and variables that allow the rigorous construction of the instruments of information collection, choose the methodology and the appropriate research design, make the selection of the sample/population and take decisions on the types of analyses that are pertinent and interpret them. These are aspects that are difficult for the student to determine. Normally designing a research project for the first time is not clear, since it requires the acquisition of varied abilities.

### How to Accompany the Student so that they can Design and Develop the Research Project?

Usually most of the tertiary education students come without having done any research, and it is necessary to initiate them into this process, not only at a theoretical level, but in the development of the practical and operative process of the investigation. Thus, when approaching the diverse parts of a research project we are confronted by:

- **The research problem and its relationship with the interests of the researcher**

  Normally, one usually theorises in the field of the research, so that the problems can be external to the researcher and extracted from the theories of the chosen subject area, or related to their personal or professional concerns. Sometimes, it is not so evident, since certain problems created externally can be related to some concern of the investigator, and it is only discovered to the extent that it is known and enters into the research process. Nevertheless, there are people who clearly show that they want to investigate something related to their personal and/or professional concerns. To help these people to be objective about a research question in which they are strongly involved is sometimes not easy, since maintaining
a distance and the precise formulation of the problem, can only come in the measure to which the person takes reading, and thematic writing related to the subject matter embodied in it, which is no more objective than a movement of swinging between readings, dialogue, reflection, writing and the personal clarification that can make the subject at issue more evident. In this last case, the clarification of the problem occurred in the measure to which the research work was advanced. In our case, we can say that we have met with the two situations, where we have had to make a specific supervision and accompaniment for each one of them, to facilitate the particular creation of each object of study.

- **The objectives, hypothesis and variables** There are times when the student has clarity on these aspects, but most of the time they do not have the research problem very well specified, although they may clearly know the objectives, or some of the hypotheses, dimensions, variables or categories of the research. This is important in discovering the possible thread of the research. From the elements that they know clearly, we propose that they formulate or reformulate more specifically the research questions, objectives, hypothesis, variables, etc., to advance, both in regard to the reading and to the research design and we even propose that they make contact with the population to be investigated. This usually helps if they penetrate into the field of research, make observations, gather data, become advanced with the subject and methodological reading, reflection and coming to see with more precision what, where and how to focus the research. Therefore, finding the thread demands a complete process of reflection, seeing the whole of the project and analysing its internal and external coherency. After this new reformulations and decision making are made, in order to specify the research problem in a pertinent way.

- **Accompany them to decide what research methodology, or methodologies, is appropriate to answer their research problem and what design to apply.** There are approaches that allude to an external position of the researcher, who keeps a distance from the object of study, as in quantitative perspectives. And others, which allude to a certain level of involvement of the researcher, like those that use the qualitative methodologies of research and research-action. Within these qualitative perspectives, the autobiographies usually lead to a strong involvement. The appropriateness is in using that or those methodologies that are considered most suitable to the study object and give a better answer to the research problem. However, using others can lead to a greater or smaller involvement, complexity of the research process, depth of the data, and difficulty of analysis, objectivity and systematisation. In the research that we are supervising, the researchers have chosen two qualitative methodologies with different levels of involvement. One has been positioned as the researcher less involved in their object of study, and the other has used the autobiography at a personal level, and with group studies. Accompanying the last in the process of lived research/transformation has been very complex, as the involvement level has been so strong, that we have had to position ourselves and be reconstituted from our own involvement. The process has led us both, from our different positions, to a personal and professional identity reconstruction.
Help them to clarify and to orient the decisions on the population or sample they are going to work with and their research and ethical commitment with the same, to decide what data collection procedures are going to be used and how the data is going to be analysed. For the students it is sometimes difficult to discover the thread of the research, as well as the relationship that the collection and analysis of data has with the research problem, objectives and hypotheses considered. It is fundamental that this internal coherency is discovered, as well as the importance of the analysis and the interpretation of the data that must be related to the theories developed in the field, and of showing the contributions of the research, as well as its limits. All this requires that the dissertation student develops a series of technological resources and scientific, intellectual, methodological, cognitive, observational, analytical, systematic, relational, comparative, contrasting and synthesising abilities that help the construction of scientific knowledge. When the PhD student approaches the analysis, sometimes they do not know how to extract the deep information from the data, nor can they make a deep elaboration of certain theories that can help them in this interpretation, as they lack the skill for it, and they remain with a flatter analysis. To accompany the PhD student in an exhaustive, rigorous and complex analysis of the data, when they are starting in the field of research, or are very bogged down and involved in it, without being able to distance themselves or be objective, is another of the challenges which we found, mainly, in the autobiographical research, or where the researcher is very involved. We have been met with these situations, to which we have been looking for diverse answers that help the dissertation student to be objective with the information.

Advise them to make a rigorous, exhaustive and pertinent research report. To accurately write, order, structure, and organise the diverse parts of the investigation in a document through which the developed research and its results can be communicated, is the last part in this task to close the research, which is presented, specified, reasoned and justified. A public document, that first passes through an evaluating committee, and which the PhD student will defend publicly, demonstrating their research abilities. All this demands a series of important abilities and know-how on the part of the PhD student. At this moment also, our support is fundamental. Later, they will enter the scientific community, communicating the results of their research in various scientific forums, specialised journals, books, etc.

Learning and Abilities that the PhD Student Develops in the Process of Research of the Thesis

The PhD student, throughout the research process of their thesis, develops a series of abilities: cognitive, investigative, scientific, professional, existential and reconstruction of the self, which we present next:

Development of knowledge and cognitive abilities:

Research demands the development of a series of knowledge, know-how and cognitive abilities such as: capacity for an information search, reading, understanding, interpretation, analysis, selection, extraction of ideas, arrangement of ideas, summaries, synthesis, relation, comparison, contrasting, organisation of the discourse, writing etc.
– **Development of knowledge and research abilities:**

The research process allows learning to: consider a research problem, look for information about the subject matter, organise this information, design and develop a research project, with all and each one of its parts (problem, objectives, hypothesis, dimensions and variables, methodology, population/sample, procedures and instruments of data collection and analysis, interpretation of results, conclusions), mastery of various research methodologies, technological resources, information technology, etc.

– **Development of the capacity for construction of specialised and professional scientific knowledge**

Research allows the construction of new knowledge that widens or discovers a field of specialisation, which allows the researcher a greater command of the researched field, on which can be developed a better intervention. Specialisation facilitates a new professional development or the possibility of changing work.

– **Development of existential self-knowledge and identity reconstruction:**

Although PhD students are usually centred in their research work, learning knowledge related to the researched subject matter, the methodologies, the information technology resources, the research instruments and the analyses; the investigator’s process is complex and it places them at the head of diverse challenges, where the interpolation and personal, emotional and familiar investment that this process entails is considerable. Throughout the time and process of research, there are moments of personal, emotional, familiar, professional questions; of searching for alternatives; of creation of answers; of decision making and overcoming of risks; where people feel questioned in their lives and they are themselves forced to reformulate their decisions. The investment of energy and effort to develop this learning and research abilities entails the opening-up of new personal dimensions, and professional possibilities that allow a greater self-knowledge of their form of being and existing. In the dialectic process of personal questioning, destructuring, reflection, search for answers and clarification, there is a new reconstruction of themselves and consequently a new identity reconstruction.

### Availabilities, Knowledge, Abilities, Reconstructions and Challenges that the Supervision /Companion of a Thesis Entails

The supervision of a thesis requires the diverse development of knowledge, learning and abilities on the part of the supervisor/companion, as well as a certain level of personal and professional involvement in the process of the construction of that work, the assumption of certain risks, the response to some questions, taking decisions and proceeding to an identity reconstruction. Supervising a thesis requires accompanying the PhD student in that process of research and education that they wish to make. The term accompaniment indicates:

“A relationship of sharing, interchange, communication of a substantial element, the bread. A movement towards a joint relationship, even
having a disparity of position and place. This parity aims to generate equals...A duration: this shared relationship is established in time, with some beginnings and some continuations. It lasts feeding itself on time. (Pineau, 1998: 9)."

When we have assumed supervision of a thesis, and in particular the two to which we allude here, not only have we assumed the responsibility that the development of this work and the education of the PhD student entails, but also that we have understood the supervision as an accompaniment of equals, in Pineau’s sense, even with different institutional positions and researchers. We have approached PhD students on equal terms of communication and interchange to be better able to capture their centres of interest and thus be able to accompany them to construct and to create an object of scientific, singular, specific and novel knowledge where they feel recognised. We have set out from various assumptions, putting our knowledge, abilities and availabilities into operation to orient, advise, guide, maintain and accompany them at various levels throughout the whole process. Thus, the supervision must:

- **Have a knowledge and dominion of both the subject matter to be researched, and the research methodology** that can be used. The supervisor should be capable at the research level, know the research process, have control over techniques, resources and procedures of collection and analysis of data, and know the various difficulties that appear in its development, as well as the possible risks and successes of the decisions that have to be made at certain moments. We have put all our human and research resources at the disposal of the PhD students that we accompany.

- **Know the central interest of the student and discover to what extent the research subject that they choose relates to their cognitive, personal and life interests.** It seems important to us to discover this aspect, as we consider that the extent to which the research is bound to their centre of interest will determine their ability to generate an enlightening knowledge for their life, original and creative, since the perspective from which they approach it will allow the discovery of novel aspects of reality, and the creation of new scientific knowledge that can open lines of research. On the other hand, knowing the levels of involvement that the person has in the research subject, helps us to discover to what extent this involvement allows them to deepen and to advance the subject, or produce certain emotional blocks that do not let the research advance.

- **Discover why the PhD student follows this line of research.** Sometimes the students know clearly both the purpose of the research and why they wish to do it. But there are other times, although there seems to be a clear subject and an explicit purpose, when the research begins to develop in a way that takes a direction that does not correspond with that specified at the beginning. The student, to the extent that they enter into the subject, discovers aspects that were unknown until then, and they awake a greater or smaller interest in them, that led them to new decision making. These decisions can vary the perspective of the research and even the themes considered, sometimes leading them to courses of personal self-knowledge, as sometimes happens with the life histories, or autobiographies. These
can lead them to an important personal destructuring, and a commitment for a new identity reconstruction. In these cases, the supervisor/companion becomes exposed to complex support situations and must make important decisions about involving themselves in that process and to see how to construct, through them, an object of scientific knowledge, or to say no to this level of commitment and involvement. One of the PhD students who has developed an autobiographical project would fit this case. Accompanying them has demanded a strong and complex involvement.

- **Must have the know-how to extract that question and aim of the study from the student without diverting or distorting it.** Often, the student does not know how to specify the aim of the study well, mainly at the outset when considering the research. Sometimes it occurs that we can divert the student towards our own research interests instead of supporting them to find the specificity of their own research objective.

- **They must be given an accompaniment, motivation and clarification, that allows them to construct the study objectively from their interests, and to develop the research process exhaustively, rigorously and systematically, so that they construct original, creative, scientific and significant work.** Helping them to delimit the study objective without diverting it, is not as easy or as evident as it seems (Dominicé, 2002: 106 - 109).

- **It must be known what type of involvement your accompaniment entails, in addition to the cognitive and scientific.** In general the research processes require certain existential transformations, that demand support, involvement and help, and the supervisor must know at what point they wish to limit questioning and involvement and what risks and questions are raised. Accompanying from involvement requires:

  “Emerge from themselves, received and receiving, they are discovered in their possibilities and in their education. Both can be used, re-fulfilled in a new comprehension of themselves. This withdrawal and resumption in self-education from which we are received in welcome (Honoré, en Türkal, 1998: 81).”

Accompaniment from a listening position that allows the PhD student to grow, also involves strong demands on the supervisor, which leads them to question their know-how, knowledge, attitudes, behaviour, visions, etc. This accompaniment leads both to consider their ‘being in the world’ and made to face the great reality of ‘to be human is to be irremediably alone, both opposed to existential anguish, and opposed to existential choices’ (Delefosse et al, 1998:155). We have accompanied both PhD students from the existential involvement, mainly for one of them who has undergone a complete process of existential destructuring and identity reconstruction. In this process, that has lasted a long time, we have had to look for different types of strategies for accompaniment and reconstruction, that has forced to us to position ourselves to facilitate our reconstruction and the construction and giving of objectivity to their object of study.

- **Development of professional, scientific, strategic, emotional, critical learning,** among others, because the development of a thesis not only forces PhD students to acquire new qualifications, and cognitive, professional and
research abilities, etc., but also demands the capacity to develop new scientific, professional, personal, strategic know-how of the supervision. It puts one in the frame of mind to have to discover the deep desire of students who approach to ask for the supervision of their work. Discover their interests without turning them aside; help them to discover and specify their research; develop their capacities and discipline essential to make original, rigorous and exhaustive scientific work; support them at times of anguish, crisis and questioning; unblock them at difficult moments and accompany them until closing the object of study, that entails a birth of the self, it is knowledge that the supervision must know how to handle.

- **Really, each thesis puts the supervision to the test, since this way of understanding it confronts the originality and specificity of each person with the challenge of a creative and original scientific product.** With each accompaniment, new questions emerge which have to be answered. New identity reconstructions also take place in each PhD student and in the supervision, which must show the mastery of new abilities and knowledge, as well as certain research, methodological, epistemological and scientific positioning that advances the sciences, in this case in education.

These are, among others, some of the questions and qualifications that we consider the accompaniment and supervision of research work for theses demands.

**Conclusion**

As a general conclusion, we can say that the development of research for a doctoral thesis, at a determined moment in the life cycle of the persons, not only entails an education that allows them to acquire a series of abilities of personal, professional and research order in the PhD students, but which leads the supervisors of that research to develop diverse personal, professional and scientific abilities and certain know-how that facilitate the development of an original, rigorous and exhaustive research work that makes interesting contributions in the field of the specific knowledge. In addition, the research process leads both the PhD students and the supervisor to important questions and decision making with respect to the research object that carry personal, emotional, scientific, methodological, professional, existential implications, that are more or less intense according to their level of involvement. These questions usually lead them to various self-reconstructions and in consequence to a greater or lesser identity reconstruction.
Introduction

In this paper we will show how the people who they investigate on life histories, submerge in a process of learning of multiple levels, same as the students imply themselves and the people with whom we work with in the University National Autonomous of Mexico at the Iztacala campus.

This work of investigation arises from the accumulated experience during twenty years in which we have developed dynamic workshops of self-awareness with experience for them, same in which it has worked with specific thematic of daily life and that took us to implement the autobiography accomplishment, first the part of the instructors and later with the people with which we worked. From this work arises the necessity to make a deeper analysis to describe the changes that generated our workshops and for that reason we undertook a PHD thesis at Seville University, step by step to analyse the events, the experiences which the participants and the results narrate of reflecting around autobiographies and those daily events that influence in the people to conform its identity.

For that reason we can affirm that to realise our autobiography we required the support of an instructor who has already experience of the autobiographical process and can take part therapeutically to facilitate ‘awareness’ of the problematic ones through which they pass the students and how to confront them.

When we realised a workshops on life histories, it is important that the facilitators are sensible to the emotional manifestations that imply remembering and to narrate in public our fears, the myths approaches the sexuality, the education styles, to have to be contrasted with real desires of the people, so that in this way the clarity in the person is its possible through the autobiography and can be shaped in paper its history of life so that it is formed, they begin to realise changes in their daily life directed to the autoafirmation of their identity and the profit of their raised objectives.

This process of support requires of a methodology of horizontality in the relations facilitator-disciple where both narrate the vicissitudes of their vital trajectory what facilitates the deep process of transformation in a short time interval at mental, socio-educational, training levels (like people and psychologists) existential, and like investigating futures with a preparation that is more in agreement with the events and the needs of the present life.
Theoretical Fundamentals

When we refer to the theme of the biographies and autobiographies, we recognise that the pioneer disciplines were led to this study by sociology and anthropology (Thomas and Znaniecki 1927, Lewis 1959) and although we are not going to go deep in this sense, it is necessary to indicate that when we speak of life histories, –with all the fame that in this time has been successful– we thought that it is a novel theme. Nevertheless, when we propose narrating or writing our own history it is an event that also occurred in the first feminists movements, when the women alone found in this activity, a way to express her knowledge, its penalties and the diligences that they had to do to obtain a place of recognition in the society that did not allow them to have access to institutionalised knowledge. Another motivation to write the events of the daily life went to put memoirs at his contemporary, to the children and near family, of the vicissitudes that these women had to obtain a total realisation (Reinharz and Davidman, 1992). And then, the autoawareness groups were one of the main tools in the feminist investigation that followed the pedagogical postulates of Paulo Freire (1969), in order to educate, to know and to go deep in the knowledge of the daily life, its sociology and the mechanisms of production and reproduction of attitudes that limit the total development of the humans.

In these groups the women, were given the opportunity to share their daily experiences were given a voice to showed day to day all their magnitude and wide range of problems related to familiar dynamics, the strategies of education of the children, the problems of the power in the affective relationship, the distribution of domestic activities and salary employees, until arriving at problematic of greater social impact as they are; the gender violence, the addictions, the shortage of economic resources, the deficiency of public services and health in certain sectors of the population. In these groups besides listening to the voices between women, opening the possibility of knowing what other women thought on the same themes in other countries, so that they took reading to organize themselves around a common question realising concrete activities to legislate and to obtain social rights that previously were forbidden to them although it did not referred the life history.

It is in this existential-humanistic sense in which in the UNAM Iztacala campus, have developed a research programme\(^2\) with a methodological dynamic of intervention-action with autoawareness groups in which the students who participate narrate their life history following each one of the periods of their vital development. The students participate actively in vivential dynamics that we implemented so that the narrations flows, in this form it becomes more feasible reflect on those events of the daily life that were determining to constitute the identity style which they have until that moment. Nevertheless is in active listening where the students ‘take conscience’ from the similarities and the differences in the development, in the social and affective relations which they establish, in the attitudes they have against life, the education, the family, the job and what they hope for themselves like professional futures of psychology.

\(^{1}\) The research program is denominated: Program of formation of investigators of developing human, studies of gender and qualitative methodologies, applied in communities with requirements of formation and social action.
Procedure of the Workshop

This investigation centres on the curriculum of a psychology degree one of the four course theoretical-practices\(^2\) that the students will attend from 5º course to initiate their professional practices and to fulfilled their social service. Each group is conformed by thirty students and will have to choose between 3 options of practice. In each practice there will be ten students, the professors display the content of their practice and the group division are realised.

Formal Opening of the Course

To initiate the workshop we asked the students who settle down the operation rules under which we are going to respect the companions as they are; punctuality, attends 80% of the meetings at least, to respect who is speaking, which they will be brief and concrete when speaking, that what is narrated within the group will not be repeats with other people outside the classroom because what it is narrated in the group is confidential and intimate, who will not become destructive critics and that will respected the thoughts and the emotions that in the group will arise.

Later we will approach the group with a dynamics ‘to break the ice’ relating to who we are, to what we dedicated ourselves, why we chose to study psychology and why we are realising this academic activity from which a worthy publication investigation will arise in national and international forums related to the subject. Later each one of the students appear in the group following the points expressed by the professors, we will see an example of why they choose this practice:

“I choose psychology because one of my professors in the high school was psychologist and gave very pretty classes, but when I arrived at this school we began to work with rats, and I no longer wanted to come!... soon we worked with children but with reinforcement programs... for this class I have been waiting since I initiated the degree course, because here we will speak of ourselves and I say; if I have a pile of problems, how am I going to help him or the others if I cannot with my own things? , I have found a space here in which I know I am going to solve them.”

With this example we want to show how from the first class, the students begin with a mental attitude and emotional opening that facilitates the process of vivential education-learning because its professors –a woman and a man– appear thus before them like two people with experience in the educative and clinical area, who can support them in the critical reflection of the events of their daily life, which they have been determined to conform its identity and in addition they propose them to realise a workshop in which they will be instructors, being part of the investigation.

\(^2\) The subjects are: psychology of the development and education, clinical psychology, special education in the psychology, and communitarian social psychology. In each of these subjects there are diverse options which they will have to choose the one that corresponds more with its professional interests. In the development area didactic materials can be realised the practices in preschool, in primary, secondary, to make didactic materials, in education for adults and companies of the industrial area.
That the professors speak of themselves is a practice that is not frequent in the schools, because they are afraid to lose status of professor and the respect of the students since in the educative institutions there is an expert who will teach the apprentices that must follow the norms and the dictates of the education without looking at personal problems, when the professors speak of themselves they gained the respect and the recognition of our students, because they see in there professors as flesh and blood that we also have had our own problematic ones and we have found chords ways to the exigencies of the cultural context in which we are evolved, with this we want to show the climate before the classes are distributed theoretical-practices is of horizontality in which there is an opening to listening without being criticised.

The Genealogic

We start with the story of whom our ancestors were, how we know them, what were their characteristics and the predominant attitudes, in what place of the country they were born, what they did and what characteristic and interests they shared or not with their ancestors. With this activity we invited them to initiate its own investigation documenting themselves and speaking with their parents and near relatives to know the origin of their ancestors and the circumstances under which they formed their identity. This first part of the investigation begins to arise from the first effects from the group intervention. First, the students due to the scholastic requirements –if they had some problem of communication with her/his parents– must speak of his/her family history, take them to an opening in the communication since in the present times the parents who work wage-earning, leave the educative institutions the responsibility of the behaviour of the children, therefore, the success or the scholastic failure will depend on if the school is good or bad.

On the other hand when the parents are divorced, the children adhere to one of the parents and blame the other for the separation, when they begin to know their family history, arise family myths, histories of economic deficiency, violence, addictions, abuse authority, or family solidarity to evolve an optimal way in the present society. They have before themselves, their own genealogic tree and in it they can watch graphically how some customs are repeated, attitudes, traditional obligations and beliefs exceed what they must be and make the women and the men. They begin to understand why the father or the mother acted in a certain way and this makes them what they will be. We will see an example of that opening in communication:

“When I said to my father that he had to do an interview with my family to know his history, we went to visit my grandpa in Irapuato, they felt very important!, we all sat down to the table and my grandpas told me a pile of histories of when my father was a child, I did not know that my grandfather was a shoemaker, and my grandmother washed other people’s clothes and seeded in seat beds to help the income of the house, they were so poor! , my father erased his notebooks of the previous year to use them in the following course, in his times he
couldn´t decide “I have desire or not to go to the school because I do not have books” so going to the school meant to leave the poverty, now I understand why my father was so angry, when I did not fulfil the tasks.”

The Conformation of the Family of Origin

In order to initiate with this theme, we asked the students to investigate how their parents knew themselves, until scholastic degree they studied, how it was the affective relationship among them, they relation with the family of her husband until the time of their birth, and how the students relationship with their brothers and sisters.

In this stage new discoveries are realised, when listening to their companions they realise that the families consist of diverse forms; two-parent, one-parent, mixed, the decision or the programming when to have children, the alliances or the discussions between relatives and the idea that their parents had when conforming their family, that is to say that the house in which they live is not the same, because all development entail a process and there family has happened through diverse economic and emotional stages until getting to be what they are now. Another important thing that is possible to emphasise is when they analyse the type of affective relationship that was between their parents and the difference in how they are related at present depends on how they have maintain or not the relationship alive.

The new discoveries go from the general to the individual, to listen critically to the other (its companions) and to speak in third person –grandfather and great-grandfathers– in the past time, they did not live, to return to the continuous present and in first person, which I have been and what now I am, a process of reflexivity and awareness that generates ‘gestáltic awareness’, that influences me and what I really want to be, that is to open like a mental-emotional fan-shaped when they speak of themselves in the following phase.

The Developmental Periods

In the traditional subjects it is frequent to analyse the stages of development according to a certain division of dominions or psychological functions (perception, emotion, language, relationships, etc.) and several authors review themselves to verify that those psychological functions have been acquired. In our subject we took the criteria the periods of ages (childhood, adolescence, adulthood), putting the emphasis in the way in which the individuals like complete people they perceive, feel, think, act, are touched, etc., in each context in which they are involved like participants (Pérez, 2008; Bronfenbrenner, 2005).

Childhood

We initiate this phase with a dynamics of relaxation with a fantasy directed, in which the positive and negative events more relevant will be remember during their periods of development, when finalising the relaxation they will draw with
symbols, figures or words which they have seen and fell like sharing with the group their experience during the relaxation, leaving for the following classes, the story of its significant experiences.

When their professors refer to their significant childhood experiences, the students have against himself a conceptual picture in which their professors are part of the same context –participant observation– and will throughout accompany the way, is reinitiated the reflexivity process listening histories of the past that are located in a well-known context that belongs to its culture, in these stories, the students see reflected its parents and the open communication between generations, there are frequent smiles, their interventions to confront what they know about their parents, for example; cost of the currency, children games, the religious ceremonies, the size of the families, the distinction between the country and the city, the changes that have been generated the way to discipline the children, the way in which its habitat has modified. The students speak of themselves indicate the differences between the generation of their parents but still more, they see the differences between a family and another one, they realise that the raising styles generate different attitudes in the children and each gives a particular meaning to their experience, we see:

“My parents were divorced when I was three years old, soon each returned to have a couple, my mother married and my father only has girlfriends I saw him every eight days and I hated my stepfather, I was bad to him because I wanted that my parents were together. When I listen how bad your father treats you, I realise that I have had an extraordinary stepfather, he loves me very much, he has raised me and he has given me more things than my biological father.”

**Emilio or the Education**

In this period they also refer to its experiences to be alive against the formal education, the support or abandonment of the parents in the academic tasks, emphasise the positive relation that one settled down with its professors of primary or the mistreat and the disqualification that suffered with them, its childhood friendships and the position that took in front of the school, which is not learning in books, the effects of the relation teacher-student that generates feelings of security and academic success or makes the student a being in constant fight by the recognition of an important figure as the professor.

Also from the psychological facts that arise here they are those emotionally important events in which the people makes decisions from life according to the perception in which they have of themselves and who they are in agreement with the life style that was for them to live (González, 2003, 2005). The students identify and now they will occur to the task to seek between his following experiences to see if these are repeated.

**Puberty and Adolescence**

In this period stands out the narrations, sensitivity in front of the hormonal changes, the welcome or the rejection of the menstruation, the social image of
the feminine body, the one that the girls feel attractive and successful in their incipient affective relations, also we have given to ears when germinating of the first psycho-social diseases like bulimia and the anorexia, when the girls relate that they were rejected by the boys according to his corporal dense. In this period it is felt what the students relate; what one feels, the subjectivity, the affirmation of the identity that depends much on the context in which they are related in direct and singular treatment to the other, and its pairs.

In its narrations we have listened that the access to the alcohol and the drugs as form of social acceptance, stopped being an exclusively masculine behaviour, the difficulties that faced; with the permissions to leave to parties, the obligation to take care of the smaller brothers, of being the model, the example to follow, the implicit responsibility 'of not failing to the parents' in the school or with an unplanned pregnancy, the little reflexivity on its needs socio-biological, and the support that it has on its parents will the future determine of these girls and boys:

“you say that you became a neard and found in the school a form to escape from the problems in your house, but I didn’t even had that …! my school was a horrid place that was in a deep hollow where there went only band guys and to be accepted by them I began to smoke and I didn’t like it! but I ended up drinking and taking drugs, I arrived drunk to my house and my parents didn’t know.”

With reference to the sexual thing Ana said:

“My brother treated me very bad, my father mistreated me too, I hated the men! and I began to kiss with the girls, I was confused, but in Karla I found the affection that I did’ nt have in my house, I identified with her, and I began to do everything she wanted so that she would not leave me... “

Here relations are alive, full of emotions in which there are abundant tears due to the painful events which have spilled, the professors accompanied them therapeutically to face the pain so that the boys set free and arise new attitudes, listening to their companions beginning to realize if they repeat negative patrons of affective relation in their engagements.

**Youth**

To this we initiated the period with a game; the students will have to form in pairs to dress a doll that does not have defined characteristics, a baby to whom will assign a sex, a name, a family... physical characteristic; skin colour, eyes, hair, corporal completion, stature, attitudes and social behaviours its trajectory of life, job, affectivity, success or failure in the life. While they elaborate their clothes decide who and how his baby will be, those characteristics will be written in a fine cardboard all they display and it before his companions. Histories most variable life are listened but generally their babies are shown like high, forts, colour eyes, cuvilinear completion, successful profesionist, blond or brown women with infinity of occupations in sport, the home and the job.
Later they see a documentary that refers to diverse investigations on the expectations of the parents and how their attitudes typify before the masculine thing and the feminine thing. The students discuss the similarity found in the video with the presentation which they did of their babies and they analyse what probably their parents hoped of them when they were going to be born, in that form they live the stereotypes of gender and the latent thing that continues being the cultural model of having to be like men or women. They analyse the raising styles they have received, and give account of the interpretation that they did against the type of parents that they have.

The Life Decisions

All the stories are not tragic, they are strong stories and well-being, from family harmony, smiles and joys that the students see with good faith, these stories become the example to follow; ‘what I can do when raising my own family’. In this period many decisions of life are listened to, that have generally been the result of the trajectory towards maturity, when the students choose to attend and to culminate the university studies, when they have been able to leave back the addictions or they look for therapeutic intervention to solve them, to this we closed the period with a ceremony in which we make a relaxation with another directed fantasy in which in the end we summaries all that has realized that is negative for its personal development and which they no longer want to have and they burn in a mud container mentioning aloud the objectives that are going to be in a short time.

One week later they give their autobiographies written with photos and ideographics data that accentuate what was expressed in the narrations, with these histories they initiate the period of twin analysis of its autobiographies since they interchange between its companions its histories so that others analyses what they observe, creates categories of analysis and writes an assay like the one that appears here so that it can be exposed in academic forums. A following passage in this research programme is the pedagogical preparation so that they lead a similar workshop to whom they finish attending and which we will speak in later events.

Conclusions

As we see during this course there is a rich variety of emotional manifestations, but not only that, it is a classroom in which the knowledge of the reality is generated, it has access to the learning of multiple levels; theoretician, practitioner, of opening to the social relations between the parents, the grandparents, between students and teachers, it lets us know the historical memory of the region where the family was satisfied, keep alive familiar myths and arises an attitude from personal growth that is fundamental to realise an investigation which these students do.
Introduction

For us, research and life are inextricably linked, as beyond that it is expressed in writing and a report is made, the investigation on important moments experienced, is a part of our perception, our way of relating. That is to say, we think that we can only be just with ourselves and the people with whom we coexist in interrelationships through: observation, listening, reflection and constant creativeness. With this way of conceiving research, as a continuous opportunity for learning and knowledge, we delve inside ourselves (into our deepest feelings), assuming a commitment for a life style more engaged with the nature, with the living dimension of each person.

In this work, we have emphasised some of the learning that comprises the educational and research process which we have been developing for almost nine years in the Faculty of Educational Sciences of the University of Seville, and this is pending presentation as a Doctoral Thesis in the Department of Methods of Research and Diagnosis in Education under the supervision of Dr. Isabel Lopez Górriz.

Some Characteristics of the Doctoral Thesis

This research, known as: ‘Autobiographical research within University Education. A methodology which facilitates transforming processes of existential and social education’, is centred on an educational/learning process and autobiographical research from a theoretical framework of complexity.

It is an investigation based, essentially, on the self-educational process, in the sense that is defended by Pineau et Marie-Michèle (1983), from their approach to experiential and autobiographical learning. This is to say, as a means of appropriation of one’s own power of education. Self-education is understood as a tripolar process, which not only includes itself, the ‘self’ pole (not understood only as individual), and the others, ‘heteros’ (that would include social, familial and cultural influences), but also those things, the ‘eco-educational’ (physical, climatic influences, symbologies, etc.) (Pineau, 1985, 2005).

“This triple movement of tapping the conscience and tapping the power of the person over their education seems to be the basis of a conceptual definition of self-education. Self-education appears here as the emergence of an original conscience in the interaction with the context (Galvani, 2005: 145).”
In addition we support the approach of Josso (1991, 2007) when working from an existential, hermeneutic and trans-disciplinary self-educational perspective, autobiography and the education of adults.

In addition, we refer to the works developed by Lopez Górriz (1986, 2007), who alluded to the construction of the autobiographical research from the introspective and existential education and research. The internal processes of existential transformation and their incidence in relation to education and research take relevance within these. In one of her more recent works, we support Lopez Górriz (2008), in which she states the ‘dimensions of the educative/training model of autobiographical research that allows the reconstruction of the self’, in that it recovers the following dimensions: experiential, self-education, self-evaluation, ethics, narrative, communication, cognition, research, cultural/political, relational/social, psycho-social, existential, clinical/therapeutic, emotional and introspective. All of them linked one with the others and forming part of the same education/training and research process.

It is within this theoretical/practical framework that we have located the current work of autobiographical research. We understand that this is the means through which we studied thoroughly to understand more deeply the self/learning process (in the sense given by Pineau –1983, 1993, that is to say, as a bio-cognitive coordination of that lived and the knowledge produced) and research which has been generated and which points towards a deep transformation. We understand that autobiographical research can strengthen that conception. Moreover, something which has not been unleashed, which has not been experienced, can hardly be taken into account in these processes (Lopez Górriz, 2007d).

Our aim through this doctoral thesis is twofold: on the one hand to analyse the learning and research model which involves a work of autobiographical research, and on the other, to analyse what processes of existential and social transformation are entailed and/or what this work can achieve. Although we are aware that not everyone who produces and analyses their autobiography will undergo a significant change, we do believe that it is possible to be committed to that change through the work of autobiographical research.

This is to say, we try to know to what extent the autobiographical research helps to model us in a learning and research context, aiming at a greater understanding of ourselves from our socialisation (as socialising agents in the context in which we interact daily). In the same way, we analysed whether autobiographical research allows a greater awareness of our internalised models and the actions carried out (analysed retrospectively).

Next we present the cases and subjects used to carry out the investigation.

**A. Two Case Study of Group Autobiographical Research within the Sphere of Higher Education (Psychopedagogy Degree)**

In order to undertake this research in the Faculty of Educational Sciences of the University of Seville, we studied two groups of four students, each one
pertaining to the Psychopedagogy Degree Course. These two groups of students began the autobiographical research in 2006. Each group is carrying out a research project in a subject of this degree. One of the subjects is obligatory and core, entitled: Methods of investigation in education. The other subject is optional and four-monthly, entitled: Methodologies of Research – Action. Both subjects were given by Dr. Isabel Lopez Górriz, our Doctoral Thesis Supervisor and companion. The modality of autobiographical research and the theme of the autobiographical research projects, which each group of students took, have been free elections and agreed beforehand with the supervisor.

B. Two Case Studies of Individual Autobiographical Research within the Sphere of Higher Education (Masters and Doctorate) including our Autobiographical Work

We have also produced the case study (through in depth interviews) of an adult who has produced their autobiography within the scope of higher education (Masters) at the University of Seville and who has worked, later, in the area of continuing education.

And as a specific of the study we highlight that, as researchers, we have also taken part of our autobiography, resting essentially on the work of Josso (1991), although also in that of Lopez Górriz (1986). We have made our own study, which occasionally contrasts with other people and at the same time co-constructed with the person who has accompanied us throughout the whole process of creation, presentation and analysis of that experienced, felt, specified and/or theorised. We have therefore needed strong accompaniment from our thesis supervisor, having helped us thus to work in a singular process of reconstruction of our identity.

We have passed through diverse phases that we theorised to understand the significance of this learning and the research process, that aims at the transformation of the person. We understand the transformation as a destructuring and restructuring of behaviours and attitudes, that are not only transferred to a co-construction of knowledge, but that aims at a reconstruction of ones own identity through a committed relational action. It is a research process related to the point in the life and professional career of the person when they decide to undertake the research, which is why this becomes a means of opening-up and growth.

This educative process of identity reconstruction requires a strong involvement of not only those who undertake the research process but also of those who accompany it. It has been a constant confrontation to fulfil diverse challenges of learning, understanding ‘the learning as a space of transformation’ (Dominicé, 2006). It is learning that personifies us as an educational person-professional.

It is for that reason, that we present some of the learning triggered throughout the learning and research process in this communication; these being of diverse nature: existential, clinical, cognitive, investigative, experiential, emotional, relational, and others.
The Need to Learn Training Ourselves and Investigating From a Living and Experiential Knowledge Related to Life

To analyse some mysterious dimensions that each life entails is a commitment that passes through a process of demobilisation of knowledge, feelings, intuitions and perceptions created and recreated daily. A learning that crosses life and that mobilises us, and requires continuous and constant analysis, construction and reconstruction. It is for that reason that this work of learning and research is a slow process. It is not only a question of advancing theoretically in a field of science, but that the autobiographical learning and research work has been taken as part of a process of identity reconstruction.

This thesis work is the route to learn to construct a living and experiential knowledge related to life. It is a process that allows us not only to generate knowledge from the emergence of the studied events, but also to reflect on that knowledge in relation to the conditions in which it is generated and in consequence, integrating them so that they are incorporated as action mediators. This entails a large effort, as we have raised previously, as much for the person who undertakes it, as for the person who accompanies the learning and research process throughout. It is an accompaniment from a life plan, that entails the patience and the courage to commit because the person accompanied becomes aware and learns to take responsibility, to act to detach themselves from the hidden primitive instincts that are anchored strongly within them.

This existential autobiographical research collected in the life plan, is necessary to be able to advance and to understand the deep meaning of the intellectual dimension from a vision of complexity and emergent construction. It also involves an internal destructuring for a later restructuring. The person who accompanies us in this doctoral thesis, has experienced, metamorphosised, theorised and recreated her learning/research process prior to accompanying us in this research, because the complexity of this research requires an understanding from the emergence of the experienced and studied events. It is a reconstruction from an educational model that does not solely consider academic content, but that extrapolates the walls of the university institution, as it takes the life of the person in their multiple dimensions as the research axis.

Some Learning Triggered During the Work of a Doctoral Thesis

This learning and research work leads us to have to unlearn certainties learnt and anchored socially in our surroundings. To create and to construct a scientific knowledge involves a written and conceptual re-working made at different moments, and each time in greater depth. We discovered that an autobiographical research work entails different types of learning, some of which we present next:

Narrative learning: orality and writing. Learning to be objective from the emergence of the experience:

– When the first stories are written the production experience is a huge effort. But when they are analysed with the perspective of time they are seen as flat, descriptive, not very re-worked stories.
At the start of the work it is the orality that helps us to understand certain situations that, although they are internalised, we cannot yet shape all their dimensionality in writing, because writing entails an important qualitative jump with respect to this and a greater effort and learning (of selection, form, format, following a leading thread, etc.).

It is resuming writing and orality in time, as we can analyse, read and contrast to begin to theorise and to construct a language (oral and written) with certain coherency and something of depth that is extended in time.

It is a collection of data from the emergence of oral and/or written presentations that is reconstructed in the measure in which they are presented.

It entails an effort to pass from an experiential dimension to a theoretical dimension that collects this experience and it helps us to extend the knowledge on it.

Clinical therapeutic learning implicit in the construction process and autobiographical research:

It is very difficult at the beginning of an autobiographical research work to theorise on the followed process and the constructed content. Initially, we tend to collect all that moves to us internally and it becomes a priority to expel what hurts us through expression (oral and/or written).

Therefore, at some moments of the story or the writing the pain is contained that is expressed through weeping.

Learning to discover ourselves as relational beings and social actors.

The learning of theorisation from experience has passed through an inductive-deductive process, that in our case has entailed presenting works in diverse forums and/or congresses to advance in the created work and to be contrasting with other professionals.

It is through analysis of the diverse relations that we create, that we know and we delve deeper into our identity, whilst knowing the others better.

One type of learning that this type of research work involves is that in the measure to which we delve into it, it makes us more aware that to take this conception is complex. Then, it entails integrating the private spaces as social spaces and socialisers of involvement, recreating and contrasting visions in each situation.

Learning about the complexity that the role of researcher and companion entails in a process of autobiographical research.

Therefore, creating and constructing a scientific knowledge that contains the art of life and to try to theorise and to objectivise knowledge, occurs through an arduous work of emotional, existential and life learning that we go through.

These types of learning and knowledge are distant from other types of learning and research in that the knowledge is, apparently, free of the experiences that the researcher goes through at that moment of their life.

A learning that entails an unblocking of existential and life situations requires a long process and very strong accompaniment. It is a constant
accompaniment with a person who not only uses methodological strategies to unblock certain situations of cognitive-experiential block, but who is disposed to commit a great amount of time and energy, during the time in which the accompanied person makes a constant process of goings and comings, in a remodelling different from the start. And not to lose hope that the accompanied person will take the step to convert the experiential process into scientific knowledge that contains the essence of the triggered process.

– All this research process is firmly rooted in a process of birth and recreation of the person, which extrapolates into the creation of a theorising cognitive body because it creates the projection and shape of the person itself.

**Writing to Reconstruct Our Own Identity and Make Us Objective. Some Clinical/Therapeutic Learning Recorded in the Personal Diary of the RESEARCHER (Jurado Jiménez, 2006)**

As an example, we present fragments of the personal diary of the researcher, in which an analytical learning is expressed that helps to channel the pain through autobiographical writing and weeping:

“Now that we write this, there is a strong pain and a need to expel the pain through weeping, writing and working with the conviction that we can create, in spite of the cost that it means socially today, because what is awarded and what abounds is the career, the fast, effective and plainly visible production. In spite of all this, we have believed deeply in other ways of knowing each other, to be able to advance from the deepest within ourselves, because really they are models that we drag about and that are very deeply anchored within us, very difficult to change, to transform.

Our most unconscious or hidden projections are those which drive us towards some more or less clear directions, where we are more the directors of our life or more dependent on others. And when we have more or less explicit images or messages, very much in our core, it is only the violence with ourselves that helps us to break them to a certain extent, although even so we do not break them absolutely, because from time to time they arise again and they cause damage again, it is necessary to re-eliminate them without knowing if they will manifest again. (…) The fears have very much crossed and denied or paralysed our advance, our emergence from the deep belief in ourselves.’ (Personnel diary of the researcher, 21 January 2007)”.

Also, other learning related to identity reconstruction are expressed. A fight as a woman: untying the knots that are felt/experienced with our family constellations

“As a woman I fight to rid myself of the stigma that has weighed heavily familiarly on my predecessors and myself and which in other societies is experienced totally differently. I believe that as people we have to unfold in all the plans that contain us (although we understand that it is always an open process) to feel complete and to be able to grow and not
to be blocked or anchored, since everything evolves/regresses, whether we want it or not, and we are part of it. What are my contradictions or my dilemmas? On the one hand it is a professional commitment and on the other hand it is the sexual emotional relational part, how to make them compatible when the female identity is in a function primarily borne by the male figure, weighs heavily in the preceding identity modelling? When we start from an environment/context in which the woman has traditionally had a lot of weight, that is to say, the relational, her identity in a man’s function and maternity, it is difficult to open other spaces (or that is my history at least). (Personal diary of the researcher, 05 October 2008).”

**Partial Conclusions**

- This research has become, without being a specified objective at its start, a process not only of research, but essentially a process of accompaniment towards an existential and life transformation.
- This research we experience like a birth from the creation, where the anguish, the violence, the falls and the shocks to our interior are present, present at more pressing moments than in others.
- The personnel-professional shaping of the person whom we are modelling, is assuming a strong growth, as if dealing with some organ of our body and our skin.
- This work involves pushing ourselves to make a very hard exercise in control, where drive and reason have been strongly debated and with a dialectic followed throughout the process. Drive led us to fall, to sway us in the others, to depend, to let time pass without clarifying the most rational personal-professional options or decisions that are necessary to be able to make the jump to the visualisation of a person with order, with complete sense and not individual pieces stuck onto others. All the time thesis work is a space of debate between the personal and professional options and both at the same time, because the breaking of one led to the other, the two are very present.
- This educative process of identity reconstruction requires a strong involvement not only of the researcher but of their companion.
- This accompaniment starts out from certain assumptions (which the researcher tries to re-appropriate throughout the autobiographical research process), where the learning and the research are understood as part of life, taking critical and experiential educative parameters for it, that recompose in an emergent manner, of liberation (with all the pain that entails) and of horizontality from an experience of genuine democracy that is constructed day to day.
- It is a research process related to the point in the life and professional career point in which the person is found when they decide to do the research, which is why this becomes the means of opening-up and growth.
Introduction

We currently live in a complex society whose demands and characteristics are undergoing a constant and rapid development. The dizzying and innovative areas that are found in different areas of society, are evident in all branches of knowledge and in all social institutions and entities. In this line of thought, the accompaniment process assumes the utmost importance, and has proved a powerful mechanism for individuals during the development of doctoral thesis work.

The interest in the accompaniment process is appreciated by the group of interrelationships and peculiarities surrounding the situation. This interrelationship does not require special attention to be given to the human component. We base this on the idea that any relationship has and entails evolutionary processes and personal peculiarities that confer distinct characteristics in each situation.

Background of the Process: The Experience of Study in a Different Culture

The accompaniment process for the development of doctoral research was a decision that was suggested to me in June 2007 after taking the research aptitude test (DEA).

Involvement in this initiative arose as a result of assessment achievement by the doctoral student. The mental reconstruction of an accompaniment process was outlined and assessed to be ideal in terms of my expectations. Aspects related to the harmonisation, dialogue and balance that were received during this process.

When a person makes the decision to relocate to a country with the intention of acquiring or comparing knowledge as in my case, a situation of transition of ecological order takes place in the individual with a high potential impact for their development. There are few changes that affect life at the same time, and with such intensity, in the various levels of the environment than the clear example of transition involving changes of role and incorporation into a new environment; furthermore this shift of international order involves changes in the institutional and cultural context within which the person develops. Using the terminology of Bronfenbrenner (1987), we could say that the micro-system, the macro-system and the exo-system are affected.
So, specifically, the transfer from one culture to another continuously changes the individual in all their dimensions: social, roles and affects both the immediate interpersonal environment and the socio-cultural context. In this way, we see that the individual is involved in the act of making decisions that help them find new sources of motivation and/or encouragement, to the same extent that changes are experienced in the nucleus of the key links that instigate and maintain their functioning and psychological order (Bronfenbrenner, 1987).

Obviously, we have a situation of existential breakdown, that presents the situation as a conscious decision to move with its urgent confrontation from the emergence of the individual. Under such a circumstance, it is necessary to be able to articulate all the factors involved in a study experience such that the person performing this role will have acquired a set of qualities, and very particular skills for accompaniment.

**Characterisation of the Accompaniment Experience**

The experience developed in this case has generated personal and cognitive development in both the companion and the accompanied as well as addressing situations related with research training abilities from a comprehensive perspective, combining aspects of personal and identity reconstruction. The basic strategy of the accompaniment consisted of the promotion of a process of Comprehensive Personal Development, which was at all times directed to achieve professional development from undertaking research work, and its mastery by the accompanied and its adoption in the construction of their own development processes.

The accompaniment process was always directed as a priority to developing a work plan that was consistent with our own life experience so as to engage the existential and life themes that could be found in the PhD student and to reconstruct the professional life from their personal and social history. For these reasons, different themes such as Spirituality, Gender and Emotional Recovery were incorporated into the received process of accompaniment which gave greater strength to the idea of personal and professional development.

**The Process Experienced**

Due to the way in which the accompaniment process was developed and to the adjustments that were identified as being necessary, the process was experienced in two stages:

**Stage I:**

When starting this stage, there was an excellent link of identification with the working methodology between the companion and the doctoral student. Because of this, contacts and activities developed through the progress of the dissertation, which represented an element that later allowed the taking of working decisions. One important effect of the process of accompaniment during this phase was to motivate the PhD student to construct an autobiography, with
the purpose of confronting one’s own reality and experience, and from that introspection to be able to have a more efficient vision of the research needs.

**Stage II:**

During this period the priority was the formation of a reflection group that would allow objectification of the experience and thus to be able to theorise the elements essential for the development of the doctoral thesis. One very important aspect in the way the reflection encounter was carried out in this period consisted of the creation of a group of women taking into account criteria of pluralism and diversity in terms of beliefs and options. Whilst there were some initial contradictions among the participants motivated by the dynamic, the spaces created for reflection and activities generated by the exercise, facilitated the understanding of a concept of development based on the effort of all the parties, since in those reflections we faced common problems beyond their subjective differences.

In this sense, the accompaniment is trying to express its own paradoxical dynamic, to the extent that it places the supervised behind in relation to the other, proposing, in effect a problematic and consequently ahead of being reflective and worked. Thus, this unique link by which the ‘self’, the ‘self’ will be constructed by another, that is to say a ‘hetero’ in closed circular processes and more resourceful than linear and programmable. The challenge that arises in this case is that this sort of accompaniment leads a person to develop skills and mechanisms needed to manage and co-construct their own learning in an efficient and transparent manner based on professional and life plans.

**Theorisation of the Experience**

As we approach the significance of an experience in this category, we understand that we are witnessing an innovative action that opens the way to the new challenges of the globalized society and the displacement of citizens around the world. The contemporary European university is experiencing a phase of great changes, changes it has been led to by the new international order. As an institution it must have commitments with society and the local social and economic conditions that require both participation and effective contributions from it in the search for solutions to the large problems that afflict it.

In this regard, the models of educational accompaniment for the development of research as a doctoral thesis traditionally applied in higher education have lost significance when faced with the current challenges. The method of approaching the accompaniment tutorship, so fraught with complexity, has been transformed, and the education of a researcher who is not only an executor of techniques but also an innovator, is not achieved by concentrating such activity in a course with a depersonalised directionality and undertaken by the PhD student in almost total isolation and with lack of integration as a person.

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1 “Accompaniment - between paradox and misunderstanding: theory, ethics and impossible epistemology of a profession”, in the CUEEP study books, Accompaniment in adult education, No. 50-51, April 2003, p. 203 to 220.
We see, in this way that the accompaniment is a support, an aid that everyone needs to advance any of the processes of existential development. The origins of the term and the actions involved can be traced back to ancient times. However, the term is closely linked to that of tutorship which approaches the theme from a perspective of help.

Córdoba (1998: 35) relates the concept of tutorship with the generic tutelage, and with the classical concept of guardian (carer). It refers then to the tutor as the one who exercises the role of ‘defender, protector or supervisor in any line. Similarly tutelage or tutorship carry responsibility for the guarding (care) of the person and property of those who by minority or otherwise, do not have full civil capacity’. In this regard we find the role of tutor in the teacher of ancient Greece, specifically in the Socratic maieutic. However, its inception and traditions that have shaped its current practice have their roots in the medieval university.

Doherty (2002: 17) refers to the medieval period, at the University of Oxford, where students, young men, were admitted to the institution to be trained as ‘men of character, knowledge and religion’. This meant that they were instilled with the behaviour, the life rules and ideologies characteristic of the prominent men of medieval England. However, during the nineteenth century the idea of a moral tutor began to change and to take a more academic role. According to Moore (2002:21), the role of the tutor referred to ‘teaching students how to use their minds. To teach how to think, not to teach what to think.’ The English model of tutorship has served as a template for the implementation of this strategy in many other universities in the world. The role of academic advisor as a tutor in many American universities is an example of this, and leads both the tutor and the student to find the best alternatives for achieving the highest level of education.

On the other hand, the notion of complex thought finds the process of accompaniment present when Morin (1996:72) tells us that ‘... the complex thought is primarily a thought that relates. It’s the closest meaning of the term complexus (that which is woven together). This means that as opposed to the traditional way of thinking, which divides the field of knowledge into entrenched and classified disciplines, the complex thought is a way of rebinding. It is therefore against the isolation of the objects of knowledge; putting them back in context, and if possible into the whole to which they belong.’

In our view, it is not only establishing research activities, but at the same time including in the process the key concepts and logical relationships that control thought. In such a form it is essentially an interdisciplinary research process. It is from the questioning of thought that this point of view comes very close to the cognitive sciences (second generation cybernetics, genetic psychology, systemic therapy, etc.). In this way, we see how the explained tutorship activity is the central element in promoting the transformation and integration of life learning.

Conclusions: Final Status of the Experience

The model of accompaniment created the introspective review of the PhD student; a situation that gave rise to the ability to address the meanings and
experiences of those aspects related not just to research but to the cognitive and social personal character. One key point was the establishment of a reflection group to review the progress of the research compared from the experiences of other accompanied doctoral students. Used in this way it was a holistic accompaniment that allowed the incorporation of other aspects as part of the research work, topics such as: spirituality, power, human development, organisation, female leadership, planning professional or life projects, and of course research.

The concept of facing up to the accompaniment and learning generated during the development of the doctoral thesis from its various dimensions, considering not only what we perceive academically, but also all those aspects of the psychosocio-emotional plan that affect the student’s research conditions, represents a dimension that has a profound impact at the time and which requires a companion who knows, from experience, the situations that can confront a student when experiencing a change of culture. In addition, we understand that the participatory diagnosis has been assimilated as the learning of a tool that allows us to be known as people and represents us as professionals in a moment of our profession and life.

Similarly, the evidence of a model of integrative and ecologic accompaniment that arises from the emergence of the person from the diversity that allows the personal-existential-professional development and from their own experience as a researcher and companion of PhD students from different cultures. In this sense, this type of accompaniment is visualised as a new paradigm that allows the generation of not only knowledge but also allows the supervisor to anticipate and project themselves in a transcendent order.

**General Conclusions**

After approaching the type of education and learning that the research work of a doctoral thesis develops in the PhD student and the supervisor/companion, we reached the following conclusions:

1) The desire to undertake tertiary education and a doctoral thesis, has a motivation that is linked to the personal life moment of the student, as well as to their professional development. Sometimes there is no awareness of the effect that the moment can have in the election of subject and the chosen research methodology, and even in the development of the research process, and the production of specific scientific knowledge.

2) It is fundamental that the supervisor/companion of the thesis has the sensitivity and the capacity to catch the centre of interest of the student, and in addition can accompany them in the research process, so that they are able to equip them with the necessary methodological and research resources, in order that they can create and construct an original and novel scientific knowledge, where that is recognised.

3) It is necessary that both the student and the supervisor are conscious that the development of a thesis implicitly takes a part of themselves, and
an identity reconstruction, that will entail efforts more or less according to the depth of the need to extract the change, the availability of involvement of the supervisor and their know-how.

4) The student, according to their learning needs, their chosen research subject, their know-how, their availability and involvement, will assign themselves to one research methodology or another, which will lead to a certain scientific production.

5) In research of an autobiographical nature, there is a great involvement both on the part of the PhD student and on that of the supervisor that accompanies them. It is fundamental that the supervisor has undergone that process to be able to accompany a student to investigate in that supervision. The level of involvement is so strong that it can sometimes get out of hand, through the complexity entailed in the mutual destructuring/restructuring of the whole personality. A supervisor can refuse the involvement and commitment that it demands of them, not only scientific and intellectual, but emotional, existential, clinical, educational, therapeutic, etc. In the case that they assume it, it is extremely slow and costly, but it generates deep learning of a different character, and an important identity transformation.

6) Some of the learning of an existential nature that these introspective, experiential methodologies develop is: self-knowledge, existential, of taking awareness of whom we are and how we are modelled as people and social actors. Emotional and clinical/therapeutic learning, because we become conscious of the facts that have marked our lives, of the feelings that accompany them, and of what it means to relive them, rationalise them, understand them, assimilate them, integrate them and to heal us. Relational learning, that allows us to discover ourselves as social actors. Scientific learning where writing plays an important role of narration of stories, theorisation and construction of speech and scientific knowledge.

7) Normally, few students choose this involved and complex research modality of existential transformation, the majority usually choose less complex methodologies, even when those entail a certain level of involvement. However, from the various perspectives, the research of a thesis develops a series of general knowledge, such as:

- Development of knowledge and cognitive abilities such as: capacity to search for information, reading, understanding, interpretation, analysis, selection, extraction of ideas, summaries, synthesis, relation, comparison, contrasting, organisation of the discourse, creation and elaboration of scientific writing, etc.

- Development of knowledge and research abilities: learning how to design and to develop a research project around a certain problem, using one or several research methodologies following all and each one of its steps, rigorously, sequentially, exhaustively and creatively.

- Learn how to manage research resources and procedures, to collect and analyse data, as well as to develop a research report through which it is possible to communicate and defend this research and its results.
– Contact is made with the scientific community with subsequent incorporation into it, through its diverse forums of meetings and communication: congresses, workshops, symposia, specialised scientific journals, books, etc.
– Specialised and professional knowledge is created. New knowledge discovered and created, new fields are opened in research, information, education and intervention, that can lead the student to important promotions, changes, transformations and professional development.
– The research process as a whole, allows the unfolding of new personal, cognitive, scientific, professional, social, cultural and emotional dimensions and of their reconstruction, that help PhD students to have greater consistency and confidence in themselves, and in their professional and scientific positions.

These, would be, among others, some of the conclusions that come from the perspectives of education of university students, who decide to follow tertiary education studies and to produce a thesis.

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**DEVELOPMENT OF DOCTORAL RESEARCH**


ROUND TABLE 2: LANGUAGE, ACTIVITY, IDENTITY AND EXPERIENCES IN LEARNING FOR ADULTS
Isabelle Vinatier & Antonietta Specogna

Introduction

Our round table proposal deals with the importance to analyse the language articulated with a theory of activity to understand working situations implying verbal exchanges. Through the analysis of the verbalised language by the various actors of the working relationship, more precisely in advising situations between an experimented adult and someone who is less, the round table participants will try to answer the following questions:

– How the identity of the actors is expressed in what is exchanged?
– What are the theoretical and methodological tools to recognize the identity manifestation?
– What does the novice learn and build through the accompanied situations?

A theory of activity is necessary to understand the language role in the centre of the activity, whereas it is verbalised in situation or regarding the action. Considering both of these entries, to understand the working situations, to analyse and to model these ones, it is necessary on the one hand to be positioned regarding the activity theoretical fields and on the other hand the language theoretical fields. This double approach, language and activity, brings a pragmatic focus on the functioning of interactions in professional situations (in reference of the domains in Psychology and Education sciences). Our aim is to show that during a dialogue, the language analysis allows to approach a mind-language relation, the processes in the mind development, the intersubjective relationships, and more generally the context and the activities in working situations, the organisations at work. This double entry allows also characterizing behaviours and reasoning taking part in working situations based on their realisation in conversation. It challenges after all renewing questionings of the professional learning and the collaboration in a working situation.

During this round table, several working situations using the language will be proposed to highlight the comprehension of the pair language-activity. The situations presented will be learning situations and training situations. We will use these situations to show what is build, what is learnt through the relations and in a more detailed perspective through the advising relationship. The several situations used and analysed are real working situations from the French educational system.
Introduction

Through the analysis of verbalised language in various situations we pay particular attention to the tools which could be used to recognize the identity manifestation of discursive strategy used by actors. The second question addressed in this round table is: *What are the theoretical and methodological tools for recognizing the identity manifestation?* Our presentation insists on pragmatic, theoretical and methodological tools to better describe the cognitive logic underlying the process of discourse. We focus on very small phenomena: the use of hesitation markers such as “euh/hmm”, often accompanied by verbal pauses, pronominal use of “je/I” or recourse to connectives such as “bon/well” so as to reflect on the expressive markers in language. Underlying the expressive markers lays an implicit response to the first question addressed to this round table: *How is the identity of the actors expressed in what is exchanged?* Our situations illustrate novice learners in interaction with experts or adult interlocutors.

Theoretical frame

In literature the researchers’ ability to follow discursive strategy recognizes the major role of expressive markers, modalities, phrases and pronouns as indicators of place markers (in French: the “taxèmes” as they are called) by Kerbrat Orecchioni), and connective conjunctions (not only the specific argumentative ones like ‘mais/but) to guide the orientation of discourse. But to explore the role of these markers, a comparison between several interactive situations is necessary. To study the specific role of such linguistic markers we agree with the general interpretation of enunciation as Gumperz, for example, explains it.

“Tout énoncé peut être compris de multiples façons et nous décidons de l’interprétation à donner à partir de la définition de ce qui se passe au moment de l’interaction. En d’autres termes, les locuteurs définissent l’interaction en termes de cadre ou de schéma identifiable et familier (Goffman, 1974). [...] ...l’ordonnancement des éléments du message, qui représente les attentes des locuteurs à l’égard de ce qui va suivre,
n’est pas une structure statique, mais un processus dynamique qui se modifie à mesure que les participants interagissent." (J. Gumperz, Engager la conversation, Ed. Minuit, 1989, pp. 27-28.)"

There is never a static structure underlying an enunciation. All speech process is always dynamic. The logic of the dynamics underlying and permeating the deployment of speech acts is particularly studied in the Nancy laboratory under the direction of Alain Trognon (see Trognon & Batt, for more recent description of the model). Those researchers explain very well that it is a mistake to decompose speech act in several parts such as cognitive, emotive, social and affective. These different facets are arranged in any speech act. And the manner which they are originally arranged, in each context, represents the identity manifestation. Human exists through speech without clear conscience. Otherwise, what aim is droved speech’s act?

This pragmatic perspective relies on the possibility of describing the dynamic and the functional role of each element contained in discourse. The analysis of corpus data always invites us to consider conversation could not be previous (Trognon, Brassac, 1992, Ghiglione, Trognon, 1993), because the inferential process of inter comprehension (Sperber, Wilson, 1986) and the referential according (Charolles, 1987, 1988, 1992) are present in the logic discursive objects chain (Grize, 1976, 1990), chain as like the way a bicycle works. The discursive coherence is captured in the phenomena of contextualization (Gumperz, 1982, 1989, Brixhe, 1993).

The role of linguistic markers as good indicators for following a successful cognition progress: analyses of corpus data

Through the several phenomena (relevant from semantic, lexical, syntactical or sometimes nonverbal markers) which participate in arranging the dynamics of speech, the confrontation with different cases of verbal situation invite us to study small markers (the very small word, as Ducrot says, 1981). These studies lead us to extract and repair the contextual conditions of efficacy of those markers in the speech act process (see Auriac, 2007).

Three situations are used. The first (we present) is philosophical dialogues. In this situation, teachers and pupils converse about human topics such as: secrets, shame, the difference between humans and animals, or the best conditions for improving happiness for example.

First example: Philosophical Dialogue, because in this situation, mental activity occurs as a background to verbal activity, it is a situation particularly marked by the typical use of “euh” “euh” “euh”, as efficacy and positive hesitation. The principal speech action proceeds from the mental activity of representation underlying any process of discourse. The mental compulsion to give a good and well adjusted mental representation of the world brings about a necessary generation of ideas, which involves linguistic strategies such as lexical reformulation or the use of syntactical phrases. But in fact, a mere lexical or syntax analysis could not explain the real subjective verbal or discursive strategies. The subjective strategies often stay in the use of very small markers, through hesitation, more than lexical word.
Corpus data
Corpus situation n°4

E1: pour pour l’extérieur c’est c’qui y a dehors et l’intérieur c’est c’qui y a dedans
E2: ben en fait extérieur c’est euh c’est par exemple où euh où y a où y a de l’herbe des arbres c’est un jardin euh à l’intérieur c’est là où on peut dormir euh manger
M1: ouais
E3: mais en fait euh l’extérieur c’est dehors où y a d’l’herbe mais alors que l’intérieur c’est dedans où y a euh euh comment dire où on peut dormir enfin où y a la salle à manger
E4: ah é l’ext l’extérieur c’est euh ce euh qui a comme un jardin l’exté l’extérieur et puis y’en a une un dans la maison c’est l’intérieur
E5: el: c’est par exemple dans une pêche l’extérieur c’est la peau et l’intérieur c’est là où y a l’pépin
E6: euh l’extérieur ça on peut euh rouler euh avec une voiture euh s’promener euh on peut s’amuser on peut courir on peut tout faire et à l’intérieur c’est hum euh //on peut s’reposer là comme on peut dire … et puis euh

M2: (...) est-ce que vous êtes tout à fait d’accord est-ce qu’il y a bien un intérieur et un extérieur dans une pêche ou est-ce que c’est juste comme vous l’dîtes une maison un jardin euh… qu’est-ce que vous … qu’est-ce qu’on peut en dire//
E7: j’crois pas dans la pêche y a pas d’extérieur
M3: alors tu crois qu’elle est inaudible chez elle ... Céline non François Marine
E8: si si y a de l’extérieur parce que euh dans la pêche y a le euh c’est un c’est truc qu’on mange même la peau on peut la manger et l’extérieur euh l’extérieur si y a en un parce que euh quoi y a un intérieur et un extérieur normalement y a bien un extérieur

Extract from Auriac-Peyronnet (2004). In R. Pallascio. Pensée réflexive Les habilités (ou compétences) argumentatives

A pragmatic study of the specific place where markers “euh” appear (see the structure of the extract) in the discourse process shows a dialogic movement ‘against the grain’ which is specific to a dynamic thought in progress. The use of euh indicates that the reason is in progress. The justification is not finished or successfully completed. The pupil thinks and doubts. The process is marked by the use of euh. Usually euh is indicative of hesitation, and because of this fact euh is not considered as a principal marker compared with the connective “but” for example. Nevertheless the subjective mental change of direction is marked with this small euh.
Second example: Cooperative learning situation

The typical case of the use of pronouns with children with minor disorders described (see Auriac-Peyronnet, 2003) the fragility of those children’s identity. In our extract from the corpus, children with minor cognitive/behavioural disorders are talking about the right order of narrative pictures. They had to decide on the right possibility for choosing which picture is the first, the second, the third and so on to build a logical story. The situation is a cooperative learning workshop in which the teacher expects cognitive progress. But the whole interaction (videotaped and transcribed) shows she is invaded by expressive pronouns “je/l’” or “moi je/l me”. This is very clear in comparison with children without disorders who managed the same cooperative situation. Children with disabilities do not talk about the topic of the story, but take into account their own position in this collaborative situation. Those children progress in discourse according an excessive importance to the place’s rapports. The turn talking of Sa4 is characteristic: “I am the first!” Just after the second girl says “CH9: I am the second”. It’s clear that the pictures are replaced by the real Childs! The explanation for the reason underlying the choice of order for the pictures is absent. Only implicit logic is marked and represents the existential place’s rapports.

Corpus Data

| Ch1: | moi je peux pas l’attraper (patafix) |
| Sa lui fait passer la patafix |
| Ch2: | merci |
| So1: | rire et pour que je colle aîe |
| Elles collent |
| Ch3: | tic alors… voilà hic |
| Sa1: | ben toi pas b’soin d’copier hein (dir Ch) |
| Ch4: | eh comment on la met? (dir Expé) |
| So2: | ben on la colle |
| Ch et Sa regardent l’expé |
| Ch5: | on la met on la met à l’endroit? (dir Expé) |
| So3: | non non chacun (colle inaudible) la l’histoire là là là (montre la feuille centrale sur la table) |
| Ch6: | non (face expé) non n’importe |
| Sa2: | allez |
| So4: | non l’histoire raconte moi faut d’ l’histoire de l’histoire |
| Les trois feuilles ne rentrent pas sur la feuille centrale matériel trop étroit |
| Sa3: | oui mais chacun la colle là (montre l’autre feuille sur la table) |
| So 5: | oui toi aussi …faut que je la colle au milieu |
| Expé: | il faut mettre la grande histoire dans l’ordre maintenant |
| Ch7: | attend |
| **Sa4:** | j’crois bien que je suis la 1ère moi (mains sur la tête) oui faut mettre comme ça |
Elle tourne sa feuille entête pêche bêche pour l’avoir face à elle
SA en 1, Ch en 2 et SO en 3
Ch8: oui
So6: ah ouais (en jetant un léger coup d’œil sur le bout d’histoire de Sa qui contient 6 images qu’elle ne connaît pas)
**Ch9: 2ème ben j’suis la 2ème (?)**
So7: ah ben voilà (satisfaction manifestée bras sur les hanches sourire)
**Sa5: oui ben ya pas qu’ toi**
Ch10: eh ben attends (elle soulève sa feuille)
**Sa6: So tu es la deuxième je te** (signale? inaudible)
**Ch11: tu t’mets là toi** (dir So)
Elles collent, recollent, placent les feuilles pour arriver à la disposition suivante:
SA en 1, SO en 2 et CH en 3
(...)
So14: ben si
Ch18: c’est à qui ça?
So15: c’est à Sa
Ch19: çlui là
So16: c’est à moi
**Ch se concentre sur les images, debout**
Ch20: et moi j’suis là!
So17: alors
Ch21: la tienne c’est laquelle
So18: celle-là là
Ch22: moi c’est là
**Expé: Vous avez terminé**
So19,Sa,Ch23: oui (en chœur)
So12: toi c’est pareil que moi regarde


**Third example: a-symmetric relations in dialogue (the typical case of ‘bon’/’well’)**

The studies of a-symmetric dialogue between expert age’s pupil and children of a less expert age demonstrate the better proportion of the use of the marker ‘bon’ in favour of older pupils. The relationship between the interlocutors is marked to the domination of one over another. It’s the classical theoretical framework of the description of ‘taxèmes’ as defined by Catherine Orrecchioni. The situation we studied shows that this domination leads to engaging the cognitive process in a necessary recursive process which integrates the world representation in course the representation of the world at that time?
The theoretical schema built in our doctoral studies PhD studies was the following:

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Etape 1: constat d'objet</th>
<th>Etape 2: circuit d’inférence plausible</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>objet émergent</td>
<td>“anaphore associative”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Etape 3: projection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>objet re-présenté</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>objet reconstruit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

La voix de A

La voix de B
```

Corpus data (Doctoral studies, Auriac-Peyronnet, 1995)

**Extrait: protocole d’enfants de 9 ans (essai 1):**

(D, 9): - ben un bonhomme qui court hum c’est un chien c’truc ? **bon** un chien qui joue au ballon

The verbal reasoning during working situations drives always inter-subjective relationships. It’s in fact the major reason for the appearance of such markers as ‘bon’. But in spite of this first evident fact, the specificity of a-symmetric situation reveals the functioning of a normal speech process. Speech acts drive the possibility to delimit constantly boundaries between actors. Language is a co-operative activity. But the co-operation doesn’t act in a global context but introduces specific ways to engage conversation, discussion or dialogue. The specific study of ‘bon’ easily demonstrates that the domination process leads one of the subjects to take a decision, to choose a new topic, to choose a new direction or hypothesis, to reject another one and so on. During a dialogue, the inter-subjective relationship constrains the the development of thought processes.

**The repercussion on training adults**

Generally adults neglect the possibility of studying small phenomena. Language is often studied as a broad field. Fewer researchers give sufficient importance to small phenomena such as the use of ‘euh’. The French researcher Ducrot
maintains that small words are very good indicators for studying argumentative strategies. But the description of the argumentative field is always conducted in relation to terms of argument (or counter argument) as if the mental world could be always structured with large categories. The teacher development could be involved by concentrating on studies about these small phenomena. An excellent study concerning medical field demonstrates the links between verbal dialogue and characteristic repetition of action: the script: the expression of ‘bon’ accompanied an action °1, and afterwards, a second expression of sole ‘bon’ accompanied an action n°2, and an other expression of ‘bon’ accompanied an action n°3, etc., and so one (Saint-Pierre & al., 987, Saint-Pierre, & Vadnais, M., 1992) explains that sometimes the sole language activity lies in the links between activity and langue. In professional situations, teachers are not aware of the specific role of small markers.

Illustration n°1: Evidence of the specific and functional structure of the pronoun system

Language conveys values and these values demonstrate relationships fixed under the face and place rapports. Adults often minimise the role of language as major consequence of their pedagogical acts. They cannot observe and thus analyse the logic of cognitive but affective and relational activity underlying the use of language. Language is a complete world that conveys the complexity of the real world. The functioning of interaction is not a miracle: it is the result of many cultural strategies repeated in first phylo- and then onto-genetic history as the Russian linguist Lev Vygotski says. Rather than exploring the possibility of pedagogical global disposition, focussing on the context in which the sole functional use of ‘je’/‘tu’ and ‘on’ in a short could be decisive in exploring the possibility of demonstrating the logical characteristic of all type of interaction.

Corpus data

Structuration de l’épisode 193-226 de façon hiérarchique et fonctionnelle

- 193 M: on va aller à sa place on va lire ensemble ceux qui l’ont trouvé chut! On redonne l’indice:
  * 193 bis M: ça c’est le son
  * 194 EE: [u]
- 195: M: Agathe nous a dit que ça c’était
  * 196 EE: [u]
- 197 M: et vous m’avez dit que c’était le gros...
  * 198 EE: (en chœur) bidon
    • 199 M: alors si on lit ça (montre bou)
    • 200 BB: [bu]
    • 201 M montre le s qui suit
    • 202 E: [bus]
    • 203 M: en montrant bou [buss]
    • 204 M: montre le C
205 EE: [k]
206 M: (montrant alternativement C et U): [k] et [u]
207 EE: [ku]
208 M: [bus/ku]
209 EE: [la]
210 EE: bouscula

* 211 M: qu’est-ce que ça veut dire ça?
  212 Sébastien: ça veut dire qu’on on pousse
  213 M: ça veut dire qu’on pousse
  214 Sébastien: alors il a poussé le loup (l’élève mime la scène)
  215 M: ah tu crois que
  216 Brouhaha
  217 M: chut
  218 M: ce serait Samson qui aurait bousculé le loup?
  219 EE (inaudible, brouhaha)
      220 E: oui
      221 E: non
      222 E: j’ai trouvé

  223 E: non parce que j’ai vu ce qui avait d’écrit...
      224 M: Ah mais toi tu as tout lu
      225 EE (Brouhaha, inaudible)
      226 M: Bon y en a qui cherchent les mots d’après pour en savoir plus... Bon alors on y va on cherche

Extract from Auriac (soumis). «Gnia gnia gnia gnia enfin y a pas de peur a les avoir regroupés autour du tableau»: regard psychosocial sur une séquence d’enseignement de la lecture au cours préparatoire, Travail Eduction & Fomation, 2008)

In this classroom lesson the teacher naturally uses the pronouns ‘on’, ‘nous’, ‘vous’ and ‘tu’ to mark logical boundaries in the progress of the lesson. The class’s symbolic collective mind is marked by the use of ‘on’, the real class by the addressed being marked as ‘vous’ (197: You told me that...), and the process engaged on with a pupil through the personal addresses ‘tu/You’. It’s not magic. It’s a very coherent structure. Language functions with emotional markers, relational markers of a sole occurrence are a good way to explain this fact. As Roulet says, learners know more than teachers. It seems that we have to teach teachers the specific logical functioning of verbal interaction. Because the learners learn to use the most economical behaviour just to give pleasure to the teacher, they don’t progress in cognitive abilities to better manage language.

Illustration n°2: Evidence of cognitive bifurcation in a short extract from a conversation between 4th grade pupils

Our final illustration consist in showing that it’s very easy to consider the change of direction brought about the use of small markers (as illustrated in
the following table). A simple representation like the following is a good way to demonstrate the cognitive logic underlying the language processes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Catégorie Type</th>
<th>ACCORD</th>
<th>HÉSITATION</th>
<th>DÉSACCORD</th>
<th>DÉCISION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marqueur phare</td>
<td>OUI</td>
<td>BEN BOF EUH</td>
<td>NON</td>
<td>ALORS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. The change of orientation of the Thought.


In comparison, a topic centralization (often the dominant semantic presentation of process in language) invites us to sub determine the role of specific logical markers, as presented in the following table n°2. The linear presentation reproduces the linearization of the speech act process and loses the possibility of understanding the logical cognitive process underlying the discourse. Discourse is a very complex structure and it’s the reason why a surface coherence hides this complexity human’s reflexivity. Humans grant importance to dominant topics but the speech process lies in the logical connexion between different topics which is often moved away from in discourse process.

Table n°2: Classical répartition of markers
Conclusion

Language is an activity often described as a semantic system. Talking is necessary to exchange information between partners. In our pragmatic perspective the language activity drives other fundamental logical characteristics. Language is first a human activity in which the subject is highly involved. The relationships between humans exceed the speech act process. This involvement is not apparent in the choice of vocabulary, the choice of syntax or the choice of cognitive strategy. As Roulet says, learners have abilities, more than researchers, to implicitly recognize this fact (Roulet, 1999). The identity of actors appears explicitly in the logical structure of speech, through small indicators which are always present. Considering these small indicators to be important is a way, amongst others, to incite not only researchers but also professionals to study their own involvement in verbal activity. Professionals as all human are engage in natural human relationships better. But the global representation that language is unconsciously learned until the age of five or six makes us forget or neglect the power of language activity in generating the logical consequences of speech.

References


46. **Activity Analysis Through Language**  
Antonietta SPECOGNA

My objective in this presentation is to introduce you to how we analyse a work situation through what people say when they are working or when they are speaking about their work. My intention is to explain the theoretical and the methodological context of an analysis using an example of a specific research “La relation entretien-conseil dans la formation des enseignants” (The relation interview-consultancy in teacher training). This research is a PNE\(^1\) contract for 3 years (2006-2009).

**Research context**

We have observed young teachers who are in the last year of their vocational training or in their first practice year (Newly qualified teacher; NQT). We have chosen to observe them while they are working in their classroom with their pupils, and after the work when they are in the consultancy situation with an adviser. Doing so, we expect to approach the nature of the consultancy relation and to identify what kind of relation there is between an experienced adult and someone who is less.

Our research is a qualitative research. We have chosen to visit 5 young teachers and 5 teachers in their first year of practice twice; at the beginning and at the end of the school year. The most important for us is to have the possibility to see if the consultancy situation is always the same when the adviser is a PEMF\(^2\) or a PIUFM\(^3\) or a CPC\(^4\).

In the French educational system, different persons visit teachers. PEMF and PIUFM are visiting young teachers during their vocational training and PEMF and CPC are visiting teachers in their first practice year. PEMF and PIUFM are usually working in teacher training institution and CPC are usually working in school districts. We have chosen different advisers, so that we can see if their statute has an interference with their consulting practice.

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1. PNE: Pôle Nord Est, the objective is to work with the other IUFM from the Est of France (Institut Universitaire dans la formation des Maîtres). For this research, the participants are IUFM de Lorraine & IUFM de Bourgogne. This research is directed by Antonietta SPECOGNA and the other colleagues are Denis LOIZON, Laure RIPORTELLA, Manuel RODRIGUES-MARTINS & Antoine ZAPATA.
2. PEMF: Professeur des Ecoles Maître Formateur; first degree teacher who has passed a diploma to become adult trainer, Advanced skills teacher (AST)
3. PIUFM Professeur Institut Universitaire dans la Formation des Maîtres; professor who has to train future teachers; Education Professor of the Universities
4. CPC Conseiller Pédagogique de Circonscription, Adviser who is working in a school district.
For further information, we have also provided a questionnaire for diverse appointed advisers and for the two types of teachers. We have received 50 answers (15 CPC, 21 PEMF, 14 PIUFM) from advisors, 18 teachers in training and 18 teachers in their first year of practice. Our intention with this questionnaire was to complete our results and to receive more information to back up our hypothesis. If we are sure that a CPC has got a practice of work different than a PIUFM and if we can explain why through what they say, we still don’t know their representation about their own role. Doing like this, we have declarative information about what and how they are thinking their role.

To illustrate my proposition I have chosen a sequence with a teacher in his first practice year and the corresponding consultancy situation.

**Sequence “teacher and pupils about a specific situation”**

In this sequence, we can see a young teacher with her pupils who are 3 years old and in their first school year. She works on the basis of photographs of the pupils taken when the Carnival was celebrated at the school.

She is beginning like that: (T) teacher and (P) pupil

- T1: We will start by looking at them, you will say what we see. I will put them a little bit everywhere on the table
- T2: We will speak each one his turn and you will say what we see
- T3: So Serena, what do we see on these photographs?
- P4: that’s me
- T5: That’s you and what do you do?
- P6: I smile
- T7: You smile and why do you smile

We can identify micro tasks:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What does the teacher do?</th>
<th>What does the pupil do?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) it has the photographs in a random way</td>
<td>a) they observe what the T is doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) she asks pupils each one its turn to describe the photographs</td>
<td>b) Serena describes the photograph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) she asks Serena to describe a photograph</td>
<td>c) she describes precisely what she does (...)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) she helps her to see and to comment what they have done (...)</td>
<td>d) they let T organizing the time which passes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) she wants them to be able to remember the period to which the photographs refer to</td>
<td>e) with T help, they find the good word for the photograph period</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We tasks: Prepare photograph – State an instruction – Question the pupils – Choose a pupil – Reformulate the instruction …

Pupil tasks: Observe T – Describe a photograph – Recognize themselves- Recognize situation – Recognize a period - Use specific words …
The consultancy interview

A: advisor  T: teacher
A: what did you want exactly? What was your main objective?
T: it was “uh…”, well an objective of discover the world, about the time so
“uh…” to allow them to construct a representation about their morning
at school (…)
A: mnh
T: and so “uh…”
A: what did you ask them as task, the first task you were waiting for?
T: simply to see and then to comment
A: here then were we in discover the world there?
T: no we were in the language

More generally, the adviser asks questions about the teacher’s work and
the teacher answers to these questions. We propose the analysis of this
extract below.

Methodological and theoretical aspects

During all the research, our theoretical perspectives are multirefered. We are
referring to the theory of the activity, the conversational analysis, the didactic
and the socio-psychoanalysis. For this presentation I will only use the theory of
the activity and the conversational analysis.

For instance, to deal with the first moment of the teacher’s practice sequence
(cf.1.1) I have applied a kind of ergonomic analysis. Like that we can propose a
script of the sequence and we can observe in how many tries the sequence is
composed. We do the same for the consultancy interview. We think that in this
way, we can approach the logical reasoning of the subject, because we can see
step by step how they think their work.

«L’enseignant (...), comme tout professionnel, n’est pas seul maître ni
de ses buts ni de ses moyens; il agit dans une situation qui comporte
son propre système de contraintes et de ressources; il a une tâche à
accomplir (ou un ensemble de tâches, ou plus largement une mission)
qui le lie à un prescripteur (son employeur, sa hiérarchie) par un contrat
partiellement implicite.» (Rogalski 2003p6)

After that analysis, we raised the part of the consultancy sequence related to
the practice. At this moment and using a conversational theory, we identify the
construction of the conversational development between the adviser and the
young teacher. To do that we have used an interlocutory analysis (Research in the
Psychology Nancy Laboratory, particularly in the Communication Research Group
directed by Alain Trognon; Trognon & Brassac 1992, Trognon & Kostulski 1996,
Trognon & Batt 2006; cf. Auriac description) using architectural conversation
(Roulet & al 1985, Roulet 1997) mixed to a conversational analysis and more
precisely to C. Kerbrat-Orecchioni (1992) with high position and low position
(cf. below) to give a coloration to the work relation between two interlocutors.

The architectural conversation gives us elements to show how the relations
are structured between the interlocutors during the exchange.
We integrate our research in a work analysis perspective. We retain that the teaching activity is a complex activity, which is organized and dynamic. Taking into consideration this activity, advising, which seems to be simpler, must consider this complexity and this dynamic movement. To understand this we need a theoretical input, which can take it into account. For these reasons we choose to analyse the activity with a professional didactic perspective (Pastré 1992; Vergnaud 2000) and we keep in mind the most important for us: the scheme concept. Like that we can understand which significance the subject gives to its activity through choices, which it carries out. We can also quote another postulate: relation interview –consultancy is a co-activity in a structural meaning. In fact as Pastré expressed it (1997) for the teacher activity, here we have two persons embarked on the comprehension of the same activity: understand teacher activity to include the choices of the teacher allowing the pupils to build their apprenticeship. So we don’t look the interaction as a mutual comprehension but as a co-activity of comprehension.

Our hypothesis is that if we mix the work analysis with a conversational analysis, we can reveal how the reasoning will be constructed in the mind of the subject and we can indicate their work strategy and the effect of their strategy on the relation between the conversational partners and so, in the professional identity construction (Vinatier 2007).

**Analysis**

**Conversational analysis**

For the first sequence, we have observed the construction of the exchanges. In our situation, we can see that all the questions are expressed by the adviser and all the answers by the teacher. We can think that it’s an acceptable possibility because the adviser wants to find out about the teacher choice. But if we observe more attentively ...

“A1: what did you want exactly? What was your main objective? T2: it was “uh…”, well an **objective of discover the world**, about the time so “uh…” to allow them to construct a representation about their morning at school (...) “
The first question of the adviser can be qualified as an information question. And we have an answer of the question in T2 when the teacher says, “objective of discover the world”. The exchange could have been ended there but the adviser used “mmh”. Thus the teacher can understand that the adviser he is waiting for more information.

“A3: mmh
T4: and so “uh…”

And so the teacher tries to explain. But she is probably disturbed because she doesn’t know or understand the adviser attempt. In fact we can advance that they aren’t so clear. We can only understand what the adviser is thinking about with the rest of the conversation.

“A5: what did you ask them as task, the first task you were waiting for?”

When he asks this question he doesn’t wait for any information, but he wants to put the teacher in a kind of reflexive analysis because he asks her to see effectively the work. “what did you ask them as task”, “the first task you were waiting for?”. Asking the teacher with this formulation to have a reflexive view of her practice, he obtains an answer completed by a real action “see and comment”.

“T6: simply to see and then to comment”

And, in this moment he can confront the first answer with the one of T6 and so he can asks her:

“A7: here then were we in discover the world there?”

And he can obtain the awaited answer by the adviser:

“T8: no we were in the language”

Thus, the objective “discover the world” was replaced by a language objective. Both of them are two objectives among the most important ones in teacher’s work for the pupils in nursery school. A French programme awaits them both.

We can obtain this information because we have analysed interactions with a specific theory and methodology.

Moreover, the architectural conversation can help us to understand how the components of the conversation are related.

1st figure: architectural analysis
We can build this architectural analysis because in our conversational analysis we observed the propositional contents and the effect on the interlocutor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conversational reasoning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>TP</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2nd figure: conversational analysis

There are two more interesting moments in this interaction. The first one is in A3-T4 when the adviser uses the word “mmh” to show that he wants something else than the answer provided in T2 and the effect of this in T4 when the teacher was in a difficult situation because she doesn’t give a signification for A3. The second one is in A5 when the adviser has a reaction about the teacher difficulty. At this moment, the adviser uses a strategy to help the teacher to be able to analyse her practice but in the same time he doesn’t agree with her answer and he wasn’t obliged to declare explicitly that he didn’t agree with her.

In fact, when two persons are conversing, they are not always completely explicit because like this, they can be able to adjust their statements through the partner reaction. When we analyse conversation, we try to perceive the hidden significance of words. According to us, when people speak in the same time they are using two conversations levels. For the first level, we have used the semantics and the event refers within the meaning of the statement, and for the second one we have used the pragmatic and the event refer to the speaker.
Both of them are composed of two other levels: literal acts and conventional indirect acts for the semantic level and contextual acts and “implicature”\(^5\) for pragmatic (Specogna 1998).

**Work analysis**

What do we obtain if we are looking once again at the sequence with another input such as the work analysis? To do that, we join some parts of the previous analysis to see what is shared between the adviser and the teacher. We are doing that with two inputs; a language input and its result on the practice input.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TP</th>
<th>Illocutionary</th>
<th>Conversational reasoning</th>
<th>Advisor</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Common ground</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>Ask 2 information</td>
<td>what did you want = ? what was your main objective = ?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>Give an answer to A1</td>
<td>what did I want &amp; what was my main objective = discover the world</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A can ask question T can answer question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>Ask a continuation in the T2 explanation</td>
<td>what did I want &amp; what was my main objective = discover the world; as to be explain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A can ask T to explain more the answer given before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T4</td>
<td>Perturbation indication</td>
<td>I don’t know what I have to explain because according to me I gave the right answer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A can evaluate T answers A can ask T to explain more her answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>Ask 2 other information Ask for an other information to help the teacher Ask for an information because A disagree with the first answer</td>
<td>what did you ask them = ? the first task to do for the pupils = ?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A can assist T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T6</td>
<td>Answer A5</td>
<td>I asked them to, the first task I asked them was = to see and to comment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>T accepts A help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>Ask a confrontation between what she declares and what she does</td>
<td>Is to see and to comment an objective of discover the world?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A adduces to install T in a confrontation with what she declared before A thought/hoped that T can be able to look at her practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T8</td>
<td>Answer A7</td>
<td>To see and to comment is not an objective of discover the world but is a language objective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>T accepts A’s attitude (A7) A is able to evaluate the practice T is able to look at her practice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3rd figure: conversational & work analysis

\(^5\) Implicature: it refers to the contents communicated indirectly in communication cf. Grice.
To analyse what is shared between these two interlocutors, we have to observe what they say and so we can analyse how the conversation is connected step by step.

If we refer to K. Orrecchioni, we can give a value to the relationship between A & T. To do that we look the speech form of the acts used by all the protagonists. With this in prospect, we want to know if the language form they use is in high position or in low position.

We are in a high position if A compared to B achieves an act potentially threatening for the “territory” or the “face” of B (command, prohibition, authorization, consulting, critical, reproach, refutation, mockery, insult for instance).

We are in a low position if according to the previous definition given, A is put or puts himself in low position when it undergoes such an act (cf description above) or that it produces some act threatening for its own face (excuses, consent, self-criticism, retraction...).

In this situation we can say that A is in a high position because he is alone to ask commands, to make critics and reproaches to T’s work. And T is in a low position because she is always in a consent attitude with what the adviser expresses.

We can observe too what they are thinking about their rights on the other. Observing conversation step by step and specially observing the common ground that is created between the two actors, we can say what the adviser believes about his rights and so about himself, and what the teacher believes about her abilities and so about herself.

Through this example we can say that the adviser is authorised to ask questions to T, to evaluate T’s practice and T’s choices, to give help to T and to install T in a reflexive attitude.

And we can say that the teacher is authorised or she authorises herself to answer the adviser question, to accept help by the adviser, to look at her practice with another access.

We make this analysis because we let us take language information and effect on their practice.

Research results and link with the identity of the actors

The adviser’s role is to train teacher on their work by helping them to develop their professional competences.

In all our researches we always have observed the following type of relation between any adviser and any teacher. For example, we can see in all our transcriptions that at the beginning the teacher takes up the place in the discussion and progressively he leaves this place and at the end the adviser makes a quasi monologue.

What we can say about their identity?

The teacher believes that the adviser is the specialist in this domain and probably the adviser thinks the same.

The teacher is the beginner in this domain, is a tester of practices and probably he thinks he is like that.
The advisers adopt dominant attitudes: investigation, evaluation and decision. The teachers adopt dominant attitudes like excuses, consent, self-criticism and retraction.

Taking into consideration these results we can say that the relation interview-consultancy is a hierarchical and a disymmetric relation.

Regularly we can observe variations in the adviser’s reasoning and teacher’s reasoning. But both of them don’t see that the problem is a variation in practice, or in beliefs/representations, or in the appreciation of the work. In our example there is a variation between how to implement an objective “discover the world”.

**Conclusion**

Analysing the work through language allows us to qualify the work relation between the actors, to approach their reasoning, to identify some difficulties, some variations, effects on the professional identity of the actors …

So, from here, our research is more interesting for teacher training but for adviser training too. In fact, since the dissemination of our first results, we are solicited for much training in this domain.

**Bibliography**


47. Tracing the Development of an Advisor’s Experience-Based Learning through the Analysis of Transcripts of Advisory Discussions with Student Teachers at the Primary School Level

Isabelle Vinatier

Summary

The educational advisor’s role is to advise student teachers through discussions held after making comments on his/her directions of a class. In France, this training occurs only during post-lesson discussions. Assuming responsibility for the student teacher, the advisor’s task is to guide him/her and assist the novice in acquiring practical knowledge and creating a professional identity.

We conducted this study with a primary school educational advisor who had been in his current position for only two years, after 18 years of teaching. Professionally involved with the student teacher’s training, he sought a better understanding of his role with the collaboration of the researcher (as a university supervisor).

The interactions between the two interlocutors (the advisor and the student teacher) involved issues, aims and goals, and self-images that reconfigured the direction the student teacher would later take with his/her class. They also reveal each speaker’s personal concerns.

Our work focuses on understanding the educational advisor’s activity, based on a collaborative analysis by the advisor and the researcher, of transcripts of the advisory interviews and discussions. The researcher also conducted interviews with the advisor, before submitting her interpretation to him. The researcher’s questioning encouraged the advisor to argue his case. We have developed a qualitative analysis of three advisory discussions involving the same advisor with three different student teachers. The analysis is theoretically supported by:

- A theory of human activity that asserts that any professional develops knowledge in and through action (G. Vergnaud, 1989).
- A linguistic theory that allows for all intersubjective interests inherent in dialogues (C. Kerbrat-Orecchioni, 2005).

Despite the variables – different class levels observed, different lesson plans, and different specific concerns for each student teacher, our comparison of the three discussions demonstrates that the advisor activates consistent structures in the advisory mode at different levels. These consistent structures correspond to the internal organization of the professional advisor’s occupation (values, concerns, principles he/she feels are true and appropriate for teaching and advising, goals pursued with the student teacher). All of this corresponds to an identity in action.
Identifying these internal organizers of professional advising activity, together with the researcher’s self-analysis (D. Schön), is fundamental to the development of training models for the professional advisor. At present, the French academic system lacks any specific training for the educational advisor. Collaborative relationships need to be explored, developed, and formalized in order to help advisors find ways of developing and improving their advisory activity.

The theoretical context and problematics

My research analyses advisory interactions in order to understand how they are organised and comprehend the significance participants attribute to them. The possibility of theorising the activity that guides these interactions requires a stronger paradigm than the “process-product” model popularised in the 1950s and 60s (which now seems to be making a welcome comeback). The comprehensive approach I have developed aims to define and describe the mechanisms of the internal organizers of these interactions that allow us to understand the means, goals, values, and subjective involvement of advisors when they are counselling student teachers. With the collaboration of the professionals involved in this study, my analysis serves the further purpose of revealing and elucidating the significance of their activity. The following questions have guided our research: what is the purpose of making this analysis available to professional advisors? In what ways can it lead to greater awareness? How can the explanation of the ways in which an educational advisor engages his/her professional identity in his/her dialogue with the student teacher lead to further professional development? Unlike the concepts of professional training that prevail in France today, our position begs to differ from those who accept that a curriculum that supports advisor training a priori is most relevant to the development of the required skills, since advisors also develop their critical guidance based on knowledge acquired through experience.

In the “teacher’s thinking” trend that has been developed in the USA since the 1970s, interest has focused on how teachers make sense of and know things. Lesson plans, habits, the development of expertise, the implicit theory of teaching and the thought processes and decisions involved in interactions - “the teacher’s interactive thought and decisions” - are the goals this research seeks to elucidate (Clark, Christopher, Peterson, Penelope, 1984). The paradigm of the teacher’s thought process is the result of the response of researchers who have concluded that by focusing their attention on actions independent of the consideration of mental processes, significance of these mental acts had been neglected. (Tochon, 2000). The principles that define the epistemological orientation of this paradigm are always evolving, and Tochon opens new directions for this research by broadening the area of teachers’

1 Clark, Christopher M., Peterson, Penelope L., 1984, Thought processes, Occasional Paper n° 72, Institute for Research on Teaching, College of Education, Michigan State University, 252 Erickson Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824, ERIC ED educational data base 251449.
thought processes. Tochon looks at “how teachers conceive their profession and field, their activities and, by extension, how they evaluate the daily problems associated with teaching, [...] how they solve these problems, [...] their mental planning, beliefs, personal history and their search for meaning.”

We agree with Tochon’s admonition (2000)\(^3\) that “the recognition of professionalism among teachers must come about through the participation of its practitioners as a lever capable of re-establishing social equilibrium in a society that has lost its sense of values (Popkewitz, 1998). One of the current risks is that this paradigmatic discourse will be recuperated in order to dispossess teachers of their prerogatives by subjecting them to tests of their competency, an act that goes against the grain of the principles that were originally safeguarded.”

According to the author, the paradigm of teachers’ mental processes under these conditions applies to cognitive as well as phenomenological, ethnomethodological, narrative, and psychoanalytic approaches, among others. Although they are quantitative at first, these methodologies become essentially qualitative. For Tochon, this development goes hand in hand with the development of an awareness of the teacher’s professionalism. Moreover, we feel that the teacher’s sense of subjective involvement in his/her field also plays a significant role.

We integrate our work in the theoretical field of “conceptualisation within action” (G. Vergnaud, 1990). Vergnaud’s central point of view considers that organised professional practice reveals the meaning that a participant assigns to the situation in which he/she finds himself/herself. For this reason, we analyse advisory sessions as an interactive activity in which the interlocutors implicitly invest their own conceptualisations of professional practice as the object of the exchange. Referring to G. Vergnaud’s activity theory and C. Kerbrat-Orecchioni’s linguistic theory of interactivity (1992), we have attempted to locate an organisational model of an advisor’s spoken remarks as she interacted with three student teachers, in order to identify an “identity in action” (Vinatier I, 2007): an identity that reveals and defines itself through the way it addresses another person. This dimension of our analysis develops constitutive elements of G. Vergnaud’s model (goals, inferences, rules governing action, information gathering and control, creeds and values associated with them); it also takes into account whatever the participant implies subjectively. I am interested in recognising and explaining the inter-subjective dimension of the operative form of knowledge that subtends the participants’ implications and involvement. How do these two dimensions reveal a mode of conceptualising teaching? In what ways does it expose the formative process of an active identity? We attempt to answer these questions as we identify consistent features of an educational advisor’s counselling based on three separate discussions.

**Research model and methodology**

We have the transcripts of three advisory discussions conducted by the same PEIMF with novice teachers, including the PEIMF’s comments on the transcripts, recorded in the context of an analytical model of teaching practice.

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\(^3\) Tochon F.-V., *op. cit.*
The discussions represent the early training received by school teachers in their second year of study. In presenting the results of our analysis of these discussions, we focus on understanding the advisor’s concerns as they interactively relate to the student teacher’s own agenda. We analyse their dialogue from a dual point of view: from the perspective of the joint elaboration of the object of their exchanges (content) as well as that of the intersubjective creation of each person’s position (involving aspects of “faces,” as E. Goffman defines them). We attempt to construct a conceptual and interpersonal “plot” (Pastre, 2000) for each discussion based on the retrieval of constitutive elements of the model we referred to earlier. These analytic tools allowed us 1) to respect the unique dynamic of each exchange; 2) to account for processes whereby the interlocutors shaped their discourse together; and 3) to translate a narrative that was related in different voices (by the various interlocutors who took part in constructing the interaction) as it evolved temporally.

One advisor’s “plot” developed through his interactions with trainee teachers (collaborative research conducted with professional advisors)

The goal of (re)constructing the plot of the discussions between master advisors and trainee teachers is to identify the epistemic and intersubjective issues around the advisory activity: what knowledge does the master advisor derive in situ from his/her observation of student teaching? How would we describe or characterise the knowledge that is activated by these discussions? What intersubjective issues can we identify? How and to what extent are these issues related to the conceptual path of the interaction? (Vinatier, 2007).

The counselling discussion that follows the advisor’s observation of a novice teacher in the classroom is the master advisor’s (PEIMF) specific responsibility. Since they are responsible for visiting and observing the trainee teacher’s class, the advisor’s goal is to help trainees to acquire practical knowledge and create a professional identity.

Various external factors restrict communication between interlocutors and contribute to the individuality and singular dynamic of the exchange. First of all, the contract that binds them is subtended to the school’s mission and policy: for the master advisor, this consists of counselling and evaluating, whereas the novice teacher (PE) in his/her second year of teacher training at the IUFM must begin to enact his/hers professional practice. The extent to which the interlocutors know each other also plays a significant role in the dynamic of their exchange; in fact, their relationship does not remain static during the academic year. As a result, it is important to mention that the three discussions we refer to were all recorded at the beginning of the year. Furthermore, the specific setting

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4 Narcissism (self-image) and territory (each interlocutor’s discursive space).

of each school and the class to which the PE was assigned are also significant factors in how exchanges develop. However, the essential meaning of the goal of these exchanges was derived from the data collected through the PEIMF’s observations; it is precisely this data that allows us to construct the particular configuration of each individual situation. The discussions deal with the teacher’s practical experience, and the verbal description of this praxis assumes a dual status: it is both the product of the PEIMF’s analysis after the fact and a reflexive process on the part of the student teacher, based on his/her real experience in the classroom. The traces of this activity that are gathered by the master advisor become the basis of the negotiations between interlocutors at the same time as they are reformulated at different stages of their conversation.

As we situated the plot of each discussion, we uncovered frictions between different conceptual levels, although the interaction itself “held up” or even “progressed” with “no significant hitches.” The master advisors implicitly felt this paradox as a tension. In the discussions where co-clarification was involved, advisors referred to their dissatisfaction as they described the gap between their advice and what the PE made of it, between the relevance of their advice and the trainee’s own concerns, and between the transmission of experiential knowledge and the student teacher’s expectations.

We attribute the confrontations encountered at different conceptual levels to the following causes:

1) the status of the basis of the exchange for each person: the tenor of the questions generated by the teaching observed is different for the PEIMF and the PE; each of them approaches the practice in the classroom from an experiential point of reference that is quite different from the other’s. The master advisor conducts the discussion based on the conceptualisation of a) his/her own professional experience, b) how students learn and conduct themselves in the classroom, c) his/her own values. On the other hand, the student teacher conceptualises what he/she has tried to do while being observed by the PEIMF based on his/her preparation.

2) the difference between the reciprocal expectations of each interlocutor which inform to a greater or lesser degree how the chain of events in the course of their interaction plays itself out.

3) the exchanges are the locus where the “face” of each interlocutor (self-image and discursive space) is inscribed. This “face” represents the agency of negotiated power, shared or non-shared consensuality, proximity or distance.

In this way, two different verbal activities are enunciated and confront each other in a discursive space where issues of knowledge are negotiated on an interactive level with interpersonal issues. The interactions between these two

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6 The PEIMF relies not only on the notes he/she took during the observation of lessons (the length of the lesson, teacher’s and students’ comments, elements of student activity) but also on the student teacher’s preparation. The difference between the teacher’s preparation and the actual teaching of the lesson is one of the PEIMF’s most important training tools.

7 We do not describe how the PEs themselves perceived the interviews, since we were not able to pursue our analysis with them. This could be a topic for further research.
different types of interlocutors are saturated with various issues, intentions, goals, and self-images that configure the dynamics of their exchange.

We use the three discussions conducted by the same PEIMF with three very different PEs (their diversity provides our analysis with comparative interest) to help us identify the “plots” or narratives that the interlocutors elaborate together during the advisory discussions.

The three discussions represent a “snapshot” of the PEIMF and PE’s activity that takes place during the course of the school year. They were conducted in November, when the student teachers instructed a group of students independently for the first time.

In the first discussion, the PE (PE1) was given a dual level class (pupils ages 9 and 10). In the PEIMF’s opinion, the novice teacher was having problems.

In the second discussion, the PE (PE2) was given a small section of a pre-school class (children age 3). His professional stance convinced the PEIMF to confirm that he was a good PE.

In the third discussion, the PE (PE3) was given a medium and large section of a pre-school class (children ages 4 and 5). She showed analytic ability and mastery of professional knowledge, despite the difficult situation she found herself in: the school equipment had been designed for elementary school pupils, the ATSEM did not perform her expected role, and one of the pupils was handicapped.

We now turn to a description of the final stage of the analysis, in order to determine the “plot.” Our aim is to reconstitute the overall structure of the interaction.

We use the example given in the table below to illustrate what we mean by reconstituting the “plot.” The first column shows the order of the teaching episodes, each one defined by a single topic; each episode is weighted according to its discursive volume (the number of speech acts). We reconstitute the interpersonal and conceptual plot involving the interlocutors for each episode.

A simple arrow indicates a cause-effect relationship.

A double arrow (←→) indicates an interactive relationship between how the same interlocutor manages both the relationship and its content.

A bold double arrow (←→) indicates how both interlocutors collectively manage both the relationship and its contents.

Arrows between episodes (-----) indicate historical connections, related either to the management of the relationship or to the content that was exchanged.

The analysis is mindful of the progressive nature of the exchanges. Reading the table from top to bottom, it is possible to trace successive events relative to the internal issues involved in the relationship and to the content of what is exchanged; issues and content together become an object of conceptualisation.

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8 The professors at the schools we visited were in their second year of training at the IUFM.

9 ATSEM: A gent Territtorial Spécialisé des Ecoles Maternelles (a regional primary school teacher’s aid specialist).
for the interlocutors. The discursive volume of the PEIMF’s speech, 73%, is the largest for the three discussions.

The difference in discursive size between the PEIMF and the PE may be attributed to the fact that the student teacher was experiencing difficulty.

“Plot” development is based on the answers to the following questions:
– What does the advisor rely on in conducting the interview?
– what tactics does she use in addressing sensitive or critical points with the PE?
– how does she show the PE what her expectations are of him/her?
– what specific points does she insist on?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal PLOT of the interlocutors’ relationship</th>
<th>Internal PLOT of the content exchanged</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Traditional sessions</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Episode 1 (1-17)</strong> Conjugation of first group verbs</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2 – The PE immediately goes on the defensive: she replies to an order.</td>
<td>5 à 17. C. attempts to make the PE more expectant and open to new possibilities; she is critical of the PE’s excessive activity to the detriment of the pupils’ participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – C. accepts the PE’s argument and positions her in proximity to her colleagues.</td>
<td>PE lets herself be guided step-by-step.</td>
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| **Episode 2 (17-41)** Spelling lesson |                                      |
| 19 – C. positions the PE in a relationship of shared proximity with her colleagues. | C. again enjoins the PE to anticipate problems in teaching. |
| 21 – C. affirms that she is a professional advisor. | PE lets herself be guided. |
| *A critical moment:* 27 – C. throws PE off balance | *BUT* C. explains to PE that she unwittingly put pupils at a disadvantage by blocking the blackboard, thus depriving them of a basic tool for performing the assigned task. |
| 28 – PE at first affirms her pedagogical choice then... 30 – PE backs down and accepts C’s argument. PE has thrown C off balance. |  |
| 35 – C. takes a protective attitude toward PE. |  |

<p>| <strong>Partner sessions</strong>                           |                                      |
| <strong>Episode 3 (41-69)</strong> Independent writing exercise, in groups of two. |                                      |
| 41 – C valorizes PE’s conduct in the classroom (with the exception of her own learning situations) | 44 – PE expresses reservations about doing group work. |
| 47 – C valorises how the class was conducted and the pupils’ work. | C enjoins PE to plan new lessons. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Episode 4 (49-67)</th>
<th>Lesson planning</th>
<th>49 – C takes the upper hand as advisor and queries: «How would you consider?...to show you...» PE appears subdued and uses phatic markers to show she is listening. C suggests relying on pupils’ work in planning new lessons. PE agrees.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Episode 5 (67-69)</td>
<td>Creating tools for a pupil</td>
<td>C voices an invariant in relation to membership in a professional group: creating tools for pupils. PE assumes a passive, accepting attitude. 67 – “The tool for pupils” is thematised: the process of engaging learning is linked to the pupils’ autonomy. PE shows she agrees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics lessons</td>
<td>Episode 6 (69-91)</td>
<td>C takes the upper hand as an advisor and affirms what should be done: “what I would advise you to do...what would be ideal is...you must...” PE assumes a passive, accepting attitude. C emphasizes the value of the board as a tool. PE shows she agrees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Episode 7 (92-102)</td>
<td>Lesson with pupils on measurements</td>
<td>C takes the upper hand as an advisor: the questioning is prescriptive: “do you see that...? Do you think that you will prepare your lesson differently?” PE makes pedagogically correct suggestions. C insists on the importance of the choice of teacher’s tools. (the manual).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of the discussion (102-129)</td>
<td>This episode allows C to evaluate how well PE has assimilated her advice.</td>
<td>C’s attitude is prescriptive and evaluative. PE develops a passive, accepting attitude.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: the “plot” developed between C and PE 1 in a class of pupils ages 9 and 10
The PEIMF, who is an experienced teacher, is annoyed by the modest expectations that the PE feels she is capable of enacting. C’s advice addresses the entire situation that was observed. The context of her remarks looks beyond the PE’s current time frame: in the future, the PE will have to adapt herself to a new professional practice and to a new type of group interaction that she has not had a hand in creating (she is not currently with her own class). Since she has not spent enough time with this class, it is impossible for her to address and process the results of her teaching. The conditions do not support her ability to think through how a class will behave in advance and plan her lessons over time. This could be why she can conceptualise her lessons only on the basis of her preparation.

The interlocutors’ comments and remarks take place conceptually in two different timeframes. There is a temporal conflict of anticipation between the two partners in the interaction; as a result, their respective interpretations of the events observed in the classroom deviate from each other. Because of her experience, the advisor is able to anticipate certain outcomes and constructs them by referring to the dynamic in the classroom and an evaluation that is done in situ (this is a powerful tool for an experienced master advisor). But the PE can only base her performance on her preparation and attempt to anticipate the reality of the situation in which she will be observed.

**Structuring the dynamic of the interaction**

**The internal “plot” of the relationship**

1) The PEIMF addresses the PE as a member of a professional group. PE takes a defensive posture from the beginning of the interaction; she gives a negative evaluation to her performance and attributes its weakness to the context of her activity: “I’m having a hard time there... I did my class a little bit the old-fashioned way.” Then C puts herself in a collegial relationship with PE(episode 1): “What can we (C and PE) do to make your lesson more lively?... We were working with a closing text...We thought about it together”; (episode 2): “Couldn’t we find a way of ordering... You see, what I want to show you is...”; (episode 5): “Throughout the lesson, we felt that... We felt that as long as they could see the board, it really helped them... It’s an issue for professional work in the future, what tools am I going to put into a French folder that will help the pupils correct their own mistakes?”

The linguistic function of the word “we” as a deictic marker is to gauge the situation and possible outcomes. This procedure is characteristic of the interactive modality C has chosen to involve the PE in when planning new approaches to teaching.

2) The PEIMF takes the upper hand as an experienced profession when she counsels PE that: (episode 2) “you give the answer too soon... You see, what I would advise you to do is to use colours on the right and left side of the board to highlight and emphasise the category.”

There was a critical incident in episode 2 when PE affirmed her pedagogical choices which C challenged: “But I did it that way on purpose”; a response that threw C off (29): “Oh! You did it on purpose? Well, then it was, of course... ”;

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this led C to argue: “the problem is that pupils who are having problems no longer have a referent.” PE shares with C how much her ego was hurt and cites the tension that interfered with her teaching: “I worked too hard (laughter)... you’re afraid of the clock... you want to take time but then you say to yourself, well... “Almost as an after effect, C becomes protective: “That’s normal, at the same time, it protects you.”

In episode 3, PE also shares her hesitation to do group work: “The downside of group work is that you’re always afraid that one pupil will do all the work while the others look on”; faced with PE’s stance, C values this work mode in the classroom and takes the upper hand as an advisor and interrogates the student teacher until the end of the interaction: “How would you approach...?; those points were very positive... What I wanted to ask you about the writing lesson... Do you think you’ll intervene?”

Episode 4: “How would you approach... How would you design... Are you going to do an intermediate exercise? Well, what I would advise you to do...“

Episode 6: “What I wanted to advise you to do... You structured... well”

Episode 7: “How would you analyse your lesson...? What would you do differently next time?”

Episode 8: “In relation to what I observed... What kind of follow-up would you plan...? Are you going to correct...? Are you going to wait...?”

C’s upper hand during the dialogue manifests itself in several different ways from episode 2 onward: evaluation, anticipating other possibilities, formulating expectations, prescriptions and transmitting her own professional learning.

C uses the expression “What I would advise you to do,” a verbal formula that helps her to support her expectations, only in this discussion. In the course of the discussion, PE maintains a submissive posture and systematically answers C’s important line of questions.

The internal “plot” of the content

The PEIMF addresses significant aspects of taking charge of a class at the beginning of the school year (the means of confirming this point are not at our disposal since we lack discussions from the end of the school year). Her objective is to reject certain concepts that student teachers frequently adopt, such as the tendency to stand directly in front of the pupils in order to suppress unruliness (so as to keep an eye on all of them), the tendency to talk too much, to “do for others” (instead of letting pupils do it themselves), and to over prepare, a habit that prevents PEs from being able to react more readily to pupils’ unanticipated reactions in the classroom.

The order of the following items corresponds to how the dialogue was constructed, based on the sequence of lessons observed by C.

The PE referred to the contextual problems she had experienced: how to respect the work of the class’s permanent teacher and still make her own impact; emotional investment in a class; and experimentation:

(Episode 1): “I work in the same pedagogical modes as the permanent teacher... This gives me certain directives... which I try to follow... as best
I can... I can do it, but I don’t have... I admit that when I prepare and have seen... In the literature segment, I didn’t see... When we find ourselves in the situation... So, gee, the lesson I taught was a bit old-fashioned.”

These remarks lead C to reject the assumption that the teacher’s own activity can be a substitute for the pupils’ activity.

In episode 2, PE will explain her problems, especially the gap she says she experiences between preparing and teaching the class and the constraints of the program: “I worked too hard (laughter)... you’re afraid of the clock, too, but it’s true that in spite of, well, you want to take the time but then you say to yourself, oh, well... “This stance will lead C to insist that pupil time that does not correspond to the time frame of their program of studies. C strongly feels that the pupils' learning can be jeopardised if they are not given the necessary tools for their assignment.

In the following episodes, the PE will answer C’s query and try to anticipate what she would do, although she shows that she is still firmly attached to her preparation. The three moments of the experience in the present punctuate the entire set of her remarks: “I think that there... Afterwards I thought they were going to... I’ll try to... I wanted to set up... I started them out... Well, I may have left off... I can prepare that... I’m not going to give them... I’ll take a group of pupils... I’m going to correct... I’ll start over again... I designed it that way because I thought that...”

Like the preceding ones, these episodes are also characterized by the sequential formulation of experience-based learning:

(Episode 4): It is possible to rely on what pupils generate in class in doing lesson planning.

(Episode 5): There is a correlation between learning and the degree of autonomy given to pupils.

(Episode 6 and 7): The blackboard is a basic tool for pupils. Similarly, the choice of a teaching manual will have an effect on one’s teaching practice.

(Episode 8): To be an effective teacher, one must know how to design a lesson plan that both takes pupils’ reactions into account and is adapted to their needs.

C uses episodes 7 and 8 (which conclude the interaction) to evaluate PE’s ability to assimilate her earlier suggestions. Since we do not find this evaluative step in the other discussions, we assume that it is related to C’s opinion that PE was having problems (C confirmed this opinion in my conversations with her).

**Conclusion and final discussion**

C acts in accordance with her responsibilities and wants PE to understand her. She asserts her position in relation to her own experiential learning which she considers as her duty to pass on to the PE. She elaborates on this learning throughout the discussion: it is generic and seems to correspond to the organizers of her plan for conducting the class:

– the pupils’ ability to learn is directly related to the degree of autonomy they are given;
– the concept of teaching consists of the development of tools for both teacher and pupils.

In this discussion, she firmly guides and redirects the PE’s activity, since she is having problems (we find the same stance in the third discussion), using a high discursive volume: she designs lesson plans with the student teacher, expands the range of possibilities, formulates expectations, relies on her observation of the pupils’ activity, and above all, recalls the major operative principles of the teaching profession. These constructive criticisms (which do not translate easily into facial expressions) all aim at giving a new direction to the dynamic of the exchanges between PEIMF and PE (for instance, in the example we just gave, the PEIMF is trying to redirect PE toward a more open anticipatory stance). To get her point across or redirect the interaction, she does not hesitate to shake up their relationship, especially on the axis of power or consensus/conflict (using the Face Threatening Act or the Face Flattering Act). This procedure allows her to displace PE’s concerns and destabilise the way they are conceived (for instance, in the third episode of the first discussion).

The PEIMF dismissed some points from each discussion; however, this was not the case in our collaborative research with another PEIMF who attempted to conduct an advisory discussion while he was in training. During our first exchanges on the subject of the analytical model of professional practice we used, the original PEIMF began by discussing the attitude she adopted so firmly during our third meeting.

It is fair to suppose that this broad dismissal took place in the context of a training period in which each visit paved the way for the following one: each set of comments, advice, and recommendations invites new exchanges that will take place during discussions in the future (about three or four visits per student teacher, this being the first one). This is another guideline of interactive action.

We were at the beginning of the academic year for the purpose of training PEs, and the PEIMF also had to establish her credibility with a small group of PEs whom she was assigned to follow up on professionally: her advice went far beyond the situations she observed, sometimes to the point of taking the discursive form of a training program. This was certainly the case, for instance, when she discussed preparation (see the example).

The content of the topics we discussed, which were pragmatically focused for the most part during her discussions with the PEs, allowed us to target the way the PEIMF conceptualised her role as a teacher: 1) anticipating lessons, not from the standpoint of preparation but rather from what may be observed in pupils’ behaviour and output; 2) the attention given to what she “felt” about a given situation (the advisor used this term frequently during the three discussions); 3) the way teacher and pupils supported each other through the co-development of teaching tools; 4) positioning short-term control mechanisms in a given

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10 I am referring here to the three axes of interpersonal relationships posited by C. Kerbrat-Orecchioni.

11 This model was comprised of five advisors and myself: we worked together for two years, with four meetings per year.
situation (extracting the internal indicators of the lesson); 5) conceptualising
the friction between the teacher’s and pupils’ activity in the classroom: the
more independent pupils were in doing their assignments, the better they were
able to learn; 6) a dissociation between lesson time/completion of assignments
and a pupil’s learning time, together with the probable and desired outcome
that the teacher would be attentive to pupils’ needs and not simply carry out
his/her preparation by rote.

The concern for pupils’ educational development (found in all three
discussions) is an organizer for the advisor’s activity that is at odds with the
three PE’s concerns.

Since it was conducted with the advisor’s participation, our analysis gave her
ways of reclaiming and developing her counselling: what she maintains, what
she wishes to develop, and what she chooses to reconsider. The teleology we
pursued in sharing our analyses with the professional advisors involved in our
study aimed at expanding and developing their ability to act effectively and
professionally as advisors.

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In this paper, I will try to present a specific methodology of intervention and work analysis in the field of occupational Psychology: the methodology developed in Clinic of Activity (Clot, 2008, 1999). To do so, I’ll first present firstly some of our theoretical assumptions about professional activity and development; and secondly our methodological choices and the principles of the method called “crossed self confrontation”. Finally, I’ll show, with a single example of analysis in workplace, how we use the dialogical frame in order to intervene in different professional environments.

From Vygotsky’s proposition to the concept of Activity

The research of the French team « Clinic of Activity» from the Work and Development Research Center at CNAM, directed by Pr. Yves Clot, rely on interventions aimed at helping practitioners analyze and redesign their professional activity. We conduct our interventions on direct request of practitioners or within the context of research programmes in order to contribute to the elaboration and development of work situations through the co-analysis of real, concrete activities. We intervene in response to professionals demands in different fields: justice, train drivers, surgery, administrative secretary, gravediggers, education, building constructions, …and others.

Our theoretical framework is both inspired by Vygotskian cultural-historical activity theory and by French-speaking ergonomics. We derive our methodology from Vygotskian recommendations on «indirect methods» designed to study psychological processes and the development of consciousness. We intend to build methodological frameworks which transform the status of professional experience in order to make it accessible and visible, on one hand to the practitioners, on the other hand to the researchers.

From ergonomics and French-speaking school of work analysis, we maintain the classical distinction between the task (what one has to do) and the real work or the activity (that is, what ones does as an answer to the task). In this conceptual distinction, we understand the necessary individual and collective interpretation of the task in order to respond to it. This interpretation implicates, at first, the practical experience as a resource to understand and interpret the task in any singular situation. In that way, “being in the trade” gives some aces for holding the daily activities. The professionals can use, often unconsciously, some ways to do, elaborated in the history of the practical experience and also in the history of the job itself. When they are efficient, those ways to do, stabilized in a professional genre, allow cooperations, anticipations, creations
of new instruments or new tricks of the trade that will enables the professionals to answer to new exigencies.

In this sense, activity is anyway structurally both a conflict and a compromise solution: between the task and the real work, between sense and efficiency of professional gestures, but also between what is expected and what can be done in any singular situation.

Vygotsky wrote (1925), in a text called “the problem of consciousness in Psychology of Behaviour”, that “human being is full, at any instant, of non realized possibilities”. It doesn’t mean that those possibilities are absent from the psychological scene, but at the contrary they push down on what the subject does and can also become very heavy in his activity. So, in Clinic of Activity approach (Clot, 1999), activity is of course what a professional does and what we can observe, the realized activity. But beyond, activity is also what the professional doesn’t do: what he tries to do, what he doesn’t (or doesn’t anymore) feel up to do, what he still doesn’t manage to do, what he thinks he could do if the conditions were different, and also what he does in order to avoid doing what is expected. This part of activity, that we call Activity Real, is part of our psychological work analysis. The subject is here at the center of a continuous arbitration that will allow him, with more or less felicity, to come out, during the realization of activity, with the activity real.

If we try to approach, in our analysis, the relationships between realized activity and activity real, it is because we find in their relationships the question of efficiency and health at work. At a methodological level in the intervention in workplace, dealing with those two aspects of activity allows professionals to increase their own power to act. And so, our interventions are constructed in the aim of moving back the boundaries of the job in the daily activities. Those boundaries cannot be personal, individual ones. Practical experience, job’s history, its techniques, that is what we call the professional genre, has a particular function in these relationships between real activity and realized activity. The professional genre is certainly the first efficient resource to stand in the activity real and to do, in spite of this one, what has to be done.

But this supposes an alive professional genre that has a “talent to repartee” in front of the density of the activity real in daily professional activities, in order to make go ahead unresolved work questions. One of the aims of our methodological frames is, maybe first at all, to increase this “talent to repartee”, in order to develop activity. As a consequence, our methods are constructed as dialogical tools offered to the professionals, that can become instruments for developing their own individual and collective activity. Professionals become themselves actors of theoretical and practical reconceptualization of their activity.

The method of crossed self confrontation analysis:

a way to use professional dialogue as an instrument for development

In order to open collective reconceptualisation of activity, we have to organize the denaturalization of activity that will allow us to discuss its realization, its activity
real, and the available resources that can increase the professional power to act. The apparent routines and automatisms are mainly embodied experience, invisible for the subjects themselves and also for the external observer. Observations and crossed confrontations aim at instructing individually and collectively this re-discovery of experience, of its richness but also of its limits, compromises, conflicts and dilemmas, in search of potential developments.

The method of crossed self-confrontations can be described globally in three phases.

In the first phase, we construct a collective of professionals for analysing the activity: this phase includes an initial construction of the collective of professionals who volunteer for the analysis of activity, but also of a steering committee supervising the project and discussing the methodological choices and the results. We initiated systematic observations of professional situations, and decide with the professionals the activities that will be analysed in order to respond to their preoccupations about activity.

In the second phase, we organise the crossed self-confrontations in order to combine different professional experiences. We make video-recordings each sequence of activity, with at minimum two professionals doing the same activity. We organize first a confrontation of each professional with the video-recordings of his activity in the presence of the researcher: what we call “simple self confrontation analysis”. Then, we organize a confrontation of the same professional with the same video-recording in the presence of the researcher and of a colleague who has also been already confronted with his own sequences of activity. That is what we call crossed self confrontation analysis. This moment of the confrontation with the colleague, that is also video-recorded to be used in the third phase, allows dialogues about the different ways, the different gestures the use to achieve the activity. Various forms can emerge, placing activity in a potential zone of development. In this phase we collect two types of video data, data of the activity and data of the confrontation according to the procedure of Crossed Self-Confrontation. The researcher aims at making the professionals question themselves on what they see themselves doing on the film. In so doing, conventional truths fall in face of unexpected developments of the dialogical exchange.

The video sequences are edited along with the professionals to prepare the third step of the analysis. The edited video, validated by the volunteers and the researchers, includes sequences of activity and comments to be presented to colleagues in the collective of professional.

The third phase is the one of the expansion of the analysis. We try to expand the analysis to three main recipients. Firstly, to the whole collective of professionals associated to the project from the beginning, in order to develop the analysis; secondly to the steering committee; thirdly to the other professional of the trade, that is the overall group of peers facing the same professional challenges.

This analysis of activity may place them in a context of change. The individual workers (and the profession) enter a zone of potential development. We interpret these moments of development as moments of awareness in Vygotsky’s sense
of generalisation: “to perceive things differently is to acquire simultaneously
other possible means of action in relation to these things. [...] By generalising
a process of my own activity, I acquire other possibilities of relating to it.”

These video documents represent “external” psychological instruments to
develop the professionnal genre and push forward its limits.

Through this method, an iterative process occurs between what professionals
do, what they say about what they do, and what they do with what they say.

Professional dialogue and activity development

The dialogues on professional matters become material for research. In
effect, beyond our aim of intervention, we try to understand the psychological
processes involved in this methodology, and more specifically the function of
the debate in this dialogical frame. Our actual assumptions (Kostulski & Clot,
2007) concern what Vygotsky called psychological “functional migrations”
and that we try to understand in vivo: the dialogical activity realized in the
methodological frame can affect the professional, collective and inner dialogue
in the daily activities and then bring developments of activities.

We will present video recording data of a single example in the panel,
and discuss the verbal and psychological processes that are involved in the
development of a professional activity.

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