UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN QUEENSLAND

IMAGES OF THE TEACHER SELF IN AN ERA OF TEACHER QUALITY AND STANDARDISATION

A Thesis submitted by

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Abstract

Evolving government agendas and the focus on education for economic growth have led to an era of quality and standardisation in Australia. This era centres on managerial accountability measures and has shifted the focus from the quality of education to the quality of teachers in relation to students' outcomes based on standardised testing. The connection made in government policy of improving the quality of education with the quality of teachers has led to the introduction of the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (APSTs) and increased scrutiny of teachers and teaching.

The purpose of this study is to consider how teachers navigate this era of quality and standardisation and the effects of the APSTs' singular image of quality on teachers' images of their teacher self and their teaching. The increased focus on the technical elements of teaching as a measure of accountability has led to questions around teacher autonomy and agency. Therefore, this study also considers the implications of managerial accountability measures for the images that teachers hold of their teacher self and practice.

An interpretative case study was used to investigate how teachers view themselves and their practice in this era of quality and standardisation. This provided a framework for considering the interviews with the teacher participants, the artefacts of their teaching and their evaluations against the APSTs, to understand how they navigate the current era of quality and standardisation.

This study found that just as the teacher participants' experiences and lengths of time in teaching differed, so too did their images of their teacher selves. In some instances, the current era of quality and standardisation has led to feelings of powerlessness and redundancy. This study identified uneasy tensions for the teacher participants that were affecting their wellbeing, resilience, self-efficacy and capacity to remain in teaching. The shifting priorities in the era of quality and standardisation led to resistance by the majority of the teachers to the external measures of quality.

The teachers in this study demonstrated that the APSTs have not had the effect of standardising teachers' work nor the images of quality that they hold.

Instead, the APSTs served to confirm or challenge teachers' images of self, highlighting the complexities of teaching and the need for teachers to articulate who they are in teaching. Those teachers who had a strong image of teacher self were more resilient. However, the push for quality measures for teachers and increased managerial accountability has led to a lack of trust in teachers and increased scrutiny of them, which in turn has reduced teacher autonomy and agency.

This study advocates for changes in government policy and a review of the underlying political agenda. Teachers need to be able to focus on students' learning rather than the systemic expectations brought about by the neoliberal agenda, which measures outcomes according to economic requirements. While teachers can make a difference, this can only happen if the focus is on the learner and learning.

Certification of Thesis

This Thesis is entirely the work of Yvonne Anne Salton except where otherwise acknowledged. The work is original and has not previously been submitted for any other award, except where acknowledged.

Principal Supervisor: Professor Margaret Baguley

Associate Supervisor: Associate Professor Stewart Riddle

Student and supervisors signatures of endorsement are held at the University.

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List of Publications and Presentations Related to this Work

Book Chapters

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Salton, Y. (2014). The voice as subject or object. In W. Midgley, A. Davies, M. Oliver & P. Danaher (Eds.), *Echoes: Ethics and issues of voice in education research* (pp. 53–68). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

Salton, Y. (2015). The homogenising effect of standardised curriculum on pedagogy. In P. Danaher, P. Noble, K. Larkin, M. Kawka, H. Van Rensburg, H. Brodie & H. Rensberg (Eds.), *Empowering educators: Proven principles and successful strategies* (pp. 69–82). Hampshire, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

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List of Abbreviations

ACARA	Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority
AITSL	Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership
APSTs	Australian Professional Standards for Teachers
COAG	Council of Australian Governments
C2C	Curriculum into the Classroom
GERM	Global Education Reform Movement
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
MCEEDYA	Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development and Youth Affairs
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs
NAP	National Assessment Program
NAPLAN	National Assessment Program for Literacy and Numeracy
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA	Program for International Student Assessment
QCT	Queensland College of Teachers
TEQSA	Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency
TQELT	Teacher Quality and Educational Leadership Taskforce
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

Chapter 1: Introduction

The Era of Teacher Quality and Standardisation

In Australia, changing government policies, prompted by public interest in education, have seen teaching undergo increasingly intense scrutiny (Aspland, 2006). The renewed focus on the quality of education and of teachers and the dynamics of power in society, evident in the control governments and society are placing over educational systems and teachers, forms the basis of this thesis. This focus on education has resulted in several reviews and inquiries into teaching and teacher education (Commonwealth of Australia, 2007), resulting in the implementation in 2014 of the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (APSTs; Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership [AITSL], 2014), which renewed the focus on the quality of the teacher. In 2008, the National Assessment Program (NAP) and MySchool website (Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority [ACARA], 2016a) were launched, with the former seeking to verify whether students are meeting academic outcomes and the latter aiming to increase visibility and accountability by providing an online resource containing publicly accessible data about school performance. The introduction of NAP also provided the impetus for the development of the Australian Curriculum in 2010. These changes in education have purportedly focused on improving the quality of education in schools. However, in doing so, they have also led to increasing standardisation.

The current government agenda has moved education into an era of teacher quality and standardisation. This descriptor draws on the work of Aspland (2006), who identified the different eras of teacher development based on the changing policy landscape of education in Australia since colonisation. It is necessary to understand the tensions that this changing policy landscape has brought, especially with the shifting focus from the quality of teaching to the quality of the teacher, and the connection of teacher quality to the outcomes of students. This chapter details the background to the changes and the resultant tensions that have arisen.

The era of teacher quality and standardisation is underpinned by the Australian government's need to demonstrate that Australia has a quality education system compared to other member countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation

and Development (OECD), as evident in the use of OECD indicators to inform educational policies (Australian Government, 2016; Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group, 2006). According to the *Quality Schools, Quality Outcomes* report (Australian Government, 2016), a significant area of focus is the 'increase of accountability through transparency' (p. 8) as a means to ensure quality schooling. Indeed, this era of teacher quality and standardisation is reflected in the increased surveillance, accountability, competition and individualism within the education sector.

The focus on accountability measures has seen a shift from educational quality to the quality of the teacher. Mockler and Groundwater-Smith (2015) examined this issue and identified the overwhelming use of the term 'teacher quality' in government policy documents when discussing what is wrong with schools today. This has been reinforced through the media and suggests that teachers are the problem.

The teacher is responsible for producing positive learning outcomes for students based on standardised measures. The shifting focus is evident in the introduction of the Australian Curriculum, national standardised testing through the National Assessment Program for Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN) and the reporting of results to the public through MySchool. Such measures can be beneficial; however, it is how they are used that needs to be interrogated, as performativity measures such as these are linked with a neoliberal approach.

The ideology of neoliberalism has become widespread and influential (Saad-Filho & Johnston, 2005), yet seems to defy definition. Birch (2017) contended that neoliberalism is a term rife with ambiguity. According to Saad-Filho and Johnston (2005), this may be because 'neoliberalism straddles a wide range of social, political and economic phenomena at different levels of complexity' (p. 1). Certainly, there has been an increase in the popularity of neoliberalism in academic debate and the numerous perspectives held (Birch, 2017), with its use ranging from as a theory of political economic practices to a political philosophy. However, for the purpose of this thesis, neoliberalism is conceptualised from a Foucauldian perspective as a 'form of governmentality' (Davies & Bansel, 2007, p. 250) that establishes control and shifts democracies from social welfare to market-driven economies. Davies, Gottsche and Bansel (2006) suggested that in the Australian context, the 'Australian Federal Government has been systematically restructuring the economy, the labour market and the workplace according to the neoliberal mantra of deregulation, privatisation and

market freedom' (p. 305). This has led to the advancement of individualism and competition.

The rhetoric in public policy (Bradley, Noonan, Nugent & Scales, 2008; Dawkins, 1988; Rudd & Gillard, 2008) evolves around the need to increase Australia's global competitiveness. With this rhetoric comes the logic that there is a need to improve the quality of education (Zajda, 2013). The pressure on the education system and teachers to perform draws from the political imperative to achieve 'better outcomes for more people' and for the economy as a whole (Bentley & Savage, 2017). According to Tang (2019), the more robust the economy, the more investors will consider Australia a safe alternative. Part of the measure of Australia's global ranking is its high level of educational performance (Tang, 2019). Education is seen as the 'engine room of Australia's future [economic] prosperity' (PWC, 2017), as education is a 'pillar of this country's economic growth and social advancement [and] leads to innovation, increases productivity and has a direct impact on individual's health, wellbeing, and social mobility' (PWC, 2017).

The investment that society and governments have in education has been the justification for greater government intervention into the education system and teacher education, and the deployment of funds to ensure ongoing improvements in the performance of Australia's education system. The performance of Australia's education system is measured using the results of the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA; PWC, 2017), the triennial international survey which aims to evaluate educational systems throughout the world. This is highly problematic given that PISA only measures reading, mathematics and scientific literacy, which narrows the description of educational success (Dinham, 2013). Dinham (2013) suggested that Australia is using the wrong measures by comparing performance and determining economic development through education. However, the use of PISA is influenced by the view that these skills are the 'currency of 21st century economies' (Sellar & Lingard, p. 191), and so PISA is used as part of the OECD agenda of global educational governance and to determine the competitive positioning of member countries.

The push for standardised testing comes from the Australian government's need to determine where Australia is competitively positioned educationally in relation to the rest of the world. By participating in PISA, Australia 'receives an opportunity to compare student performance on a global scale' (Australian Council for Educational Research, 2017). Global comparison, along with other standardised testing that leads to

school comparisons, has increased individualism and competition in education, a market agenda in which performance is judged by outcomes. Connell (2013) suggested that this comparison commodifies education, which in turn has the effect of commodifying teaching and teachers themselves. According to Ball (2012), teachers are a 'unit of resource whose performance and productivity must be constantly audited so that it can be enhanced' (p. 12). This suggests that the heightened individualism of the neoliberal agenda has moved consideration of the outcomes of standardised testing to the measurement of the quality of teaching and the teacher.

Improving the quality of education has led to the connection of the quality of the teacher to student outcomes. This connection is particularly evident in the formation of the APSTs. In creating the framework for the APSTs, the Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA, 2003) was informed by the research of Darling-Hammond (2000) and Rowe (2003). These authors concluded that the quality of the teacher was directly linked to student achievement. In Australia and the United States, the connection between teacher quality and outcomes is evident in the introduction of standardised curricula material to govern teaching and define, and potentially limit, what teachers do in schools. This is especially significant where there is evidence of low student achievement. In this instance, government schools in Australia and the United States use pre-packaged curriculum resources: the Curriculum into the Classroom (C2C; Department of Education, 2017) in Australia and the Reading First Initiative (Au, 2011) in the United States. However, this limits the autonomy of teachers and potentially negates their agency. The underlying premise is that by controlling all aspects of teaching and learning, the outcome is controlled. This standardisation is just one way that education is being governed. As Apple (2001) suggested, 'we are told by neoliberals that only by turning our schools, teachers, and children over to the competitive market will we find a solution' (p. 409).

Limiting and controlling what teachers do affects their agency. According to Toom, Pyhältö and O'Connell Rust (2015), teacher agency 'has emerged in research to describe teachers' active efforts to make choices and intentional action in a way that makes a significant difference' (p. 615). Agency is what teachers do (Robinson, 2012), and any attempt to limit or control teacher practice results in them feeling they have less control. Control of education, especially of teachers, by the Australian federal government is evident in the era of teacher quality and standardisation and is based in

the logic of 'control societies' (Deleuze, 1995). This has led to increased scrutiny of what is seen as the greatest input in education—the teacher (Hattie, 2003).

This increased scrutiny situates the teacher as the problem in the era of quality and standardisation (Thompson & Cook, 2015). Considering the teacher as the problem has intensified the scrutiny and criticism of teachers (Louden, 2008) and contributed to issues around teacher wellbeing (Roffey, 2012), self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001), longevity in the profession, teacher agency (Toom et al., 2015) and teacher autonomy (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). This is what is at stake in the era of quality and standardisation with the push towards a one-size-fits-all approach to teachers and teacher education.

The significance of this study is in understanding how teachers navigate the era of quality and standardisation, which is marked by the dominant conception that 'teacher quality is the single most important in-school factor influencing student achievement' (AITSL, 2014) and the view that there is a singular image of quality as projected by the APSTs. This section lays the foundation for disrupting the dominant discourse of a measurable singular projected image of quality by considering the images of the teacher self that teachers themselves hold.

The concept of 'images of the teacher self' are used to capture how teachers see themselves within teaching. The use of images is not new. Clandinin (1985) utilised images as a way of connecting with the "personal practical knowledge of teachers" (p. 361). Coles and Knowles (1993) utilised the concept of images as relating to expectations and realities. This study considers both of this conceptions and describes images as pictures of teacher's knowledge, experiences and realities of teaching.

The term 'teacher self' is often used interchangeably with other terms such as 'teacher identity' (Zembylas, 2003). Indeed, a review of the literature revealed a number of terms used to describe the teacher self, including 'self' (e.g., Day, Kington, Stobart & Sammons, 2006), 'identity' (e.g., Beauchamp & Thomas, 2006, 2009, 2010; Hong, 2010; Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011) and 'subjectivity' (e.g., Davies et al., 2001; Pacheco, 2010; Palmer, 2011). Day et al. (2006) stated that the interchangeability and multiple use of the terms 'self' and 'identity' can be attributed to the fact that researchers draw from theoretical conceptions of self and identity from a range of disciplines including philosophy and psychology. The studies reviewed by Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004) revealed that researchers are engaging with both modern and

post-modern perspectives of the self. Beijaard et al. (2004) defined the modern view of self as authentic and pre-given and the post-modern as fluid and evolving.

For the purpose of this study, the teacher self is defined within an onto-epistemological perspective of self. This perspective suggests that epistemology, the theory of knowing, and ontology, the theory of being, are entangled. Therefore, self is conceptualised as knowing, being and becoming (Davies, 2010). This view of the teacher self describes a self that is 'constantly being produced, negotiated and shaped through discursive practices' (Zembylas, 2005, p. 938). Therefore, images of the teacher self capture the movement of self in the practice of teaching. The image of quality may thus potentially differ for each teacher in relation to the experiences they have had or be having. Understanding the different images of quality provides the basis for considering the implications that the introduction of the APSTs, as a projected image of quality, has for teachers' image of their teacher self.

The effects of the era of quality and standardisation provide the basis for the research problem, which considers whether the APSTs have the capacity to determine what makes a quality teacher. This research interrogates how teachers engage with the APSTs and the projected images of quality, and how they seek to reconcile these with the images of quality they hold.

1.1 Background and Context

The political landscape of education in Australia has shifted to focus on education for economic growth, based on the view that human capital is an important input into the economy (McGivney & Winthrop, 2016). According to Barro (2013), there is a correlation between the quality of education and economic growth. For this reason, economic policy has focused on human capital as a determinant of economic growth (Barro, 2013). Human capital, a term coined by Becker (1994), is used to connect schooling to the concept of capital, which is defined as an investment in producing the knowledge and skills of human beings. According to Becker (1994), 'education and training are the most important investments in human capital', which explains the value of education to economic development (p. 17).

The correlation between education and economic growth has led to testing regimes to measure the quality of education (Lingard, Martino & Rezai-Rashti, 2013). According to Lingard et al. (2013), this testing regime can be found in all OECD

countries, where the rise of PISA has encouraged the comparison of human capital between countries (Lingard & Sellar, 2013). This has resulted in the emergence of global educational policy.

Improving education as a means of stimulating economic growth is not just an Australian government imperative; it is part of a global movement of educational reform based on the desire of governments of OECD countries for their respective economies to remain competitive (Sahlberg, 2016). According to Mundy, Green, Lingard and Verger (2016), this Global Education Reform Movement (GERM) dates back to the 1980s, when countries realised that 'their educational system would not be able to lead the way in economic, technological and social transformations that were emerging globally' (p. 130). This saw the rise in global data to measure the performance of educational systems and the local influence of other countries' policies. This was particularly evident in the effect of the *Education Reform Act* of 1988 in England, which saw other countries also moving to standardised-based testing, national curricula and market-based reforms.

Australia has followed this global model of reform (Sahlberg, 2016), leading to the introduction of standardised-based testing in the form of NAP and reporting through MySchool (ACARA, 2017). These strategies, along with PISA results, are mechanisms to assist in informing educational policy (Sahlberg, 2016) and also measures of accountability (Thompson & Cook, 2014b). Accountability itself is not necessarily an issue; however, the trend is towards a market- and performance-driven managerial form of accountability (Ozga, 2013). This switch to managerial accountability has problematically resulted in additional surveillance of teaching and teachers, as well as an effort to ensure the quality of teachers through the introduction of the APSTs.

The APSTs are the current professional standards for teachers in Australia. Standards have been in place in Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States since the 1980s (Sachs, 2003). A key argument for teaching standards is as an attempt to raise the professionalism of teachers (Connell, 2009). However, teaching professional standards are also seen as an accountability measure and a way to increase quality in teaching (Tuinamuana, 2011). According to Mayer, Mitchell, Macdonald and Bell (2005), while the intent of professional standards may be to improve the quality of teaching, they have often been perceived as regulatory devices imposed on teachers. Standards for teachers are also associated with standardisation (Tuinamuana, 2011) in

relation to standardised tests to quantify quality, even though there is no research to suggest that this correlation can be made.

The link between standardisation, accountability and quality is problematic. Popham (1999) suggested that while standardised tests are useful for evidencing student knowledge and skills, the tests should not be used to measure the quality of teaching, and subsequently teachers, because that was not their intended purpose. Additionally, there is a view that the additional pressures of standardised testing may affect the choices a teacher makes in the classroom in relation to what is taught and how (National Council of Teachers of English, 2014). This is especially significant given the move to evidenced-based practice, the focus on data for accountability (Thompson & Cook, 2014b) and the monitoring of teachers to ensure quality. In a 2014 Courier Mail article, one teacher declared:

> I am a NAPLAN cheat. That is right. I am a teacher and a cheat. How I cheat is that I am preparing my Year 9 students for NAPLAN. I am drilling them on their punctuation, homophones, paragraphing and syntax … we have to suspend the teaching of Romeo and Juliet, because NAPLAN is more important. (Bantick, 2014)

Thompson and Cook (2014b) discussed the growing number of media reports on NAPLAN cheating and suggested that the changes to teachers' work brought about by standardised testing have created a new logic of teaching. This logic suggests that a quality teacher is one whose students achieve the best results. This has implications for what teachers do (Thompson & Cook, 2014).

The pressure on teachers to perform is heightened in the era of quality and standardisation. Teachers have to be seen to be improving students' outcomes, as teacher quality is connected to these outcomes (Hightower et al., 2011). The pressure to demonstrate high student achievement, at least on paper, has led to incidences of teachers interfering with the implementation and results of NAPLAN tests. These include, whereby teachers have been caught providing verbal prompts and handing students notes to change answers (McDougall & Dillon, 2011). In another incident, a principal interfered with the administration of NAPLAN by coaching students, requiring students to re-sit the test (Kinninment, 2012). In other instances, teachers changed students' responses (Powley, 2015).

The human capital model and GERM tend to focus on the performance quality of teachers and their effectiveness in producing student outcomes (Thompson & Cook, 2014a). Buchanan (2015) described the connection of teacher quality to student outcomes as the policy era within a new discourse of accountability, which is a characteristic of the 'neoliberal policies concerning marketisation, performativity and the enterprising individual' (Apple, 2001, p. 409). The targeting of neoliberal ideology in schools has seen a move to standards and standardisation to ensure accountability and performance (Davies & Bansel, 2007). The focus on quality and standardisation is evidenced by a range of initiatives supported by the Australian government, including the establishment of ACARA in 2008, which introduced a national approach to education; the introduction of NAP in 2008, to benchmark all Australian students' academic achievements; the introduction of the Tertiary Education Quality Standards Agency in 2011, to centralise the benchmarking of the quality and performance of universities; the introduction of the APSTs (AITSL, 2014), to benchmark the quality of all teachers; and Australia's involvement in PISA, to benchmark Australian education in relation to the rest of the world. These initiatives have increasingly created a sense among teachers that they are being de-professionalised under the guise of ever-more exacting standards to enhance professionalism (Bourke, Lidstone & Ryan, 2013).

The professionalism of teachers is a key consideration in the era of teacher quality and standardisation. According to Whitty (2000), teaching is rarely seen as a profession; but there is a shift towards the professionalisation of teaching as a broader trend in society (Lilja, 2014). However, Hargreaves (2000) suggested a need to differentiate between professionalism (i.e., improving the quality and standard of practice) and professionalisation (i.e., improving teachers' status and standing). In England, teacher professionalism is shaped by the professional standards, which are part of a government-imposed reform (Evans, 2011).

The struggle for teacher professionalism in the era of teacher quality and standardisation is seen in the move towards Initial Teacher Education (ITE) accreditation, the introduction of the APSTs and the reduction in teacher autonomy (Hargreaves, 2000). As Mockler (2005) observed, while the 'terrain of teacher professionalism is highly contested' (p. 734), the issue of control is central to the agenda. However, Whitty (2000) positioned this as an issue of trust. Sachs (2003) suggested that the only solution is a move to activist professionalism, rather than the current professionalisation that focuses on reducing teaching practice to a set of skills

and points of knowledge (Locke, Vulliamy, Webb & Hill, 2005) to which teachers are accountable. This is reflected in the ongoing tension between autonomy and accountability.

The tension between autonomy and accountability is evident in the struggle for teacher professionalism, particularly in the perception that teachers are technicians, implementers and compliant practitioners (Sachs, 2016). According to Pearson and Moomaw (2005), autonomy is a facet of job satisfaction and teacher professionalism. However, teachers often find it difficult to 'exercise their autonomy in the face of accountability systems that aim to reduce or eliminate their independent decision-making' (Webb, 2002, p. 48). This is where the tension emerges, for the aim of these systems is to reduce the decision-making required by teachers, as a form of governance, in the name of accountability, quality and standardisation.

The introduction of standardisation in the name of quality is another form of governance, and according to Brennan (2011), a 'national curriculum is a symptom of such governance' (p. 3). ACARA was a strategic move by the Australian government to develop a national approach to education, and NAP was introduced to ensure that state, territory and federal governments could measure the educational outcomes of all students in Australia. ACARA was also deemed responsible for the collection and reporting of related data (Ditchburn, 2012). These actions were a response to the *Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians* (Melbourne Declaration; MCEETYA, 2008). The Melbourne Declaration, signed by all ministers of education in Australia, sought to establish goals for education. These educational goals focused on improving educational outcomes for all young Australians through the promotion of a world-class curriculum and assessment, and enhanced quality. This required a shift in focus towards centralised governance to improve education.

This focus on improvement has influenced government reviews and policy, including the introduction of the Tertiary Education Quality Standards Agency, as a direct result of the recommendations from the *Review of Australian Higher Education* (Bradley report; Bradley et al., 2008). This review was launched to examine the future direction of the higher education sector and 'its ability to meet the needs of Australian society and [the] economy in the global market' (Zajda, 2013). The report found that Australia was losing ground within the global economy and suggested this was a result of the declining quality of the educational experience (Bradley et al., 2008). The Tertiary Education Quality Standards Agency was established through the *Tertiary*

Education Quality and Standards Act (2011) to centralise the benchmarking of the quality and performance of Australian Higher Education providers. This, along with the federal government providing funding support to universities through the *Higher Education Support Act* (2003), demonstrates the federal government's increased control over education, despite it being a state responsibility constitutionally (Commonwealth of Australia, 1900). This is also further evidence of the neoliberal agenda at play in the Australian education system, and reflects the emerging paradigm of accountability (Zajda, 2013).

The expansion of the federal government into the education sector, with the intent of improving quality, has been achieved through funding mechanisms connected to accountability measures set out in the National Education Agreement (Council of Australian Governments [COAG], 2011). This agreement establishes the objective that 'all students will acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to participate effectively in society and employment in a globalised economy' (COAG, 2011, p. 1). It is a significant document, as it presents a shared understanding between Australian state education ministers of what constitutes quality schooling, as well as the performance benchmarks and policy direction to achieve this. As a condition of receiving funds distributed by COAG, states must participate in NAP, which includes the standardised testing of literacy and numeracy via the NAPLAN test in Years 3, 5, 7 and 9. This test aims to provide an objective measure of individual student achievement across Australia (Cumming, 2013). This measurement of individuals reflects the political imperative that the growth of the individual aligns with the growth of the economy.

Concerns around the quality of education stem from societal and political expectations that view education as an important vehicle for individual and economic growth. Bahr and Mellor (2016) confirmed that education is seen politically as a 'vehicle for individual and national aspirations' (p. 5). These expectations led to the 'Education Revolution' (Rudd & Gillard, 2008), a scheme devised by the Australian Labor government and Federal Education Minister Julia Gillard and described as the 'biggest school reform agenda in history' (Holden, 2010, p. 1). This reform agenda was based on the view that greater transparency and accountability would lead to improved performance. Transparency was the key argument for the introduction of NAPLAN and the development of the MySchool website (ACARA, 2016). This site, released in 2010, contains all NAPLAN data since the commencement of the test in 2008, with an option for comparing between schools. However, while ACARA argue that the MySchool

website provides transparency, in effect it only provides a range of publicly available information regarding schools. Further, there is no evidence that there has been any sustained improvement in the areas that the reform agenda sought to address (Thompson, 2014b); that is, the quality of education (Holden, 2010) and the performance of students and schools.

Educational quality is defined in a range of ways. The United Children's Education Fund (UNICEF, 2000) support the view that there are many definitions of quality in education, testifying 'to the complexity and multifaceted nature of the concept' (p. 4). The UNICEF (2000) definition of quality education includes the learner, environment, content, process and outcomes. However, Rowe (2003) suggested that measures of quality are typically defined in terms of student achievement, literacy and numeracy. This is certainly the case for the standardised NAPLAN test, which has as its focus constant reporting on limited measures of student outcomes. Additionally, the focus is more often on the teacher. Darling-Hammond (2000) studied the variables that influence school achievement, and identified an emphasis on effective teaching as a key driver of quality education (Darling-Hammond, 2017). Further, as Warner (2016) highlighted, there is an assumption that improving teaching quality will improve student learning.

The assumption that student achievement is directly related to the quality of teaching and teachers is problematic because it ignores the complexity of the teaching and learning context. The problem with the discourse is that the teacher is prioritised above all other components (Biesta, 2008). According to Biesta (2015a), student achievement as a measure of quality narrows the perceived purpose of education. This has led to a shift in educational discourse and policy from the quality of education to the quality of the teacher (Santoro, Reid, Mayer & Singh, 2012; Treagust, Won, Petersen & Wynne, 2015).

The policy direction in Australia focusing on accountability and improving teacher quality follows from the findings of the *Quality of Education in Australia* report (Karmel report; Karmel, 1985), the federal government's investigation into the effectiveness of funding decisions in relation to education quality, and further evidence of the neoliberal agenda in Australian education. The influence of the Karmel report can be seen in the *Action Now: Classroom Ready Teachers* report (Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group, 2014), which focused on teacher quality as a driver of quality education, as well as in the Australian government report *Quality Schools,*

Quality Outcomes (2016), which connected education to economic performance and emphasised the need for high-quality teaching. The *Quality Schools, Quality Outcomes* report (Australian Government, 2016) builds on the *Action Now: Classroom Ready Teachers* (Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group, 2014) recommendations.

The *Action Now: Classroom Ready Teachers* report advocates for a high-quality education system through four pillars of success: teacher quality, school autonomy, engaging parents in education and strengthening curriculum (Australian Government, 2016, p. 1). The initial focus is on quality teaching, with an emphasis on initial teacher education under the leadership of AITSL, to raise the standards of pre-service teachers. These reports advance a human capital model of education in which education is the most important means of enhancing the quality of the workforce (Gillies, 2017). Cochran-Smith, Piazza and Power (2013, p. 11) suggested that the problem has shifted to the teacher and teacher education. Positioning teachers as the principle explanatory factor in student outcomes at the expense of other aspects of education is problematic (Biesta, 2008). This applies a productivity model, which quantifies inputs to outputs as a measure of performance (Becker, Bernhold, Beverungen, Kaling, Knackstedt, Lellek & Rauer, 2012,) to education, which ignores the diverse factors that influence teachers, teaching and student outcomes.

This view of teachers as the most significant factor in the outcomes of students, raised by Darling-Hammond (2000) and Hattie (2003), tends to disregard other factors that influence student performance and outcomes, such as socioeconomic status (Considine & Zappala, 2002). Additionally, Jain and Prasad (2018) identified that the school and family environments, family culture, the resources and infrastructure available, and exposure to mass media effects student performance. A study conducted by Eshiwani (1983) outlined factors influencing student outcomes, including class size, poor school facilities, inadequate time allocated to teaching and learning, and lack of school leadership. Geske and Ozola (2008) also found a range of factors outside a school's control affecting student outcomes, including household income level and education. This suggests that student outcomes cannot be tied solely to the teacher.

The view of the teacher as the most important factor has resulted from the application of human capital theory and the view that value can only be added through people (Baron & Armstrong, 2007). The focus on human capital in education has led to prioritising the teacher over teaching practice. This attempts to connect the quality of the teacher to the achievement of students, rather than to the effectiveness of teaching,

and ignores the complexity of classroom practices and outside influences. In the quality education scenario, the teacher is represented in government reviews and policies as the problem (Thompson & Cook, 2014a). The teacher-as-a-problem is a key part of research conducted by Leigh and Ryan (2008), who argued that the quality of teachers has changed over time. These authors linked this change in quality to the drop observed in their study in Year 9 academic achievement, and overall educational productivity, which they attributed to a drop in student academic aptitude. Zyngier (2009) suggested that if it is perceived that student achievement is low because teacher quality has dropped, then policymakers are left to believe that the fault lies with teachers, and subsequently the universities that train them (p. 3). This perception appears to be demonstrated in the centrality of the APSTs, described by AITSL as a depiction of a quality teacher, to ITE program accreditation (AITSL, 2016). The APSTs outline a continuum of quality from graduate to lead, where teachers demonstrate capacity against each level across the three domains of professional knowledge, practice and engagement.

To improve teaching, the process of accreditation of ITE programs was updated in 2016 to include new program standards and reference to the APSTs. In June 2016, the guidelines for teacher accreditation were updated based on the *Outcomes of the 2015 National ITE Accreditation Panel Review* (AITSL, 2015) and the *Action Now* report (2014), which recommended enhancing the quality assurance of ITE programs, especially in relation to the rigour of accreditation. The 2015 review found a need for improvements in the process, leading to increased scrutiny of ITE programs. Bahr and Mellor (2016) suggested that higher education institutions are attempting to find a balance between compliance and innovation, intensified by the program standards for ITE. While the need for accountability, especially in relation to government funding, seems reasonable, there are questions as to whether evaluation against the APSTs alone is sufficient to determine whether an ITE program is creating quality teachers. Bahr and Mellor (2016) equated these standards to a 'set of competency-based behaviours more aligned with the post-war era and the massification of education' (p. v). Further, the restrictions placed on quality teachers, through the lens of the APSTs (AITSL, 2014), potentially have implications for teacher agency and teaching practice, and the professionalism of teachers.

Attention on improving teacher quality is prevalent in educational policy (Australian Government, 2016; Department of Education, Science and Training, 2002;

Karmel, 1985; Schools Council for the National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1989), the media (Bahr & Mellor, 2016) and research, all which considers quality in relation to the current political climate (Bahr & Mellor, 2016), quality in relation to teacher training and student achievement (Harris & Sass, 2011), and the role of professional standards (Santoro et al., 2012). This attention on quality is due to the uncertainty from the shifting landscape of teaching, which Bahr and Mellor (2016) suggested has led governments to increase regulation. This increased regulation can be seen in the introduction of the APSTs in an attempt to regulate quality.

The introduction of the APSTs, and the description of competency from graduate to lead, binds the image of quality teaching practice by suggesting that the knowledge, engagement and practices outlined in the standards are all that is required to effectively teach. Biesta (2015a) noted 'that we encounter problems in the ways in which the professional space for teachers is constructed and "policed". They [the APSTs] often limit rather than enhance the scope for teacher professional judgement' (p. 81). While the APSTs can be perceived as policing teaching, admittedly the aspects of teaching contained within them are useful for teachers. However, the APSTs do not consider the complexities of the teaching context, the unique contribution of each teacher and teachers' relationships with their students. The introduction of the APSTs has redirected the focus from a holistic view of education to one solely focused on teachers and how they compare against a set of standards.

The APSTs are insufficient to understand the entirety of quality teaching. Bahr and Mellor (2016) suggested that:

> Teachers' roles have been constrained into a set of competency-like behaviours that dictate the knowledge and capacities required to become a teacher. How this reductionist approach to dictating the quality of teachers is likely to enhance the education of young people is a debate that is currently underway in Australia (p. iv).

The complex and personal nature of teaching cannot be defined by technical and standardised measurement. As Noddings (2003) said, 'we affect the lives of students not just in what we teach them by way of subject matter but in how we relate to them as persons' (p. 249). This idea of care is diluted in the image of teaching portrayed by the APSTs, and ironically is barely acknowledged in the APST domain of professional knowledge, which requires teachers to know their students and how they learn.

Immordino-Yang and Damasio (2007) suggested that there is more to teaching than 'rational, disembodied systems somehow detached from emotions', and that 'any competent teacher recognises that emotions and feelings affect students' performance and learning' (p. 116). However, while the simple solution would be to increase the APSTs to accommodate the dimensions Immordino-Yang and Damasio (2007) described, there is still the consideration of how the APSTs would dictate these capacities and how the connection should be made between quality teachers and student's outcomes. This is part of a complex debate that is prevalent in the research literature, and which this thesis seeks to engage with, due to the problematic nature of the connections made between ITE, teacher quality and student outcomes in relation to standardised testing.

1.2 Research Problem

The APSTs are a set of standards that seek to describe and define quality teachers across a continuum of competence comprising graduate, proficient, highly accomplished and lead levels across the domains of professional knowledge, practice and engagement (AITSL, 2014). Through these levels and domains, the APSTs simplify teaching into technical elements (Clarke & Moore, 2013), as measures of accountability, without challenging whether this is the only image of a quality teacher that can or should be held. This necessitates further investigation into the question of who decides what makes a quality teacher and who decides what quality teaching is.

While questions can be asked about who decides what quality is, any such limits have implications for the teacher and teaching practice. Teaching practice is further influenced by the increased bureaucracy of teaching (Balla & Gormley, 2017; Comber & Nixon, 2009), which itself stems from the idea of standardisation, arising from the quality education debate. The bureaucracy of teaching can be seen in the introduction of the APSTs and C2C in Queensland, which is a standardised version of the Australian Curriculum, and whole-school pedagogical approaches (Queensland Curriculum and Assessment Authority, 2019), such as explicit teaching.

The move to the APSTs as instituted by AITSL, the C2C by the State Schools Division of Education Queensland and whole-school pedagogical approaches implemented by school leadership are all part of an effort to raise the quality of teaching practice and ensure measurable effects on student outcomes. However, this raises questions as to the autonomy and agency of teachers and particularly the affective

dimension of teaching. This increased focus on the technical elements of teaching (Ball, 2003, 2012; Clarke & Moore, 2013) potentially discards the affective aspects of teaching, diminishes teacher agency, leads teachers to doubt their own judgements and causes them to feel pressured to conform to prescribed standards and political expectations (Moore & Clarke, 2016). While it could be argued that teachers' autonomy, with teachers teaching how they want, is problematic, ignoring teachers' autonomy and agency also has serious implications. Priestly, Biesta and Robinson (2012) suggested that policy often constrains teachers and cannot possibly take into account all their actions and practices. The need for increased student academic outcomes cannot be done without consideration of teacher agency in constructing the everyday practices of the classroom, and in turn the teacher's own image of themselves as a quality teacher.

1.3 Research Aims and Significance

This study first aims to understand the images teachers hold of themselves as quality teachers. This provides an opportunity to explore the complex factors affecting the development of these images which may also provide insight into how teachers view quality teaching practices. Second, this study aims to understand the era of quality and standardisation that has led to the APSTs being used as a measure of teacher quality. Finally, how teachers navigate this continuum of quality in relation to their own image of a quality teacher is considered. This study adds to the quality teacher debate, particularly as concerns the implications of an imposed continuum of quality for teachers' autonomy and agency and by extension their teaching practices.

The significance of this thesis is in its insights into understanding the effect of external and imposed standards such as the APSTs on images of teacher quality and resultant teaching practices. This thesis highlights the challenges that teachers face when 'official' images of quality—such as represented through the APSTs—differ from their own, and how their responses to these challenges manifest in their teaching practices. In addition, this thesis provides further insights into whether increased surveillance and decreased autonomy has redefined teaching practice and the images of quality that teachers hold. This study investigated whether the APSTs have redefined quality teaching and teachers, or whether teachers' own images of quality have prevailed.

1.4 Research Questions

Central to this thesis is the exploration of whether a single image of teacher quality, such as promoted by the APSTs, has the capacity to inform or modify teaching practices. This thesis questions whether there can, or should, be just one image of a quality teacher. The overarching research question is:

- *How do teachers view themselves and their practice in an era of quality and standardisation?*

The sub-research questions are:

- *What images of self and teaching practice do teachers hold?*

- *What are the challenges facing teachers in this era of quality and standardisation?*

- *How do teachers navigate the 'quality teacher' agenda?*

1.5 Research Methodology

To investigate these questions, an interpretative qualitative case study was used, as it appropriately aligned with the onto-epistemological perspective, in which knowledge is seen as simultaneously being and becoming (Aronowitz & Ausch, 2000). Knowledge creation is a process. Barad (2003) stated that meaning is not fixed, nor a property of words; rather, it is an ongoing performance. This is a key determinant underpinning my understanding of knowledge creation; that rather than representing fixed meanings, it is a practice of becoming. This understanding influenced the decision to use an emerging approach to data analysis within an interpretative qualitative case study, as this methodology provides sufficient flexibility for an onto-epistemological standpoint.

An interpretative case study is recommended when the focus of the research is on discovering the characteristics of a particular phenomenon (Hancock & Algozzine, 2016), which in this research are the images of teacher quality. According to Ponelis (2015), an interpretative qualitative case study can be used to conduct research regardless of the research paradigm. Therefore, an interpretative qualitative case study allows for the emergence of the research design and the use of multiple data sources, especially when 'how' questions are the focus of the investigation (Baškarada, 2014).

Using this methodology ensured that interviews, artefacts of teaching including personal philosophy and professional experience reports as well as evaluations against the APSTs could be included as sources of data to understand the images of teacher quality held by the participants and the implications for their teaching practice. This has enabled the development of a more in-depth view of teacher quality. The use of professional experience reports and personal philosophy statements enable understanding of the images of self and practice that is held

Using an interpretative case study provided the flexibility to 'uncover and explore issues that emerged as interesting and potentially relevant to the research problem' (Ponelis, 2015, p. 546). This is an important requirement of a methodology that uses an onto-epistemological perspective. Further, it provided a framework for capturing rich descriptions of the teacher participants' own images of the quality teacher.

1.6 Overview of Thesis

This thesis is divided into seven chapters. This first chapter has provided the context and background to the research problem and presented the research questions. The methodology and research design have also been outlined to describe how these questions are considered in this study.

Chapter 2 presents the literature review, which analyses current research on the era of quality and standardisation with consideration of the reviews into teaching and teacher education that have resulted in the measurement of teachers and teaching. This chapter positions this thesis within the debate around whether the era of quality and standardisation has generated mechanisms of quality or control over teachers, and considers what is currently known of the effect this has had on teachers' images of self and practice. The effects on teaching are considered through the lens of performativity, and it is suggested that there has been an eroding of teacher autonomy, agency and professionalism. Significantly, these conclusions are then explored in relation to how teaching is being reshaped. Finally, this chapter identifies the limited consideration given in research to the images of self and teaching held by teachers especially within a performative agenda that seeks to reshape teachers and teaching.

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology and research design of this study. It explores the onto-epistemological perspective that informs this thesis, and describes the influence

of this perspective on the development of the research design. The participants, case study design and emerging data analysis process used are also detailed. Further, this chapter identifies the limitations and ethical considerations of this study.

Chapter 4 presents the research data and analysis on the teachers' images of self in teaching, organised around the themes that emerged from the analysis. Insight is given into the images of the quality teacher held by each participant and the implications these have for their view of their own practice. Further, this chapter analyses each teacher's images of a quality teacher and how they navigate the era of quality and standardisation. Chapter 5 extends on Chapter 4 by considering how images of self in teaching change when the APSTs are considered. In this chapter, data are analysed and framed around the knowledge, practice and engagement domains of the APSTs.

Chapter 6 discusses the findings for each research question, with the discussion divided between teacher performance and managerial accountability; teacher attrition and retention; and teacher autonomy and agency. Finally, Chapter 7 concludes this thesis with consideration of the implications of the findings for the teaching profession, the research's limitations and potential avenues for further research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Teaching in an Era of Quality and Standardisation

Teaching has been the focus of myriad Australian government reviews. Aspland (2006) explained that teachers and teacher education have been under intense scrutiny since the decline of public confidence in education and teachers in the 1970s (Aspland, 2006). This has resulted in numerous reviews of education, continual educational reform and ongoing scrutiny of the status of teachers. The *Top of the Class* House of Representatives inquiry (Commonwealth of Australia, 2007) identified 101 reviews of education between 1979 and 2006 alone. These reviews and the resultant policy changes have been underpinned by concerns around the quality of education, teaching, teachers and teacher education.

The concern over education stems from the links made between education and issues in society. Friedman (1955) suggested that education contributes to a stable society, which is built on common values and a 'minimum degree of literacy and knowledge on the part of most citizens' (p. 2). This has been the justification for government intervention and the fundamental shift in educational policies Friedman, 1955). Educational reviews, reports and government policies have contributed to the shifting landscape of education.

The ongoing shifting landscape of education is explored in relation to the era of teacher quality and standardisation. The 'era of quality and standardisation' was drawn from the descriptors highlighted by Aspland (2006), who examined the historical development of teaching and teacher education in Australia since colonisation, identifying a series of eras based on the changing policy landscape. The concept of the era of quality and standardisation has been elaborated by studies such as Ball (2012), Meadmore (2010), Kostogriz (2012) and Ozga (2013), who connected the developing policy landscape of education in Australia and overseas and the shifts in governing practices and accountability measures.

The shifting landscape, within the era of quality and standardisation, has implications for teaching and teachers themselves. These include the shift to viewing teachers as the most important aspect of education, the push for education to remain globally competitive, the move to professionalise teachers and teaching, and the

emphasis on measuring teaching and teacher quality in relation to student outcomes and standards for teaching. These implications were the impetus for the research questions of this thesis around exploring how teachers view themselves and their practice in this era along with how they navigate the quality agenda. Each of these implications is explored in this chapter; however, it is important to first present the historical development of education in Australia, to recognise what has led to this era of teacher quality and standardisation.

2.1 The Shifting Landscape of Education

The historical development of education aligns with the progression of the Australian economy and provides insight into the shifting landscape of education. Marginson (1993) found that government reports in the 1980s tended to merge education with the economy. This was the key message from the 1988 Ministerial Conference of the OECD and was evident in the Dawkins (1987) report, *The Challenge for Higher Education in Australia*, which outlined a restructuring of higher education to support the needs of the growing economy, with a particular emphasis on teachers. This message has remained prevalent in policy documents in Australia over the last 40 years, with little consideration of whether this should be the purpose of education.

The historical development of education provides insight into how educational policy in Australia has shifted in focus to consideration of the teacher as the most important resource to ensure a system of quality education. However, the idea of quality was not discussed until the 1980s, when the causal link was made between the competitiveness of the Australian economy and the quality of the education system and therefore teachers (Karmel, 1985). This causal link is highly problematic and requires close examination, to determine whether any advancement in the profile of education in Australia can be attributed to policy changes increasing the governance of teacher training or the move to standardised measures.

The emphasis on the importance of education for the economy combined with the post-war population boom drew attention to the training of teachers (Mayer, 2014). At the time of the Dawkins (1987) report, teachers were trained on the job within an apprenticeship model. High demand for teachers necessitated a move away from this model (Mayer, 2014). However, questions regarding the effectiveness and, later, quality of this model were already being raised in the 1970s and 1980s. Efforts to improve the effectiveness of education and teachers saw the transition from the apprenticeship

model to teacher training and then to university education, which was meant to consolidate education as a discipline (Campbell & Sherington, 2002). However, it was not until the 1990s that the focus shifted from teacher effectiveness to the quality of teachers, leading to the emergence of the policy problem of how to measure teachers' knowledge against student outcomes (Cochran-Smith, 2005a).

The marketisation of education and teacher quality as a policy problem emerged in the 1990s with the introduction of a new distribution funding model (Chesters, 2018). The resulting introduction of competition between schools and 'business logic to school governance' marked the turning point towards the era of quality and standardisation (Hogan & Thompson, 2019, p. 1). It is this change in how education was viewed that shifted the focus of government policy to teacher quality, to ensure effective education that remained competitive.

The transition from the apprenticeship model to university education was initiated by the Martin report, *Tertiary Education in Australia* (Committee on the Future of Tertiary Education in Australia, 1964), which sought to professionalise teachers and bring teaching into the higher education sector. Furlong, Whitty, Whiting, Miles and Barton (2000) suggested that one way of influencing the professionalism of teachers is to change the form and content of teacher education. The move from teachers' colleges to universities saw a shift from state to federal funding of teacher education, which in turn put pressure on teacher education as a result of federal government policies (Dyson, 2005).

Along with this critical shift came the *National Inquiry into Teacher Education* (Auchmuty, 1980), which advocated for minimum academic standards for teacher education students. This was followed by the Dawkins (1987) review, which led to university status for teacher education, fundamentally changing how teaching was conceptualised. This moved teaching out of the vocational context (Mayer, 2014), where during the apprenticeship era training had been the domain of teachers' colleges and connected to schools. While this shift to university education was expected to raise the status of teachers, the professional status of teachers remains in question today (Masters, 2012).

The status of teachers in society has been the basis of reviews into teacher education and is fundamental to the Australian government's need to remain competitive in relation to the rest of the world. The Dawkins (1987) review first

signalled the need for Australia to remain competitive, highlighting the relationship between economic success and education. This laid the foundation for the neoliberal agenda, which seeks to measure success and treats students as stakeholders and the outcomes of learning as products in the quest to improve Australia's competitiveness in the global marketplace (Zajda, 2013). It is these shifting priorities and motivations that have led to concerns over the quality of education.

The push to remain competitive is evident in the Bradley report (Bradley et al., 2008), which suggested that the quality of education is in decline. Ongoing reviews of education have led to a range of inquiries into the status and quality of the teaching profession. One such review was the Karmel (1985) report into the quality of education in Australia, which found that the Australian economy is highly dependent on a skilled workforce and the quality of the education system. The Karmel report (1985) reiterated the need for education, in particular schools, to reconsider the purpose of schooling and determine some measurable objectives. Additionally, the Karmel report (1985) determined that a quality education system needed 'well educated, adaptive and innovative teachers who must be able to provide high-quality schooling' (p. 116). Significantly, this report referred to investment and performance in relation to teachers and identified teachers as the problem in the quality education scenario. The suggestion in the Karmel report (1985) was that teachers were not demonstrating the skills necessary for a quality education system.

While the Karmel report (1985) focused on teachers' role in ensuring educational quality, the emphasis was on their knowledge and skill and how they were taught to teach. Cochran-Smith (2005b) suggested that this was a stepping stone to the shift in the 1990s from the inputs to outcomes of teacher education justified by the need for accountability of public funds. This shift was instrumental to the development of the era of quality and standardisation, and the continued problematic focus on the teacher as the most important factor affecting the outcome of students' learning in relation to standardised testing.

The importance of the role of the teacher has been an ongoing focus of educational reviews from the 1990s to the present day. One such review, *A Class Act: Inquiry into the Status of the Profession* (Commonwealth of Australia, 1998) recommended that the federal government create national professional standards for teachers, along with registering bodies to accredit both teachers and ITE programs. Both *Class Act* and the report *Australian Teachers: An Agenda for the Next Decade* (National

Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1990) responded to the need to improve and reward effective teaching. *Australian Teachers* contended that teachers are susceptible to criticism, and highlighted the need for more data. These reviews and resultant reports aimed to combat the declining confidence in teaching and teachers. Each contributed to the standardisation of teaching that became part of the language of teaching through to the current day.

The view that teaching is in decline comes from the correlation between teaching and student learning outcomes. This idea has been prevalent in the research literature, with 'nearly universal agreement that teacher quality matters in terms of student achievement' (Goe, 2007). The direction of education policy into the 1990s was based on this supposition. Cochran-Smith (2005b) called this the 'outcome trap' which:

> is the working theory that evaluating policies and programs related to teacher education on the basis of test scores will bring about major teacher education reforms and ultimately solve the teacher education problem. (p. 141)

It is this assumption that quality teacher and student learning equate to increased standardised test scores (Cochran-Smith, 2005a) on which current educational policies are unreflexively based.

The 1990s saw the advent of the era of quality and standardisation, actualised through the National Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians (Adelaide Declaration; MCEETYA, 1999), which framed the move to a national quality teaching framework. A critical outcome of this national collaboration was *A National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching* (MCEETYA, 2003), based on research on teacher quality (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Rowe, 2003). What was significant about this report was the view that the 'responsibility for delivering the highest quality education rests personally and collectively with teachers' (MCEETYA, 2003, p. 8). This formed the basis of the APSTs. Importantly, while the National Framework states that the APSTs are not intended or even capable of capturing the complexity of teaching, this statement is missing in the APST document. Either way, the APSTs are clearly intended as an attempt to define quality teaching.

Measuring quality teaching was the focus of more recent policies, including the *Action Now: Classroom Ready Teachers* (Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group, 2014) and *Quality Schools Quality Outcomes* reports (Australian Government, 2016). These policy documents supported the implementation of the APSTs as one

mechanism of quality. The APSTs are the public statement of what constitutes a quality teacher (AITSL, 2014) and are used as a framework for teacher registration and ITE accreditation.

The APSTs provide a description of quality teaching across the domains of professional practice, engagement and learning, identifying a continuum of quality from graduate to lead level. However, the APSTs have attracted criticism over whether they are mechanisms of quality or of control within the education system (Bahr & Mellor, 2016). Bahr and Mellor (2016) suggested that 'teachers' roles have been constrained [by the APSTs] into a set of competency-like behaviours that dictate the knowledge and capacities required to become a teacher', which is problematic given that 'the correlation between regulation of the profession and enhanced quality outcomes for students is highly contestable' (p. iv). This is significant given that current policy and educational reforms are underpinned by the view that quality teaching is based on the quality of the teacher (Darling-Hammond, 2017).

This chapter considers the research conducted on quality teaching. This review of the literature also examines the implications of the current era of quality and standardisation evidenced by the increased accountability, transparency and concomitant reduction in teacher agency, de-professionalisation of teachers and remapping of the purpose of education. Considering these aspects of the era of quality and standardisation helps to position the discussion of the effect that these have on the images that teachers hold of themselves and their practices as they navigate the era of quality and standardisation.

2.2 Quality, Standards and Standardisation

Quality, standards and standardisation have increasingly pervaded Australian educational reform and policies. This section considers the interconnectedness between these three areas and the implications for educational policy. Mundy et al. (2016) suggested that education reform has moved from being a local consideration to a global movement due to the competition and change that has been 'a pre-occupation of governments from the 1980s onwards' (p. 5). Sahlberg (2016) argued this competitiveness is a direct result of globalisation. The educational policies of governments around the world are informed by global educational policy (Lingard & Rizvi, 2010). Lingard and Rizvi (2010) suggested that global concerns have a greater effect on local policy issues than ever before and often mask whose interests are

represented. This creates issues in education when educational planning interests are not considered. According to Haddad (2006. p. 9), 'it is [these] decisions that will be guided or constrained' by policy, yet they 'play a passive role in the policy-making process'. This is problematic at a time when global concerns are highly influential on educational policy.

Educational reform and policy agendas focus on more global concerns. This globalised view of education has left governments across the world seeking to reform education to ensure that their countries remain economically competitive (Lingard & Rizvi, 2010). This is particularly the case in OECD countries, where comparisons are drawn through PISA. Invargson (2013) suggested that the current reform agenda is an example of the issue identified by Elmore (2011), that educational policy is the problem and not the solution in education. While Elmore (2011) was considering policy in general terms, the reform agenda is evident through the various Australian education policies already described in this chapter. One such policy document is *Quality Schools Quality Outcomes* (Australian Government, 2016), which focused on educational quality and highlights the evolving government agenda.

This policy agenda includes the creation of mechanisms to ensure the capacity to benchmark quality teaching and teachers. According to Mundy et al. (2016), standardisation is one of these mechanisms, drawn from the quality teaching debate, and is evident in external benchmarking measures such as PISA, the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Studies and the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study. Standardisation is unreflexively used as a mechanism to compare particular groups, and even countries, and is invariably used to inform the direction of educational policy (Jeffrey, 2002; Ozga, 2013; Thompson & Cook, 2014a).

Globally, education policy directions are influenced by the results of standardised measures. According to Nerland and Karseth (2015), standardisation is the 'process of constructing uniformity across time and space, through the generation of agreed-upon rules' (p. 5). In the case of education and teaching, standardisation is evident in the use of the APSTs and students' NAPLAN results to measure teacher quality. Thompson and Cook (2014b) described this situation as a convergence of approaches to monitoring and improving education, both in relation to teacher performance and student results.

The shift to considering teacher performance in relation to standardised measures such as student testing suggests that education has taken on a market logic. Nerland and Karseth (2015) contended that this logic is contributing to the view that 'actions can be justified by referring to some kind of evidence or universal knowledge' (p. 2) and referred to this market logic as neoliberalism, which pervades what teachers do and how teachers think. Neoliberalism moves beyond influencing just thinking as the emphasis has now shifted to a market logic and on measurable products in educational policy (Webb, Briscoe & Mussman, 2009). The effects of this neoliberal logic are evident in the privatisation, marketisation and performativity within educational policy (Apple, 2001). Neoliberalism is also seen in the language used in educational policy, which refers to students and parents as 'stakeholders', calls for measurable outputs and productivity, and quotes the Productivity Commission as supporting the need for high-quality schooling (Australian Government, 2016). The neoliberal agenda is also realised in policy documents such as the Melbourne Declaration (MCEETYA, 2008), with its focus on global competitiveness and performativity.

The performative neoliberal agenda underpins the move to standards for teachers. Performativity in the form of standards suggests a shared knowledge and established practices within the profession of teaching (Nerland & Karseth, 2015). However, while the motivation to adopt the performative measures of the standards was to improve teacher quality and teacher performance appraisal (Mulcahy, 2011), the standards themselves produce practices and knowledge that influence teachers and teaching, and the school structures in which measuring outcomes and an emphasis on accountability is key.

It could be argued that the move to establish performative practices is a direct result of neoliberalism, the economic marketised restructuring of schools, and the need to see efficiencies and accountability in education (Jeffrey, 2002). Ball (2012) suggested that performativity is less about experience and more about accountability for productivity. The effect of performativity is 'to reorient pedagogical and scholarly activities towards those which are likely to have a positive impact on performance outcomes' (Ball, 2012, p. 20). Thus, the performative discourse can be viewed as imposed on teachers through systemic measures introduced for accountability purposes (Biesta, 2004).

The rhetoric around accountability emanates from the pressure on the teaching profession to demonstrate quality teaching to colleagues, parents and the wider

community as part of professional practice (Biesta, 2004). The development of teaching standards has been on the political agenda since the 1960s, with teacher organisations advocating for a register of teachers, with a view to their greater recognition as professionals. Compulsory teacher registration was introduced in Queensland on 1 January 1975 through the *Education (Teacher Registration) Act* 1971. The original intent was for a 'significant degree of self-regulation for teachers in matters relating to the professional standards of the teaching profession in Queensland' (Queensland Government, 1989).

The pressure to enhance teaching quality was further underpinned by the policies of the 1970s and 1980s, including the Dawkins report (Dawkins, 1987, 1988), the Karmel review (Karmel, 1985) and the OECD (2005) report, *The Condition of Teaching*. These connected the quality of teaching, teachers and schools to a healthy, thriving economy. This chain of causation became the impetus for further reviews and policies on the quality of education in Australia. However, while the value of knowledge to economic productivity is evident (Peters & Humes, 2003), as is the role of schools in knowledge production, there is limited research to connect 'the contribution of individual teachers with student achievements' (Goe, 2007). This suggests that the above-mentioned chain of causation may be dubious; yet there has been limited consideration of this, and the inquiries into the status and quality of teachers and teaching continue.

The Class Act: An Inquiry into the Status of the Teaching Profession (Commonwealth of Australia, 1998) was a significant inquiry into the quality of teachers and teaching as it recommended that the federal government facilitate the development of national teaching standards and a registering body to combat the declining confidence in teaching and teachers. Further, in 1989 (in Hobart), and again in 1999 (in Adelaide), state, territory and federal ministers of education met to commit to working together around goals for high-quality schooling. The Adelaide Declaration (MCEETYA, 1999) committed to enhancing the status and quality of the teaching profession. This formed the basis for the 2003 *National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching* (MCEETYA, 2003), which sought to frame national standards for teaching that aligned with the national goals for schooling.

In addition to the Adelaide Declaration, a further document, the Melbourne Declaration, was developed in 2008, which taken together framed the governments' commitment to working together around determined national goals for high-quality

schooling, and national standards for teaching that aligned to them. These standards initiated a focus on standardised measurement of quality within the school system, which was in turn informed by *The National Reporting on Schooling in Australia* (MCEETYA, 2009) report, which outlined a commitment to action with a focus on quality teaching and school leadership stemming from the Melbourne Declaration. This report identified a four-year plan aligned to COAG and other national agreements that aimed to establish a consistent national framework for quality education, and that included agreed strategies focusing on developing new professional standards, rewarding quality teaching and improving pay for quality teaching (MCEETYA, 2009). The result was a *National Partnership Agreement* on improving teacher quality (MCEETYA, 2009).

The mechanisms of quality were developed with the underlying premise that quality teaching leads to quality outcomes for students, resulting in the enhancement of the status and quality of teachers. The taskforce that grew out of the Melbourne Declaration (MCEETYA, 2008) and the *Top of the Class* inquiry (Commonwealth of Australia, 2007) led the development of the APSTs, which were endorsed by MCEEDYA in 2010. AITSL assumed responsibility for the finalisation of the APSTs in 2010.

The APSTs were not the first set of teacher standards to be introduced in Australia. Before 2010, each state and territory had their own professional standards. For example, in Queensland, 12 standards were piloted in 2002 (Mayer, Mitchell, Macdonald, Land & Luke, 2003), with 10 standards forming the final *Professional Standards for Queensland Teachers* (Queensland College of Teachers [QCT], 2006). The *Education (Queensland College of Teachers) Bill (Qld)* 2005 introduced the QCT and the basing of teacher registration and renewal in these professional standards. The Queensland standards were organised in three clusters: teaching and learning, relationships, and reflective practice (QCT, 2006). The 2005 Bill emphasised continual professional learning and endorsed the *National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching* (MCEETYA, 2003), which focused on a national cooperative approach.

Both the *Professional Standards for Queensland Teachers* and the *National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching* focus on the suitability and quality of teachers. The National Framework sought to address the need for a national definition of good teaching (Invargson, 2002) and criteria of quality that could influence pre-service teacher courses. Invargson's (2002) report was part of a broader discussion

of teacher quality led by the Teacher Quality and Educational Leadership Taskforce (TQELT) and resulted in the framework shown in Figure 1, which identified four career dimensions connecting with four professional elements.
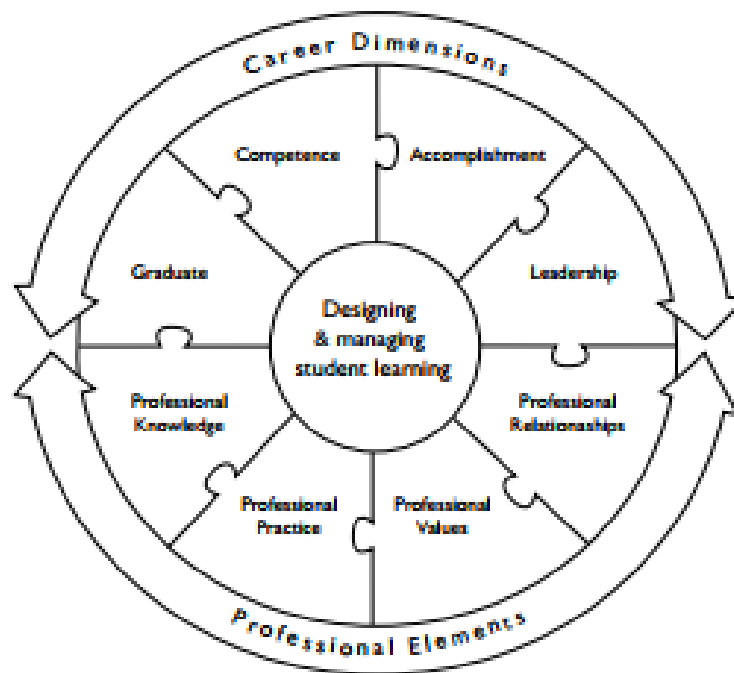
Figure 1. National Framework career stages (Invargson, 2002).

The formulation of this framework, later called a model of National Professional Standards, drew from the work already completed by each state and territory on state standards, and was conducted in consultation with professional associations and their members. A change of government brought an end to the TQELT and the introduction of Teaching Australia: AITSL, which provided opportunity for further consultation (Teaching Australia, 2007).

In 2011, after consultation with stakeholders across all jurisdictions, AITSL introduced the APSTs (Call, 2018). The APSTs were framed with the view that the standards could be used for selecting pre-service teachers, informing teacher education programs and appraising performance. Call (2018) suggested that the standards could either be regulatory or developmental. Given the move to using the standards for performance appraisal, it could be argued that the APSTs are more regulatory, with a focus on accountability. Biesta (2004) posits that accountability can be interpreted in two ways: as compliance and as being answerable, with some overlap between them. Ball (2012) contended that auditing performance and productivity is the reality of

governing education. This, while standards may be necessary in facilitating the demonstration of good practice, in the current era of quality and standardisation they act more as a measure of compliance and accountability.

Before the introduction of the APSTs, accountability for teachers lay first with inspectors and later with teachers themselves guided by state-based professional standards for teachers. In the early years of public education in the 1970s in Australia, inspectors observed teachers to assess their competence. The abolishment of inspectors led to a period of 30 years during which there was no direct observation of teachers for accountability of practice (Tuinamuana, 2011). Over the years, other methods were trialled and deemed ineffective, giving rise to the discussion of professional standards for teachers. However, at this time, the focus was the value of standards for informing teacher promotion (Tuinamuana, 2011).

While there have been written standards for teachers in some form since 1971, coinciding with the introduction of teacher registration and minimum requirements, the move to national standards is significant not just in typifying standards of quality, but as a measure of compliance and accountability for teachers. However, it was not until after the Adey report, *Preparing a Profession: Report of the National Standards and Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Project* (1998), which recommended teaching standards, that New South Wales, Queensland and Victoria established their own teaching standards (Board of Teacher Registration, 2005). Underpinning this move is the fact that accountability is part of 'the landscape of both schooling and teacher education around the world' (Tuinamuana, 2011, p. 72), and helps to 'promote excellence in teaching and provide a nationally consistent basis for recognising quality teaching' (AITSL, 2011).

Quality teaching is often considered synonymous with good teaching (Naylor & Sayad, 2014). According to McArdle (2010), ideas about good teaching can be folkloric and are typically drawn from one's memories of schooling (p. 60). Therefore, while there is much discussion around improving quality (Darling-Hammond, 2000), there are differing views of what quality means. Naylor and Sayad (2014) stated that teacher quality is contested, with multiple meanings, and can include the academic ability of teachers, classroom practice and student achievement. Cochran-Smith (2002) highlighted that 'the public view of quality is on the knowhow of teachers and their ability to relate to students and makes an interesting comparison to other definitions of

teacher quality' (p. 92). Thus, while teacher quality is foregrounded in educational debate, the definition remains controversial.

Cochran-Smith et al. (2012) suggested that the controversy around teacher quality is in relation to teacher selection, preparation and licensing. However, teacher performance is also considered an indicator, with calls to measure this quality (e.g., Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005; Invargson, 2002; Invargson & Rowe, 2007). Invargson and Rowe (2007) suggested that standards serve as a tool for gathering evidence of teacher quality and assessing teachers' performance. However, Goe (2007) contended that teacher quality 'may need to be defined differently for different purposes' (p. 1). The confusion between teacher quality and teaching quality is evident. Goe (2007) defined teacher quality as 'a set of inputs that serves as indicators of who will be successful in the classroom' and teaching quality as 'what they do in the classroom' (p. 8). This definition allows for differentiation between the person who teaches and what they do in the classroom.

Differentiating between the teacher and teaching is an important consideration of this thesis, for while the APSTs are seen as a measure of quality and a tool to assess teachers' performance (AITSL, 2014), it is not clear how the APSTs influence teachers' perceptions of themselves in teaching or affect their teaching practice. This is especially significant given that the APSTs are purported to define the 'attributes and practices of effective teaching' (AITSL, 2011) and have been developed with limited 'empirical evidence that their implementation will raise the quality of teachers and education' (Hudson, Hudson, Weatherby-Fell & Shipway, 2016, p. 137).

The APSTs have developed out of the performative agenda and it is important to note that measuring performance is necessary in this context. However, it is also a reductionist methodology that tends to govern and regulate (Ozga, 2013). This governance is seen in increased surveillance, which is evident in the numerous reviews over the past decade in which standards and other measures of accountability have been key components. This has resulted in a clear and direct connection being made between accountability and quality (McArdle, 2010).

While this section has outlined the connection between standardisation, standards and quality, further consideration needs to be given to the term 'quality'. Quality in education is defined in a range of ways, as mentioned above, but can also be defined in relation to the evidence of student achievement, especially through

standardised tests. Quality within the frame of standardisation is problematic, for standardisation is about conforming and limiting performance to what can be measured and narrows teachers' attention to standardised measures of learning (Hardy, 2017). The use of metrics to measure quality in relation to teaching and teachers to determine the effect of teaching on student results seems to now be embedded in policy. However, Anagnostopoulos, Lingard and Sellar (2016) suggested that as educational processes are reduced to numerical ratings and rankings, the 'kind of education one thinks is possible' is also narrowed (p. 343). The next section will explore the APSTs and their contested relationship with good teaching.

2.3 The Era of Teacher Quality and Standardisation

The era of quality and standardisation has been developing over the past 40 years, and is evidenced by the gathering momentum of the educational research and policy (Biesta, 2008). Concerns around the quality of education stem from societal and political expectations of education as a medium for individual and economic growth. Bahr and Mellor (2016) confirmed that education is viewed politically as a 'vehicle for individual and national aspirations' and a 'key political driver in Australia' (p. 5). Therefore, educational reviews and policy changes have focused on improving the academic achievement of students in Australia, within a local and global context (Zajda, 2015). Policy emphasises a direct correlation between the academic achievement of students and the status and productivity of the Australian economy, which Cochran-Smith (2005a) suggested is part of the problem, as it is 'too simplistic a way to conceptualise the complexities of teaching and learning' (p. 414). However, policies continue to target higher education and link to the knowledge and skills required by the labour market (Turner, 2013). McMahon-Coleman, Percy and James (2012) suggested that education has become a vehicle for social and economic change. This view of education clearly positions schooling and its purposes within a performative agenda (Ball, 2015).

The focus on higher education reform in relation to education is based on the view that preparation is one aspect of ensuring quality teachers. As Aspland (2006) highlighted, the government investigations have looked at the preparedness of teachers to meet the demands of teaching. The focus on teacher education and quality has historical roots; however, there is growing interest in teachers' work by both community and governments (Aspland, 2006). The executive summary of the *Review of Australian*

Higher Education (Bradley et al., 2008, p. xi), for example, emphasised the role of higher education in positioning Australia as competitive in the new globalised economy. Reviews into higher education have been based on funding models, with the student as the product. The language of these reports clearly positions education in relation to economic growth and reform, which has in turn advanced the human capital model within educational policy (Gillies, 2017; Holden & Biddle, 2016; Tan, 2014).

The human capital theory model, when applied to education, sees it as an investment that yields returns. This view has permeated educational policy to such a degree that 'education [has become] subservient to the knowledge economy' (Gillies, 2017, p. 1). The shift to a knowledge economy occurred in the 1970s, when 'advanced industrial nations experienced a fundamental economic transition from a manufacturing base to a service-based orientation' (Yeo, 2010, p. 71). Knowledge-based economic activities became the focus, and knowledge was 'incorporated into the production function in the form of human capital' (Cader, 2008, p. 118). Houghton and Sheehan (2000) contended that this focus on the product of education escalated the move to policies that aimed to develop human capital, leading to an increased dependence on knowledge as a driver of economic growth, with quality education as a key pillar (Gillies, 2017). According to educational policy, quality education is instrumental to the growth of the economy and, like all other components of the economy, needs to be measured.

The measurement of education is a significant aspect of standardisation and quality and originates from the need to develop indicators of quality education to demonstrate a yield on investment. Kaagan and Smith (1985) reveals that in the 1980s there was an unprecedented move to a standardisation of measurement in education within America. However, a literature review conducted by Wyatt (1994) for the OECD, found that performance indicators and accountability were a global trend, and part of a greater level of involvement of governments in the educative process, curriculum and policy. Scheerens, Luyten and Ravens (2011) contended that outcome indicators 'are central in productivity and effectiveness interpretations of educational quality' (p. 37). This has contributed to the measurement of educational outcomes for economic gain.

The measurement of educational outcomes in relation to economic imperatives is representative of the knowledge economy. The alignment of quality education with economic growth has led to increased government intervention. This is evident in

research conducted by Keating (2009), who revealed that 'school educational policy has recently become more central to the policy ambitions of government' (p. 1). Increased intervention by the Australian government through education policy supports this contention; however, as Mockler and Groundwater-Smith (2015) argued, this has been more about the measurement of the international competitiveness of the education system as an indicator of legitimacy, than it has been about privileging student learning. The need to be globally competitive, and the fear of being left behind in comparison to the rest of the world, has led the Australian government to seek increasing control of the system of education in Australia (Biesta, 2012).

The idea of controlling the education system is not new. Educational policies from the 1980s to the present day have attempted to dissect the education system, to understand and subsequently control its constitutive parts. This is evident in the Karmel (1985) report, which weighed the quality of various elements of the system, including learning outcomes, particularly in relation to literacy and numeracy; curriculum change; quality of school life; teacher qualifications; and participation in schooling. The Dawkins (1987) report proposed controlling teacher training and was the forerunner to a number of reports and discussion papers around teacher quality such as *Teacher Quality: An Issues Paper* (Schools Council for the National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1989), *Australia's Teachers: An Agenda for the Next Decade* (National Board of Employment Education Training, 1990), the *Top of the Class* inquiry (Commonwealth of Australia, 2007) and *Quality Schools, Quality Outcomes* (Australian Government, 2016). What these reports and discussions highlighted is the government's need to measure the performance of each element of the schooling system to ensure the quality of the entire system.

As control for quality is the focus of government reports, accountability, transparency and the performance of each facet of the school system is under scrutiny. However, there has increasingly been a focus on one element of schooling—the teacher. Teaching and teacher quality, as a factor in improving educational outcomes, are now seen as a priority. The mechanisms of quality include the measurement of students' educational outcomes and the APSTs. The measures of educational outcomes, in the form of NAP and PISA, are used to evaluate the knowledge and skills of students (OECD, 2016). The outcomes of these evaluations are used by policymakers to review the direction of schooling and hence the education sector more generally through monitoring and surveillance (Ozga, 2013). Kolman (2017) found that students'

standardised test scores are increasingly being referred to in research on teacher quality and the accountability of the profession of teaching. However, Thompson and Cook (2014b) questioned policies that suggest the 'teacher-as-a-problem is resolved through the use of data from testing' (p. 700). The teacher-as-a-problem was a key focus in the government document, *Quality Education: The Case for an Education Revolution in Our Schools* (Rudd & Gillard, 2008), the first priority of which was 'raising the quality of teaching in our schools' (p. 18). The focus on teaching as a priority suggested a lack of quality in teaching. This aligns to a study conducted by Sanders and Rivers (1996) of American students, which positioned students' knowledge in relation to the quality of the teacher. What is missing in this is a nuanced debate of other factors that affect student achievement.

Using student achievement to determine the quality of education and the teacher is problematic. The connection between quality and outcomes ignores factors external to the teacher, such as gender, self-esteem, motivation, cultural resources, ethnicity, language and school characteristics (Linnakyla, Malin & Taube, 2004). Conclusions drawn by Linnakyla et al. (2004) suggested that the above characteristics have a larger influence on achievement than the teacher. Despite this, measures of academic achievement such as NAPLAN and PISA as indicators of the quality of a teacher continue to be valued. The focus on teachers rather than teaching or other elements raises questions about whether standardisation aims to support or control. Significantly, teachers have come to be perceived as the central problem (Buchanan, 2015; Thompson & Cook, 2012).

The teacher, in relation to quality teaching, appears to be the common denominator in relation to positive student outcomes, in the era of teacher quality and standardisation. As previously discussed, this is the product of the knowledge economy and the focus on human capital, a key concept within the neoliberal agenda, which has been the focus of educational policy since the 1980s. This focus on human capital was further progressed by the research of Darling-Hammond (2000), Hattie (2003) and Rowe (2003). However, while Hattie (2003) and Darling-Hammond (2000) consider other elements of education, Rowe (2003) focused solely on the teacher, and is particularly critical of studies that do not position teachers as central to the discussion around quality education. Educational policy directions over the last 40 years have increasingly moved the teacher to the centre of the issue, resulting in the current initiatives that invariably measure teachers (AITSL, 2014; Thompson & Cook, 2012).

2.4 Standardisation: Mechanism of Quality or Control?

The perceived need to measure the efficiency and effectiveness of the teacher led to the introduction of the APSTs, the national standards for teachers in Australia. Moving from state to national standards was a critical step towards achieving one of the national goals for schooling, agreed upon by all state and federal ministers of education in 1999 and enshrined in the Adelaide Declaration (MCEETYA, 1999). With the goal of enhancing the status and quality of the teaching profession (MCEETYA, 1999), the APSTs are a public statement of the shared understanding of what characterises quality teaching in Australia (AITSL, 2014). These standards were also expected to raise the status and standing of teachers (MCEETYA, 2003).

The move to the APSTs was progressed by MCEETYA, which established the TQELT in 2001. The TQELT comprised representatives from the school, university and industry sectors, including deans of education, teachers, principals and teachers' unions. These stakeholders formed a broad reference group for the establishment of the framework for the national standards, which later became the APSTs. Responsibility for the finalisation and administration of the APSTs was subsumed by AITSL in 2010. AITSL is wholly owned by the Commonwealth of Australia, governed by the *Public Governance, Performance and Accountability Act* 2013 and the *Public Governance, Performance and Accountability Rule* 2014, and is solely owned by the Minister for Education and Training.

Both state and federal governments contributed to the development of the APSTs. While teachers were involved in the process of development, implementation of the APSTs through AITSL and the QCT was led by COAG, the peak intergovernmental forum in Australia, which drives the country's educational reform (COAG, 2018), in line with the National Education Agreement. Therefore, there is widespread acceptance of the APSTs as a framework for defining teacher quality and expectations on teachers and teaching. This is confirmed by the use of the APSTs as the focus of accreditation for ITE programs (AITSL, 2014).

The APSTs were created to define and promote quality teachers and raise the status of teaching. However, they are also used for teacher registration and accreditation of ITE programs (AITSL, 2014, 2016) in line with the recommendations of the *Action Now: Classroom Ready Teachers* (2014) report. This report determined that the APSTs were weakly applied and that they should be used to frame teacher education programs

as they would 'provide a strong foundation for quality assurance and implementation to initial teacher education' (p. viii). More recently, the APSTs have been used in the certification of teachers as highly accomplished and lead teachers (Department of Education and Training, 2018). This certification has been used in Queensland for salary increments for high achieving and lead teachers since August 2018, following a trial in 2017 (QCT, 2017b; Queensland Government, 2018). The APSTs are now considered a tool to measure teacher effectiveness (Clinton et al., 2016).

The APSTs provide a visible structure to the wider community of quality teaching, framed around the domains of professional knowledge, professional practice and professional engagement. The term 'professional' is used in an effort to raise the standing of teaching, as alongside its aim of raising the quality of teachers, the APSTs have an additional intent to strengthen the professionalism of teachers. However, Hargreaves (2000) argued that this link is not seamless and can in fact be counter-productive:

> Professionalism (improving quality and standards of practice) and professionalization (improving status and standing) are often represented as complementary projects (improve standards and you will improve status), but sometimes they are contradictory. For example, defining professional standards in high-status, scientific and technical ways as standards of knowledge and skill can downgrade, neglect or crowd out the equally important emotional dimensions of teachers' work. (p. 157)

The use of the term professional suggests that teachers can 'map out and justify their own professional development and practices with regard to their own subjective interests and motivations' (Ryan & Bourke, 2013, p. 24). This is contrary to the APSTs and how they are used, as a list of auditable performances (Connell, 2009).

The APSTs as a measure of teacher effectiveness is another method of controlling the quality of teachers and a site for governmentality (Davies & Bansel, 2007). Governmentality is a term coined by Foucault (1994) to refer to any practice that provides structure to shape and direct the actions of others, in this case teachers. According to Davies and Bansel (2007), governmentality is a form of neoliberalism and has made teachers more governable by shifting 'authority away from both students and teachers to state curriculum and surveillance authorities' (p. 256). This need to measure knowledge and skills is a way of controlling conduct and improving performance

(Bourke, Lidstone & Ryan, 2015). According to Bourke et al. (2015), the APSTs subject teachers to a higher degree of visibility and surveillance.

The APSTs attempt to capture and measure the performance of teachers. Thompson and Cook (2012) suggested that educational policy has 'increasingly perpetuated a policing of teachers' (p. 700). Biesta (2015) agreed, noting that the 'professional space for teachers is currently being constructed and policed' (p. 81). According to Rich and Evans (2009), the increasing governance of teachers, described by Katsuno (2010) as micromanaging, has resulted in a sense of de-professionalisation, as autonomy gives way to accountability and productivity. Additionally, Mockler and Groundwater-Smith (2015) suggested that, in the current era, if you 'control the most important factor you control the outcome' (p. 30). The APSTs are, at their core, a mechanism for quality that results in layers of accountability.

The levels of development in the APSTs, from graduate to lead as a continuum of quality, suggest that progression is based on the increasing capacity of teachers in each domain, and is a tool for governing expectations of quality teaching at each level. This heightened surveillance reflects the bureaucratisation of teaching (Comber & Nixon, 2009). Further, it places limitations on teachers' capacity for improvement and their autonomy to enact their practice (Ball, 2003; Hargreaves, 2000; Sachs, 2016). Mockler (2012) suggested this narrowing of the definition of quality teaching is primarily aimed at quantifying, measuring and standardising teachers' work. Thompson and Cook (2014) contended that discussions around raising the quality of teaching often lead to the issue of teachers themselves. Thompson and Cook (2014b) related the teacher-as-problem to the need to create a hierarchy of good and bad teachers. This hierarchy has been conceptualised into the APSTs, which have increasingly become a form of surveillance rather than a mechanism to assist teachers with their professional learning (Mockler, 2012).

While the APSTs appears to be a tool to govern teachers, they have also led to the simplification of teaching practice. This simplification does not consider the difficulty of categorising the human element of teaching, as teachers are as diverse as their students. The diversity of teachers is evident in extensive research around teacher identity (e.g., Anspal, Eisenschmidt & Löfström, 2012; Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Clandinin, Downey & Huber, 2009), agency (Biesta, Priestley & Robinson, 2015; Biesta & Robinson, 2012) and commitment (Ball, 2012; Day, Elliot & Kington, 2005). Research conducted in these areas highlights the distinctiveness of teachers and the

contexts in which they teach, which is not easy to capture. This has resulted in a simplification and reduction of teaching that does not include the complexities of the teaching process itself (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2016). Buchanan (2015) argued that 'the current reform context overemphasizes the technical and rational components of the profession, and devalues the emotional, personal and relational aspects of teaching' (p. 705). A reductionist approach to teaching is one that simplifies education and teaching to a singular definition of a quality teacher, to make measuring performance easier.

This reductionist approach has resulted in pressures on teachers to perform. Teaching is often described as a 'performance' within the profession (Sawyer, 2004), with this descriptor understood in a positive sense by teachers to encompass the complexities of working with a large and diverse group of students and engaging them creatively in their learning (Pineau, 1994; Sawyer, 2004). By contrast, 'performance' is used in the performance-based context in a way diametrically opposed to teachers' understanding of this term (Pineau, 1994), leading to a situation of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1962) where teachers hold their ideal image of their teacher self in conjunction with the type of teacher being constructed through government policy (Bahr & Mellor, 2016) and measures such as the APSTs. This pressure has led to teachers doubting their own judgement (Ball, 2003) and has created what Mockler (2013) describes as a narrative of distrust.

In Queensland, this distrust is seen in the introduction of the C2C, standardised pedagogy such as explicit teaching, and the use of public data walls that attempt to capture NAPLAN results in a form accessible to teachers, students, parents and principals. Standardisation of curriculum and pedagogy is widely subscribed to in Queensland state schools. However, Eisner (1983) contended that the 'aspiration to create a prescriptive science of educational practice is, I believe, hopeless' (p. 9). These mechanisms of control attempt to translate the complexity of teaching into a set of prescriptive routines to control the behaviour of students and teachers, rather than recognising teaching as an interpretative practice that allows for teacher judgement (Eisner, 1983). Jeffrey (2002) describes this as the institution of disciplinary measures.

Ozga, Seddon and Popkewitz (2013) argued that diminished trust is the hallmark of the performative agenda. The performative agenda leads to standardised forms of curriculum and pedagogy, as mechanisms to guide the work of teachers who are not meeting the required standards and/or enhancing the results of their students. Teaching

as a set of routines is evident in Lortie's (1975) view of teaching as telling and learning as listening. This superficial understanding of teaching was found by Loughran (2011) to contribute to the lack of change or action in the education arena, and the simple responses to complex issues in teaching. Loughran (2011) called for a shift to thinking about teaching as doing, rather than the one-size-fits-all approach to teaching (Pratt, 2002) embedded in the APSTs.

The debate in the era of teacher quality and standardisation centres on mechanisms of control. These measures of control will often focus on the various systems connected to the central issue of quality, such as teacher training. Biesta (2012) observed that universities, which have traditionally been seen as institutions of intrinsic good with the mandate to advance learning and deepen human understanding, are now embroiled in the debate around teacher quality due to their role in preparing teachers:

> Now that governments in many countries have established a strong grip on schools through a combination of curriculum prescription, testing, inspection, measurement and league tables, they are now turning their attention to teacher education to establish total control over the educational system. (p. 9)

The increasing control over teacher education can be seen in the raising of teacher preparation program entry and teacher registration requirements by state and federal governments (AITSL, 2016). Previously, entry was controlled by the universities themselves. Masters (2012) suggested that control of minimum standards will provide assurances to the public that standards are being adhered to. However, this does not consider the experiences that pre-service teachers already have (Harris & Sass, 2011) or their commitment to the profession they have chosen (Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012; Dannetta, 2002). According to Day and Gu (2007), the only way that teachers can be seen to succeed is by 'satisfying and complying with others' definitions of their work' (p. 602). The supposed mechanisms of quality have tried to dictate to teachers how they should view teaching and their teaching practice.

How teachers view their practice and the imposed measures of control is a significant aspect of this study. Ball (2012) suggested that teachers are empowered to transform themselves into something else 'in relation to the new performative professional' (p. 19). In an earlier paper, Ball (1993) foregrounded the complexities of teachers' work by examining the 'matrix of power relations in which they are enmeshed' (p. 106). However, both of these papers omitted the voice of the teacher,

ignoring their experiences in the redefining of their work and the implications of this. Ball (2012) contended that 'in the regimes of performativity experience is nothing, productivity is everything' (p. 19). This approach raises questions for teachers' agency and their sense of professionalism as a teacher.

2.5 Declining Autonomy, Teacher Agency and Professionalism of Teachers

Questions around teacher agency have arisen from the policy landscape, which has introduced various initiatives to measure the effectiveness of teaching and teachers' performance. Priestley, Biesta and Robinson (2012), in exploring the construction of teacher agency, considered the place of temporality, where choices are based on past and future trajectories. From this perspective, teachers' agency draws upon their experiences and expertise, and informs their actions. Agency is thus another way of understanding how teachers might enact practice (Priestley et al., 2015). This is especially significant in the era of teacher quality, which positions teachers as the most significant factor in education. Priestley, Biesta and Robinson (2012) considered how teachers negotiated their agency in response to various policies applied to the education sector and found that teachers either complied, negotiated, fabricated practice or resisted policy changes. Vaughn (2013) highlighted the challenges faced by teachers when their image of teaching differs to expectations, particularly those related to performance measures. The images that teachers hold are a useful way of understanding how this negotiation is enacted.

Agency is connected to teacher identity through reflexivity, and the actions and choices that teachers make. Priestley, Biesta and Robinson (2012) suggested that agency is constructed and negotiated in practice, which is connected to the beliefs and values of the teacher. Significantly, teachers do not just repeat what they see in terms of their identify and agency (Lortie, 1975). Rather, they transform and refine their teaching practice through a range of methods, including engaging in professional learning, which is one of the domains of the APSTs (Lipponen & Kumpulainen, 2011). To ensure teachers have a sense of agency, they need to be treated as professionals with the specific skills, expertise and experience to cater for the needs of a diverse group of learners. This will ensure 'teachers' ability to act in new and creative ways, and even to resist external norms and regulations when they are understood to contrast or conflict

with professionally justifiable action' (Toom et al., 2015, p. 1449). Eisner (1983) contended that teaching is an aesthetic practice that requires teachers to be original and creative, placing their 'signature' on their work 'to look at it and say it was good' (p. 12). However, the effect on teachers' work of the current era of teacher quality and standardisation has been to restrict teachers' choices and limit their autonomy, raising questions as to whether teaching is being de-professionalised.

Teachers' decreased level of autonomy has led to a de-professionalism of teachers, with Mockler (2011) pointing to recent reforms as a contributing factor. This is supported by Biesta et al. (2015), who contended that current policy seeks to de-professionalise teachers by taking away their agency. This is a key issue given that teachers draw on their own background in understanding and viewing good teaching practice (Lortie, 1975). Biesta (2010) argued that any policy that seeks to impose prescriptive curricula and oppressive regimes of testing invariably reduces teachers' agency. Aspland (2006) raised concerns that the era of quality and standardisation is moving teaching back towards what Hargreaves (2000) described as the pre-professional era.

The pre-professional era refers to the period from the beginnings of schooling in Australia to the turn of the century. This era is associated with the use of the apprenticeship model, based on a mechanistic approach. The apprenticeship model viewed teaching as a craft and was based on a technicist rationality (Loughran & Russell, 2007). At around the turn of the century, the view of teaching shifted to a vocational model, in which teaching was positioned as a calling underpinned by teachers' personal views and philosophies (Vick, 2003). For Aspland (2006), this was the era of the 'autonomous professional', during which, according to Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin and Bernstein (1984) 'the teacher must draw upon not only a body of professional knowledge and skill, but also a set of personal resources that are uniquely defined and expressed by the personality of the teacher' (p. 8). By contrast, the era of teacher quality and standardisation, typified by the APSTs and standardised testing, has seen a return to the mechanistic and technicist approaches to teaching, independent of individual teachers' images of teaching practice.

2.6 The Era of Quality and Standardisation: Reshaping Teaching

The era of quality and standardisation is reshaping teaching. This can be seen in the implementation of the APSTs, accreditation requirements for higher education

institutions with ITE programs, and registration requirements for teachers. The era of quality and standardisation has sought to measure what it is that teachers do, which has required mechanisms that standardise what can be measured. Ozga (2013) contended that the move to accountability has been perceived as being operationalised as a regulatory measure for teachers. This is a continuation of what Ball (2012) and Ozga (2008) called a governing by numbers. The effect of these mechanisms has been a challenging of what quality teaching is and how it is valued. Ball (2016) argued that teachers are struggling against the effects and outcomes of such measures, and have not been able to engage with the intent as measures of quality.

The era of teacher quality and standardisation has seen a move to productivity and other economic expectations, which has intensified various elements of teaching and teaching itself. Kostogriz (2012) found that the social elements of teaching have been represented as an economic dialogue, which intensifies some elements of teachers' work and ignores others. This suggests that teaching is situated within a policy discourse that requires teachers to evaluate what they do and what is valued. Buchanan (2015) contended that the encounter with current policy and educational discourse requires teachers to interrogate their own view of teaching against measures conceived from an economic basis. Teachers are thus required to negotiate the image of their teacher self within this new discourse, which reduces their agency.

The reduction of teacher agency and the requirement to compare themselves against measures emanating from an economic model can lead to a lack of authenticity for teachers. Ball (2000) identified a disconnect between good practice and the rigour of performance, leading to a sense of inauthenticity, which in turn results in either submission or resistance (Ball, 2000). Moore and Clarke (2016) argued that these responses are hidden affects that are produced. For the purpose of this thesis, 'affects' are those actions that influence or make a difference to teaching. Therefore, acts of submission or resistance are affects that may also influence the images of self and teaching held by teachers.

In addition to generating a lack of authenticity, the current focus on accountability in policy ignores the effect this has on what good teaching is meant to do, which in turn effects what good or quality teaching is. Expertise in teaching is often confused with the accumulation of teaching procedures and activities (Loughran, 2011). This is shown in the APSTs, which focus on expertise in teaching practices with little connection to the tacit knowledge of practice. Loughran (2011) suggested that there

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needs to be a move 'beyond teaching as doing [to] understanding the complexity of teaching' (p. 284). This aligns with Biesta's (2015b) concern that the policing of teachers limits teaching practice to a one-dimensional purpose of what education is meant to produce. What teachers are required to produce, in the current era of quality and standardisation, are positive academic outcomes as measured by standardised tests. Gable and Lingard (2016) suggested that NAPLAN is a new mode of governance and accountability, as its emphasis on productivity and performance quality has led to a focus on the quality of the teacher rather than on good or effective teaching.

The governance and accountability necessitated by educational productivity regulates the definition of quality. The regulation of quality through metrics such as the APSTs implies that what teachers were doing before was ineffective. The suggestion here, is that the view that teaching contains quantifiable elements that can be measured. Eisner (1983) argued that considering teaching as a scientific technology is problematic as it assumes that 'prescription will enable control of human behaviour' (p. 8). This is evident in the development and use of standardised applications of curriculum and pedagogy, as already highlighted.

The measurement of the performance of quality teachers and teaching has reconceptualised teaching and the purpose of education. Apple (2001) challenged the notions of performance and quality by suggesting it is 'performative measures that seem to indicate worth' (p. 414). It is these changes to what is valued, along with the requirements for registration and career progression, that lead some teachers to change their teaching practice (Kolman, 2017). As Ball (2012) stated, 'we are burdened with the responsibility to perform' (p. 19), to re-orientate our practices to those with measurable outcomes and expectations. The emphasis is on performance and product rather than freedom and choice, with limited recognition of the potential tensions created when teachers are treated as mere instruments in the process (Moore & Clarke, 2016).

Treating teachers as instruments in the process of teaching is problematic, as it ignores the teachers themselves. This view leaves teachers with a 'struggling voice in the educational space' (Smit, Rritz & Mabalane, 2010, p. 104). Zembylas (2003) suggested that there is a 'powerlessness in teaching' (p. 230) and that teachers negotiate their positions against norms or rules. Smit et al. (2010) argued for more work to be undertaken around power and identity for teachers, as a means of understanding this view. One of Jones' (2008) key contentions was that power can affect teachers' choice

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of position within certain discourses. Varghese, Morgan, Johnston and Johnson (2005) described this as identity-in-discourse and identity-in-practice. However, Mulcahy (2006) suggested that 'discourse makes available particular kinds of subject positions and identity' (p. 58), and in the process makes 'the teacher … a site for negotiation (Walshaw & Savell, 2001, p. 521). This idea is also central to Sexton's (2008) discussion of teacher agency.

There is an inability to separate the self from the teacher, and who teachers are affects their actions. Palmer (1997) countered that 'good teaching comes from the identity and integrity of the teacher' (p. 1). However, as revealed by Hamman, Gosselin, Romano and Bunuan (2010), the research has made only a limited connection between notions of self and teaching practice. This is seen in the link made between quality teaching and a quality teacher. Day et al. (2005) illuminated the implication of teachers' level of commitment for their self and practice in teaching. In this study, participants linked their practice to their commitment to teaching, not the other way around. Interestingly, Day et al. (2005) and Hackett and Lavery (2010) saw commitment as an essential part of a teacher's identity. Hackett and Lavery (2010) linked commitment to teachers' personal attributes and dispositions. Therefore, it appears the personal attributes and dispositions of teachers determine their images of self and practice, and affect how the teacher negotiates the era of quality and standardisation.

Teaching viewed as either a practice or a profession is a key contention in the quality teacher versus quality teaching debate. Hackett and Lavery (2010) suggested that quality teaching is 'related intimately to the commitment of teachers at both the personal and professional level' (p. 77). These studies suggested that quality teaching is more than a measure against pre-conceived standards, and that teaching requires a consideration of self that includes personal beliefs and dispositions to teaching. Carroll (2005) saw beliefs and dispositions as representing 'the link between teachers knowledge and beliefs and their behaviour and actions' (p. 81). Quality teaching is more than technique (Palmer, 1997) and is enhanced with heightened commitment to teaching (Hackett & Lavery, 2010).

In this era of quality and standardisation, it is essential to differentiate between the teacher and their teaching, to ensure it is the teaching that is measured and not the teacher, as it is what teachers do that needs to be the focus of attention. Knight et al. (2015) drew a distinction between the teacher and their teaching and suggested moving the focus from the teacher to classroom practice (p. 106). There also needs to be greater

emphasis on students' learning rather than teachers' characteristics, and a move from focusing on the 'what' and 'how' of teaching to the 'why' (Loughran, 2011). This connects back to Biesta's (2015) view that effective and 'good teaching' considers effective teaching as relating to student learning. Despite this, research on teacher self and teaching practice focuses on the attributes of a quality teacher, rather than the attributes of good or quality teaching (Hattie, 2003).

The focus on the quality teacher is the struggle for visibility of quality in professional practice. Walshaw and Savell (2001, p. 521) highlighted the tensions that exist between the 'known' and the 'being' of teaching. Clandinin et al. (2009) suggested that teachers are caught 'in the squall as new policies are implemented and as landscapes are shifted' (p. 145) and questioned how teachers could be sustained in this landscape. This is especially significant when the images held by teachers differ to the required performative requirements. Performative requirements compel individuals to 'organize themselves as a response to targets, indicators and evaluations. To set aside personal beliefs and commitments and live an existence of calculation' (Ball, 2003, p. 217). The alternative is what Ball (2010) called 'game playing', in which teachers pretend to become something other to what they are to meet the performative requirements. Freese (2006) highlighted a potential discrepancy between self and practice, for teachers potentially focus on the performative practices to shape practice rather their own images of self. Being the other teacher 'creates a cost to self and sets up personal, ontological dilemmas' (Ball, 2003, p. 222). However, none of the above studies appear to consider the implications for self and practice of these interactions and changes. This thesis considers teachers' beliefs, through their images of self and practice, as negotiated within the performative agenda of education.

2.7 Negotiating Images of Teaching

There is limited consideration of the images of self and teaching in the performative agenda. While Darling-Hammond (2000) and Hattie (2003) suggested that teachers are a key factor in education, there is limited discussion in the literature of images of the teacher self and teaching in the era of quality and standardisation. The focus has been on what quality teachers do, without consideration of who they are and other contextual factors that affect teaching. According to Kostogriz (2012), teachers' work becomes objectified in the system, and the images held of teaching are more about public and political attitudes and expectations (Judge, 1995) than teachers themselves.

Teachers' personal agency and interpretative frameworks of teaching are often not considered when defining quality teaching.

Teachers have their own images of quality teaching (Anspal et al., 2012; Carroll, 2005; Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011). Carroll (2005, p. 95) contended that individuals negotiate the meaning of their experiences in light of their underlying beliefs and attitudes. Kelchtermans (2009) identified that teachers use a personal interpretative framework 'that operates as a lens through which teachers look at their job, give meaning to it, and act on it' (p. 260). Further, Beauchamp and Thomas (2010, p. 631) suggested that teachers' own beliefs and values are transferred to their teaching practice. However, neither of these studies, nor other research by Anspal et al. (2012), Sachs (2001) and Carroll (2005), considered how teachers negotiate their own interpretative frameworks in relation to current expectations around teaching practice. This is a key focus of this thesis, to enable teachers' voices to be heard in how they navigate the era of quality and standardisation.

Teachers make choices around their teaching practice based on their own images of quality teaching. However, teachers cannot always be active agents in their own practice in the current quality agenda; within the current era of the quality teacher, there are practices that are legitimised and those that are not (Tudela, 2014). Datnow (2012) suggested that previous eras of educational reform were built on the professionalism of teachers and increased scrutiny on education. Datnow (2012) suggested that previous eras of reform honoured the professionalism of teachers by giving them control, with the expectation of good results (p. 193); however, with the current reforms, this is not necessarily the case. In fact, according to Smit et al. (2010, p. 104), the positioning of teachers within a discourse of quality, is one where performance is measured. Changing policy has affected teachers' work and the choices they have the capacity to make. Ballet, Kelchtermans and Loughran (2006) suggested that 'teachers appear to be confronted by a situation whereby they experience greater responsibility for their work but less control over the manner in which their work is conducted' (p. 210). This lack of agency is particularly concerning in the performative agenda, to which accountability is key.

Negotiating accountability with limited autonomy has implications for the image teachers have of themselves and teaching. La Guardia (2009) suggested that wellbeing and fulfilment are affected if the conditions of autonomy, competence and relatedness are not met. Teachers accept or reject expectations based on their own beliefs and

values as part of their own wellbeing. However, in the process of negotiating this space of accountability and expectation, teachers may vary their practice to ensure that external expectations are met. La Guardia (2009) suggested that when students' needs are not met, the cycle continues. The needs of students and teachers are in direct contrast to the expectations of the public, which have been conditioned by the rhetoric of economic growth. This creates a situation in which images of self and teaching are formed from the images of teachers held by others, who are themselves often positioned externally to the profession.

The images of self and teaching that teachers hold are in and of themselves an act of liberation. Mendieta (1997) suggested that by holding on to their own images of self and teaching, teachers are liberating themselves from the conditions that individuals seek to place on them (p. 498). Clandinin (1985) viewed this as the personal practical knowledge that teachers have gained through experiences. According to Craig (2012), it is the teacher's agency that determines their actions. Images that contradict those that a teacher holds invariably create tensions. Whether the APSTs create a contradictory image of teaching for teachers is an important aspect of this study.

The image of teaching portrayed by the APSTs may be challenging for teachers. Craig (2012) contended that the imposition of accountability measures is based on an external view that something is wrong with teaching. A power struggle has developed over which images of teaching are foregrounded and whether the underlying beliefs supporting teachers' teaching are taken into consideration (Haigh, Kane & Sandretto, 2010). A heated debate has arisen regarding which image teachers should live by—their own, one that is imposed on them, or the negotiated images produced by the era of quality and standardisation?

2.8 Conclusion

The shared image of teachers and teaching is becoming lost in the current era of teacher quality and standardisation. The bureaucratisation of teachers and teaching practices has led to the introduction and use of the APSTs as a model of quality teaching in Australia. The era of teacher quality and standardisation has overlaid its own requirements on teachers' images of teaching, affecting how they think and act. This chapter engaged with the literature around the influence of the performative agenda on education and the implications arising for teachers and teaching, especially in relation to the images of self in teaching.

Implications for teachers and teaching include the casting of teachers as the problem, reduction of teacher agency, heightened surveillance of teachers and teaching, and reconceptualisation of teaching as centred on student outcomes as measured by standardised testing. Each of these factors has contributed to the declining autonomy, agency and professionalism of teachers. The framing of this space and the current research provides a platform to consider teachers' voices, which are being silenced by external mechanisms of quality and control. While the literature highlights these issues, limited research has been done on how teachers navigate this space in relation to their images of a quality teacher and teaching. Therefore, this thesis explores how teachers navigate their images of teaching practice when they are forced to consider a standardised image as presented by the APSTs.

The following methodology chapter outlines the key questions and methods used in this study to explore the images that teachers hold and the implications for their teaching practice. It explains how this thesis conceptualises the images of the quality teacher, including as both being and becoming. This problematises the potentially stagnant image of teacher quality inherent in the APSTs.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The era of quality and standardisation was framed in Chapter 1, which established the context and background of the research problem investigated in this study: how changes in educational policy have led to the current context, which seeks to measure teacher quality through the introduction of the APSTs. These professional standards place limits on how teaching is viewed and may affect teachers' sense of agency. Chapter 2 focused on whether measures of quality are able to determine quality or are designed to control teacher behaviour and student outcomes. This chapter examines research on the effect on teacher agency of mechanisms that seek to determine quality through standards, and the challenges teachers are facing in navigating the current reforms. Consideration of the literature around quality and standardisation led to the formulation of the research questions for this study.

These research questions revolve around the issues raised in the era of quality and standardisation, including the implementation of the APSTs, mechanisms such as C2C and standardised pedagogical approaches. These measures were considered in relation to the effect they have on teachers' autonomy, professionalism and agency, especially in relation to their pedagogical approaches. This study investigated whether the APSTs have affected how teachers construct and modify the images they have of themselves as teachers.

Research Question

How do teachers view themselves and their practice in the era of quality and standardisation?

The sub-research questions are:

- *What images of self and teaching practice do teachers hold?*
- *What are the challenges facing teachers in this era of quality and standardisation?*
- *How do teachers navigate the 'quality teacher' agenda?*

The use of the term 'image' allowed for the drawing together of the performances of self in teaching and interrogation of the devices, such as metaphors, that teachers use to describe themselves as teachers and how they view teaching. The

performance of self is a term used by Goffman (1959) to describe the ways in which an individual 'presents himself and his activities to others, the ways in which he guides and controls the impression they form of him, and the kinds of things he may and may not do while sustaining his performance before them' (p. 7). The use of image in educational research is not new. Andrews and Lewis (2002), Clandinin (1985), Saban (2004) and Trepanier-Street, Hong and Donegan (2012) all used the conceptual device of images to represent how teachers view themselves and their teaching practice.

The use of images gives insight into the representations and perceptions of teachers' positioning in relation to quality teaching. Teachers use images through metaphors to visually and poetically express their understanding of quality teaching in relation to their practice. Rolling (2007) suggested that every 'representation establishes new parameters, new cornerstones, new landmarks—a new sense of place or overarching meaning' (p. 8). Therefore, images through metaphor provide a view of teachers' understanding of their teaching and beliefs about quality teaching in light of their experiences. Clandinin (1985, p. 363) suggested that images and metaphors can be used to gain insight into the personal, practical knowledge of teachers.

The image of a quality teacher is the main focus of inquiry of this study. Before discussing the methodology and methods used in this study, it is important to describe how teacher self-image and quality teaching is conceptualised, as well as the philosophical approach used in this study. The next section provides insight into my worldview and how this has informed the choice of a qualitative methodology. The remainder of this chapter presents the methodology, method and techniques used to collect the data, the participant teachers from whom the data were drawn, the phases of analysis, the ethical considerations and limitations of the study.

3.1 Methodological Underpinning to the Images of a Quality Teacher

> We are naming spaces; we are speaking of a visibility of the body, a geometry of gazes; an orientation of perspectives. We are speaking of images. (Derrida, Brault & Naas, 2003, p. 10)

The methodological underpinning to any research is based on the philosophical positioning of the researcher in relation to the 'beliefs, values, ontology, epistemology and relationality' (Jackson, 2013, p. 50) of the researcher. My positionality connected ideas of self with images of teaching practice. However, to understand how teachers

construct images of themselves, it is necessary to connect with the underpinning philosophy of this study.

The ontological and epistemological perspectives of a study frame its underpinning philosophy. Ontology is related to reality. According to Scotland (2012), 'researchers need to take a position regarding their perceptions of how things really are and how things really work' (p. 12). Epistemology is concerned with how knowledge is created (Scotland, 2012) and driven by the researchers' ontological perspective (Killam, 2013). Understanding the ontology and epistemology of the researcher provides insight into the reasoning behind decision-making. However, I believe that ontology and epistemology are entangled, with reality concerned with immanence and becoming, which drives the view that knowledge is simultaneously being and becoming (Barad, 2007). This forms the basis of my onto-epistemological perspective.

An onto-epistemological perspective drawing on Barad (2007) considers knowing to be 'a direct material engagement, a practice of intra-acting with the world as part of the world in its dynamic material configuring, its ongoing articulation. The entangled practices of knowing and being are material practices' (p. 379). This way of viewing the world requires putting aside dichotomies and seeing matter and meaning as entangled. For as Barad (2007) suggested, the observer and observed cannot be studied independently, as they are intra-acting, they are co-creating the other.

My onto-epistemological perspective has evolved and is evolving, especially in relation to the understanding of self. This section outlines my evolving understanding that images of self and quality teaching practice are co-developed as a process of being and becoming (Bullough, 2008; Lipka & Brinthaupt, 1999; McLean, 1999) in the ongoing performance of teaching. This is because understanding images of self and teaching practice is influenced by the philosophical and psychological theories of the self.

Both philosophical and psychological theories of the self are cemented in the distinctions of what constitutes the self. Theories of self have evolved around different positions, including self as subject (Descartes, 1638/2007; Locke, 1690), self as object (James, 1895; Kant, 1997; Stolorow & Atwood, 2012) and self as both subject and object (Dewey, 1941; Leary & Tangney, 2003), in which the binaries around the position of self are removed (Foucault, 1971; Royce, 1973). The literature revealed that

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both the philosophical and psychological theories of self are grounded in a philosophical position.

Some of the philosophical positions that considers self include a metaphysical reality (self as object), an epistemological reality, an ontological reality (self as subject) and an onto-epistemological reality (self as subject and object). These philosophical positions influence the way self is viewed, and have influenced my worldview and how images of self and teaching practice are conceptualised in my thesis. The work of Descartes (1638/2007), Kant (1997), Locke (1690), Dewey (1941), Foucault (1984) and Barad (2003) provided important insight regarding how images of self and teaching practice are constructed, from the extremes of a pre-existing reality and end product to one that is continually being produced. The positioning of images of self and teaching practice as being produced suggests that these images are not fixed and can be negotiated. This is significant as it suggests that in the era of quality and standardisation, teachers are able to produce and reproduce images of self and teaching practice.

Viewing images of self and practice as continually being produced is located within an onto-epistemological worldview, which considers knowledge as both being and becoming, in a process of continual production (St Pierre, 1997, 2013). This theory of reality and knowledge suggests that there is no knowable centre, and that no definitive meaning can be attributable to a concept, as it is always open to new meaning (Derrida, 1978). In this position, time, space and matter are connected (Barad, 2001), rather than being closed off or partitioned. Further, in an onto-epistemological worldview, meaning is performative. Performativity moves away from describing reality to describing practices of doing, to seeing images as continually in motion. Images of self and practice emerge through mapping these motions and movements, also known as affects (Haraway, 1992). This is significant to this study, as it provided the impetus for considering the impact of images of self and teaching and how teachers negotiate the era of quality and standardisation.

That images of self and practice are performative enactments in an onto-epistemological worldview further suggests that images are known through discursive practices. Discursive practices are defined by discourses, which encompass not only what is said, but actions and practices, in this case of the teacher (Barad, 2003). There has been a visible shift in the literature to a performative understanding of discourses, which considers 'discursive practices as a production' (Barad, 2003, p. 807). This shift

was discussed by Butler (2009), who said: 'if what I want is only produced in relation to what is wanted from me, then my own desire turns out to be a misnomer. I am, in my desire, negotiating what has been wanted from me' (p. xi). The implication for images of self and practice is that meaning is produced through discourses, performative enactments influenced by the expectations of the era of quality and standardisation. Therefore, understanding how teachers navigate their own image of their teacher self while working in an era of quality and standardisation provides insight into what constrains and enables their teaching practice.

Images of self and practice as a performance are made visible through interaction with others. As Barad (2007) suggested, 'existence is not an individual affair. Individuals do not pre-exist their interaction; rather individuals emerge through and as a part of their entangled intra-acting' (p. ix). Affective images are those that interact with others in the process of becoming. An affective image, one produced through affects, is one that is becoming. Affect is the intensities of experiences, the interactions and encounters with the real and/or virtual world (Massumi, 2002). Therefore, the affects of self in practice trace the in-between spaces of the image of the quality teacher that is becoming. However, these affects are not in isolation 'but are always affected by different material and human forces coming together' (Palmer, 2011, p. 8). This suggests that the images constructed by teachers of their teaching self and practice are evident through the connections and interconnections in their relations and encounters, not bound in one time or space.

Images of self and teaching practice as becoming are not bound to one point in time or one encounter. This is supported by Barad (2001), who contended that time, space and matter are all connected, and Braidotti (2006), who suggested that 'self is a mobile entity in space and time' (p. 5). This conception of images of self and teaching practice as constantly changing in moments that permeate each other suggests a need to trace each encounter and relationship through the 'affects' of practice (Semetsky, 2013, p. 250). This contrasts with Bergson's (2001) claim that once an experience is named, it solidifies, making it an object.

Attempting to separate the different images of self from each other leaves an object, a product, a lifeless state. The image of self in process, mapped through affects and connectives, is thus not the end product of showing self, but only one pathway for considering the self in motion. The images of self and practice in motion are continually becoming and unbecoming, and often circling back on themselves. The 'line of

becoming is not defined by points that it connects or by points that compose it' (Deleuze & Guattari, 1987, p. 293), it is the flow, the in-between, the middle space through which understanding of the images of self and practice are produced.

Considering the above, images of self, teaching practice and quality teaching are constantly in motion. This is significant for this study, which explored how teachers negotiate the image of quality presented within the APSTs. The images of self and practice held by teachers are not stagnant and have the potential to be influenced through encountering the APSTs.

This section outlines how the images of self and teaching practice have been conceptualised for the purposes of this study, as both being and becoming, as informed by the onto-epistemological worldview, which sees knowledge as a process of both being and becoming (Aronowitz & Ausch, 2000, p. 717). This onto-epistemological perspective also influenced the choice of methodology and method. Specifically, an interpretative case study methodology (McDonough & McDonough, 2014) was chosen, as it is sufficiently flexible to allow the emergent approach to data analysis that is preferred by the onto-epistemological worldview.

3.2 Interpretative Case Study

Interpretative case study uses a qualitative methodology. Hancock and Algozzine (2016) described case study as a qualitative research method that provides an intensive analysis and description of a single case. The single case is generally a contemporary phenomenon, which typically focuses on an individual as representative of a group (Yin, 2013). The case of analysis in this study was a group of primary school teachers who are currently navigating the era of quality and standardisation. The decision to use a case study approach was made to give a holistic view of the images of quality held by teachers (Baškarada, 2014).

Using a case study methodology allowed for the inclusion of a number of participants to investigate a single phenomenon. Having a small number of participants enabled a closer association with the selected teachers (Crouch & McKenzie, 2006). Yin (2013), in her rationale for the choice of a single case, explained that the objective is to capture the circumstances and conditions of an everyday situation, in this case quality teaching. This study has thus chosen to examine a single case of the images held by five teachers to gain greater understanding about the image of the quality teacher.

The use of a collective case study rather than five separate case studies was based on the view that it was not the individual teachers' images that were the focus, but rather how they negotiate the era of teacher quality and standardisation. The intent is not to compare and contrast the images of the five teachers, but to consider how these images influence their teaching practice. Creswell (2013) outlined the difference between the single case and multiple case study methods as follows:

> Case study method explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in depth data collection involving multiple sources of information … and reports a case description and case themes (p. 97).

An interpretative case study methodology provides the scope to consider 'how' and 'why' questions (Ponelis, 2015). The first stage of an interpretative case study is to clearly define the research problem and identify the research questions. This involved a comprehensive review of the literature to uncover the current situation of the era of quality and standardisation. The focus of this study lent itself to an in-depth analysis requiring multiple sources of evidence (Hancock & Algozzine, 2016). An interpretative case study provides for the inclusion of a range of sources of evidence, which here included interviews with teachers and artefacts such as the teachers' self-evaluations against the APSTs, their personal philosophy statements and, for a few of the teachers, professional experience reports. The artefacts, especially the professional experience reports, were used as stimuli for the respective teacher's responses.

Interviews were conducted to collect data. These interviews provided rich descriptions of the images of self and teaching practice that each teacher held. Artefacts were used as prompts to assist with the interview around the different images (Dempsey, 2010; Lyle, 2003). Together, these data sources enabled an in-depth investigation and interpretation of the participant teachers' perspectives around teaching and how they are currently navigating their teaching contexts in the era of quality and standardisation. Hofisi, Hofisi and Mago (2014) highlighted the importance of the researcher becoming 'part of the interviewing picture by asking questions and responding to the respondent and sometimes even sharing experiences with the interviewee' (p. 60). This was an important consideration in deciding on a more conversational approach to the interview process. Additionally, these interviews needed to be open-ended to allow for each teachers own stories to unfold, thereby making apparent their images of self and practice. As such, the researcher's questions and

interactions with the teachers were included as part of the data. This means that the interactional detail is pertinent in the analysis of the interviews, which aligns with an onto-epistemological view of the performativity of discourse (Butler, 2009). The interviews produced the images of each teacher. Barad (2003) contended that 'a performative understanding of discursive practices challenges the representationalist belief in the power of words to represent pre-existing things' (p. 802). It is this performative view that positions the image as produced in the interview. These moments of interactivity between the interviewer and interviewee are acknowledged within the data (Rapley, 2001).

3.3 Interviews

Four interviews were held with each of five teachers. A small number of participants were selected to allow the interviews to go into greater depth. Barkhuizen (2014) confirmed that the number of participants should be based on the purpose of the study and practical constraints. In this study, the purpose was to develop an in-depth understanding of the images held by teachers; therefore, for practical purposes, only a small number of participants could be included. Originally, six teachers were recruited from three primary schools; however, one did not continue after the first interview due to personal reasons.

The four interviews with each teacher were conducted over the period April 2013 to March 2014. The interviews were an hour in length and conducted at the school staff room or teachers classroom as designated by the teacher. There was no participant checking organised in accordance with ethical approval. Markus and Nurius's (1986) possible selves theory, drawn from psychology, was used as a framework for these iterative interviews. This was considered appropriate due to the past, present and possible nature of selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986). The possible selves as seen by Markus and Nurius (1986, p. 954) are the conceptual link between cognition and motivation and the ideal that each individual seeks to attain. This framework was used to highlight the range of influential factors on teachers' ideal images of their teacher self.

Interviews with the teacher participants included discussions about their past, present and possible selves. The teachers' understanding of self-mastery, which also influenced the final interview, determined the degree of consonance between the individual they described themselves as and their actions. This led to an exploration of

the tensions that teachers may have in relation to their teaching practice. While this thesis shifted from considering the teacher self to the images of self and teaching practice, the collection of data through past, present and possible images of self was relevant in understanding the images of self and teaching practice through time. The possible selves framework was used to understand how teachers construct their images of self, particularly in relation to their self as a teacher.

The past self was the focus of the first interview. According to Markus and Nurius (1986), the past self remains represented in the actions of today and into the future. Therefore, this interview focused on the teachers' images of self and teaching, and how these influenced their view of professional practice, and the choices made during their pre-service years of teacher training in particular. However, given the length of time some of the teachers had spent in teaching, this interview included all aspects of teaching up until the present day. Where possible, practicum reports and other artefacts from teachers' pre-service years were used as stimuli for this interview; however, some of the teachers had been teaching for over 30 years and had not kept these records. This did not affect the collection of data, as these artefacts were only used as stimuli, and these experienced teachers were still able to recollect stories from their pre-service years to describe the images they and other teachers held of them in the past.

The present self was the focus of the second interview. Within the possible selves framework, this relates to the present acts in progress (Markus & Nurius, 1986). To make some clear connections to teaching practice, the teachers' self-evaluations against the APSTs were used as interview starters, to elicit their current perceptions of the images of self that they held. However, it was not until a further review of the literature on the era of quality and standardisation, along with the analysis of the data, that the implications of using the APSTs became apparent. The self-evaluation of each teacher against the APSTs was completed after the first interview. The focus of the second interview was around how they positioned themselves against the APSTs, and what influenced that decision. The discussion also addressed the changes that they had seen over time in relation to themselves as a teacher.

The focus of the third interview was on the possible or future self. According to Markus and Nurius (1986), the possible or future self is connected to a person's ideal of how they want to be or be perceived to be. Therefore, this interview focused on who the teachers wanted to be, and what that image would look like. The interview was directed to consider how these images affected the present image of self. It was here that

teachers engaged with the image of a quality teacher and considered how they negotiated the current era of quality and standardisation.

The final interview focused on the tensions between the different images of self and teaching practice that teachers held. This interview was an opportunity for the researcher and the teachers to explore further the images held by the teachers and discuss what reinforced or disrupted them. This allowed the teachers the time to consider what had been previously discussed, and whether their views had changed or remained the same.

The possible selves framework was a useful conceptual tool for understanding the different images of self that teachers held over time. However, in the end, the images of past, present and possible selves did not represent images at different points in time. Indeed, points in time could not be differentiated, as they were intertwined in the images produced. As highlighted by Barad (2003), the concept of intra-action reworks current notions of causality. This shifted the framing of the data to consider the images of self, teaching practice and quality teaching as being produced, rather than the teachers reaching an end product image of their teacher self. This reconceptualisation of images of self was a shifting away from the possible selves' framework through the analysis process as the different selves could not be clearly delineated.

All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim in their entirety and inclusive of the researcher's contribution to the interviews. These intra-actions between the researcher and the teachers were important in understanding the moving images produced. Early in the data-collection phase, it was realised that the transcriptions of the teachers' voices were not 'brute data' (Hofsess & Sonenberg, 2013, p. 301). It was thus important to acknowledge that the researcher had started to work with theory before entering into the interviews with teachers. The interviews were constructed from the questions the researcher asked, which were informed by self theory. As Davies and Harre (1990) explained, 'there can be an interactive positioning in which what one person says positions another' (p. 48). On listening to the recordings, it was evident that the direction of the questions influenced the teachers' images, turning them towards specific lines of thought. The data produced thus included the voices of each teacher participant as well as the researcher. St Pierre (2011) posited that 'the words we collect in interview data … are always already products of theory' (p. 621). From this perspective, the data from the interviews can be considered an arrangement of teacher,

researcher and theory, where no one part is privileged over the other (Hofsess & Sonenberg, 2013).

3.4 Artefacts

Three kinds of artefacts were collected at the time of the interviews with the teachers: their professional experience reports or evidence from their pre-service days, their personal philosophy statements and their evaluations using the APSTs. This section outlines why these artefacts were chosen and how they were used in this study.

The professional experience reports were requested of teachers to gain an understanding of the image they constructed of themselves during their pre-service years; that is, while they were at university or teachers' college. This decision was made during the early part of this study, as part of the decision to focus on the teachers' own images rather than the perspective others held of them. Where professional experience reports were available, these were used in the first interview to trigger the teacher's memory of this time of their career and elicit their past images of self, teaching and the ideal teacher that they wanted to become.

Teachers' personal teaching philosophy statements were used in the second interview, during which teachers were given an opportunity to discuss this statement in light of their teaching practices. For most teachers, their teaching philosophy was constructed shortly before they began teaching and they were able to discuss the realism of their statement in relation to their current experiences.

The final artefact was the teachers' evaluation against the APSTs. The original intent of this was to provide an image of their teaching practice. Teachers were given a copy of the APSTs before the third interview and asked to identify their position on the continuum for each standard. This informed discussion on how they viewed quality teaching in light of this continuum and how their images of self and teaching practice were affected by this representation.

Analysing the final interview and the teachers' evaluations against the APSTs reinforced the value of this study. The research problem initially focused on the tensions experienced by teachers when their images of self differed to others' views of them and how the era of quality and standardisation was affecting their images of self and teaching. The research problem and questions were subsequently refined in response to the direction of the data. This aligns with MacLure's (2013) recommendation to let the

data lead. While the data-collection techniques did not change, how the data were viewed evolved as the researcher engaged with the educational policy literature and theories relating to self. From the data, it became evident that the teachers were constantly engaging with their own images of a quality teacher.

3.5 Participant Teachers

Ethics approval was obtained from the University of Southern Queensland Human Research Ethics Committee—Approval No. H12REA202—to approach three Queensland Department of Education, Training and the Arts primary schools within the Ipswich and West Moreton region (see Appendix 1), to enable variation to the study. The decision to only approach primary schools was to ensure consistency in relation to the expectations of primary teachers in the school context. Two school sites were initially approached, and sufficient number of teachers volunteered, and a variation to ethics was completed and approved. Government schools in the Ipswich and West Moreton district were chosen due to this area's familiarity to the researcher. The school principals assumed the role of third-party recruiters, selecting three teachers from each of their respective schools who wished to be involved. Of these six teachers, one chose not to continue after the first interview. All teachers who participated were female which was representative of the population of education and the two primary schools.

The five teachers that volunteered had taught in a range of schools and had various lengths of teaching service. To ensure confidentiality was maintained each teacher chose a pseudonym: Harriot, Kathy, Jessie, Tina and Cassie. The pseudonyms are used throughout this thesis to maintain the confidentiality of the participants.

Harriot is a female teacher in her late 60s who graduated from Melbourne Teachers' College in the 1960s. Harriot had a range of experiences both within and outside Australia, working at multiple schools, across multiple states and countries. She has been working as a primary classroom teacher for over 50 years, and has been at her current school for over 15 years.

Kathy is a young, female teacher in her mid-20s who graduated in 2011 from a Brisbane-based university. In the initial interviews, Kathy spoke of working in only two primary schools in her three years, both located within a five-minute drive from each other and situated in the Ipswich and West Moreton region. She had completed a dual degree in education and social services.

Jessie is a female in her 20s who graduated in 2010 from a regional university. She has worked at three schools: two in the Ipswich and West Moreton region, and one in regional Queensland. Jessie trained as a primary Physical Education specialist and completed eight practicums, which she felt prepared her for teaching practice. Jessie works in the same school as Kathy and Harriot. She is on the pedagogical leadership team, supporting other teachers in the explicit teaching practices recently adopted by her current school.

Tina is a female teacher in her 40s who graduated from the Queensland Teachers' College in 1978. She has worked in eight schools, including three primary schools. She has also held three special education positions, been a visiting teacher and held an assortment of contracts, all within a 45-kilometre radius of the Brisbane CBD. Tina has been working as a teacher for 26 years, full-time and part-time. Tina has a Diploma of Teaching, Graduate Diploma in Religious Education and a Graduate Diploma in Special Education. Tina and Cassie work in the same school.

Cassie is a female teacher in her early 30s who graduated from a regional university in 2001. She has worked at three primary schools, all in the Ipswich and West Moreton region. Cassie has been working as a primary classroom teacher for 11 years. She has taught students from Years 1–3, with periods as Head of Curriculum and part-time Health and Physical Education specialist at two of the schools. Cassie also has experience in composite classrooms. She works with many pre-service teachers and is held in high regard by the other teachers in the school. She advocates for the use of technology in the classroom.

3.6 Thematic Analysis

To explore the images of themselves as teachers and teaching more generally in the era of quality and standardisation, thematic analysis of the interviews was chosen as an appropriate approach. Thematic analysis is a tool for finding patterns of meaning in data (Clarke & Braun, 2013). According to Joffe (2012), a theme 'refers to a specific pattern of meaning found in the data' and is a useful tool to 'illuminate the process of social construction' (p. 209). In this thesis, the use of thematic analysis enabled important insights to be gained from investigating the way teachers construct the image of their teacher self and teaching more generally.

The decision to use thematic analysis was based on its capacity to be theoretically flexible rather than methodological (Clarke & Braun, 2013). This is an important distinction, as some methods of analysis have a methodological bias (Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2011). However, according to Boyatzis (1998), thematic analysis is a process that 'can be used with most qualitative methods' (p. 4). Braun and Clarke (2006) suggested that thematic analysis does not have to be tied to a theoretical or methodological position but is a tool to provide a 'rich, detailed and complex account of data' (p. 5). For the purposes of this study, thematic analysis provided a framework for the emerging images of self that fit within an onto-epistemological view of being and becoming. The connection between how thematic analysis is used within an onto-epistemology approach became known as each phase was explicated. This was to align with Braun and Clarke's (2006) expectation around the importance of the researcher identifying their theoretical position and their assumptions in relation to the data.

According to Clarke and Braun (2013), thematic analysis generally comprises six phases, which are also particularly pertinent to thematic analysis: familiarisation with the data, coding, searching for themes, reviewing the themes, defining and naming the themes, and writing up. Boyatzis (1998) highlighted three phases: sensing the themes, developing codes, and interpreting the codes in relation to the theory or conceptual framework being applied. While there is no definitive agreement on how to conduct thematic analysis, Braun and Clarke (2006) emphasised the importance of 'clarity around process and practice' (p. 7).

The construction of the thematic analysis process in this thesis adapted the ideas of both Clarke and Braun (2013) and Boyatzis (1998) to develop four key phases of data analysis. The first phase was notation of the initial sense of the data. This stemmed from the initial phase proposed by Boyatzis (1998) of sensing themes, but also drew on MacLure's (2013) view that elements of data can 'reach out from the inert corpus of the data, to grasp us … exert a kind of fascination, and have the capacity to animate further thought' (p. 228). These intense segments of data were identified as part of the initial analysis.

The second phase was the reading of diffractions. This process involved coming to understand the performative images produced through the interviews. This phase used the segments of interview and the initial intense segments of data drawn from the first phase to identify diffractions that enabled 'reading insights through one another' (Barad, 2007). A reading of data through the lens of theory and personal experience is a

key part of become familiar with and coding data. Taguchi (2012) highlighted the need to install ourselves within the event under investigation. These diffractions were then mapped into a topology.

A topology is a mathematical process that allows for patterns to emerge. According to Phillips (2013), topology is a tool that provides a framework for mapping complex relationships. The mapping of the relationships of the images of self in teaching allowed for the differences in the teachers' images of self and teaching to emerge and also acted as an organiser to discuss the different images constructed over time. The topological map was then used to determine the themes: the images of self in teaching that were held. These four phases of analysis, along with the final process for the interconnecting of the emerging themes, are discussed in more detail below.

3.6.1 Phase 1: Initial Sense of the Data

During the initial reading of the transcriptions, notations were made in the margins, providing the initial 'sense' of what the teachers were saying or doing in the interviews. Deleuze and Guatarri (2004) equated the 'sense' to a non-representational element of language. MacLure (2013) contended that 'sense happens to bodies and insistent propositions, allowing them to resonate and relate' (p. 659). This immersion in the initial stage of the data analysis was completed through the lens of the relevant theory and the researcher's positioning in relation to images of self and teaching. Taguchi (2012) described this process as an 'embodied engagement with the materiality of research data: a *becoming-with* the data as researcher' (p. 265).

These notations of the researcher's sense of the interviews (see Table 1) were the starting point for the thematic analysis. As MacLure (2013) suggested, 'a reading of the data as a sense-event might represent a starting point' (p. 663). That is not to say this was an attempt to search for hidden meaning behind the text (Barad, 2003, p. 813). This first read of the interviews was to document my initial thoughts about the relationships between self and practice shown in the transcripts. This led to a performative rather than representational understanding of the data. Barad (2003) suggested that shifts in thinking allow the focus to move from 'descriptions of reality to matters of practices/doings/actions' (p. 802). Reading of the notations made and words of the transcriptions gave way to considering the teachers actions of self in teaching practice. This is an important consideration and aligns to the onto-epistemological worldview, which sees the images of self and practice as performative acts.

Table 1

Extract example—Notions of my sense of the data

Line No.	Participant/ Researcher	Script	Sense Notations
6	P	Not much that is very true now.	What was visible to her is what is known (Derrida, Brault, Naas, 1993). In Memoir of the blind, Derrida equates seeing with knowing
7	R	In what way?	
8	P	Umm…in the way that I learned 90 per cent of what I know in my first year of teaching. So I don't really think that its… it's just this small tiny little snippet of what I knew then, which is not anything close to what I know now.	Highlights: what she saw as important in teaching and suggests a movement in how she sees herself

The sense notations presented in Table 1 were my initial thoughts upon reading segments of text. According to MacLure (2013), there are often moments in an interview or within segments of text that reach out and grasp the reader, that 'exert a kind of fascination, and have the capacity to animate further thought' (p. 228). The notations in the fourth column show the awareness experienced and initial impressions obtained through the reading of each segment of text. The sense notations were the initial inquiry to determine the connections between the teachers' sense of self and how they viewed themselves in practice. These notations were considered in relation to theory to map the actions of self in teaching.

3.6.2 Phase 2: Diffractions

The initial sense reading of the data, along with continual reading of key theorists including Barad (2003), Haraway (1992), St Pierre (1997) and Butler (2009), informed the process of seeking diffractions in the actions of self in teaching practice. According to Barad (2003), diffractions are a method of moving away from representationalist thinking. A diffraction 'is a mapping of interference, not replication, reflection or reproduction' (Haraway, 1992, p. 300); in essence, it is a performative approach to analysing data.

Further interpretation of Barad's conceptualisation of performativity led to considering the function and impact of practice and discursive practices. These become a production or performance within the research that can be mapped to show the movement in images. Palmer (2011) explained the process as a 'wave-like motion that

considers that thinking, seeing and knowing are never done in isolation but are always affected by different material and human forces coming together' (p. 8). Therefore, consideration was given to how the researcher's own experiences affected the data analysis (Taguchi, 2012). The diffractive approach to data provided for consideration of not only the textual meaning conveyed by each teacher, but the images that were produced through the moments of the interview interactions, in concert with the reading of the data. The application to the data of these ideas started with the interaction of the transcripts and sense notations to identify the performative expressions (Mazzei, 2010) being produced by each teacher.

The performative expressions were identified by taking the initial sense reading of the data and considering what the teachers were doing in that performative moment, to determine the 'affects' within the interviews. The notion of affects refers to what is produced through an encounter (Kofoed & Ringrose, 2012). Understanding the affects of teachers' images of self and teaching practice can reveal what is happening in particular moments (Kofoed & Ringrose, 2012).

Affects can be defined as the forces, actions and intensifications (Knudsen & Stage, 2016) within performative expressions. For the purposes of this study, the affects were identified as the expressions by the teacher that connected their images of self and teaching practice; these were used to code the data (Knudsen & Stage, 2016). By using affects in the coding of the data, this study moved beyond the traditional approach of coding, which is 'unavoidably linguistic in nature', to consider 'the entanglements of language, matter, words and things' (Coleman & Ringrose, 2013, p. 170). While traditional coding often suppresses difference, the use of affects provided the opportunity to frame and compartmentalise the data in a manner that recognised the flow of difference (Coleman & Ringrose, 2013). Barad (2003) called this diffractively reading the insights, identifying the affects and where the differences appear. The patterns of diffraction were then able to be determined by mapping the interference; that is, the repetitions, constraints, privileges, deferrals, enablers and erasures (Barad, 2003). These points of interference were used to show how each teacher saw themselves in relation to their teaching practice. By placing the results in a table, the diffracted performative expressions could be identified (see Table 2). Each identified diffracted performative expression was accompanied by an explanation of how this understanding was produced.

Table 2

Example of diffracted analysis

Interview	Segment of interview	Initial sense reading	Diffracted performative expressions	Product of the segment of text
Kathy (Interview 1)	*It's just a small snippet of what I knew then…which is not anything close to what I know now*	*Equated seeing to knowing*	*Constraining images of self; Erasing past self; Confirmed by repetition*	*The initial comment limited how she saw herself, but acknowledged the development of self, to an erasing of the past self (Higgins, 1987) as being less relevant to her current knowledge. Repetition suggests that Kathy would like to forget the past and move forward*

The process used to determine the diffracted performative expressions began with reading the segment of the interview with the initial sense reading to determine what the teacher was saying about themselves in relation to the teaching context. For example, in Table 2, Kathy's reference to knowledge compares her past experience with her present experience. The initial sense reading of this segment of interview considered that she equated seeing to knowing. However, Kathy also perceived that knowledge, while enhancing her practice, could also constrain it, as shown by her attempt to erase her past knowledge as irrelevant in comparison to her current knowledge. The key to the analysis was to determine the diffracted performative expressions, as seen through the intensities in the interview and the connections between self and teaching practice. The focus was therefore on what the interviews produced.

3.6.3 Phase 3: Topological Mapping

The third phase of analysis, described as topological mapping, provided a framework for organising what was produced in the interviews through the initial sense reading of the data and diffractive performative expressions. Phillips (2013) suggested that topology is a mathematically informed approach to analysis that provides a level of abstraction that allows for 'illuminating otherwise unnoticed elements between elements' (p. 125). Here, topological mapping provided a framework for bringing to light the images of self in teaching practice and how they were connected.

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A topological approach provides insight into how teachers conceptualise and construct images of good teaching. Lury, Parisi and Terranova (2012) suggested that engaging with topology allows for the integration of the impact of culture and social spaces. Thompson and Cook (2015) highlighted the importance of applying topological thinking, particularly in the current educational context of quality and standardisation, which seeks to conceptualise what good or quality teaching is. In this study, the topological map illuminated how teachers navigate this current educational context and how images are informed in the process. Barad (2007) described this as intra-actions.

The key to topological mapping is to consider the intra-actions between the affects of images of self in teaching practice. This provides an approach to trace the movement that informs the images of self in teaching practice and the results produced. The use of a meshed topology network (Thompson & Cook, 2015) to trace each possible image of self visually provided an opportunity to see the connections being made between various images of self in relation to teaching practice. The mapping of these affects and connections illuminated the tensions and provocations of impacts between the different images of self in teaching practice. An example of this topological mapping is shown in Figure 2.
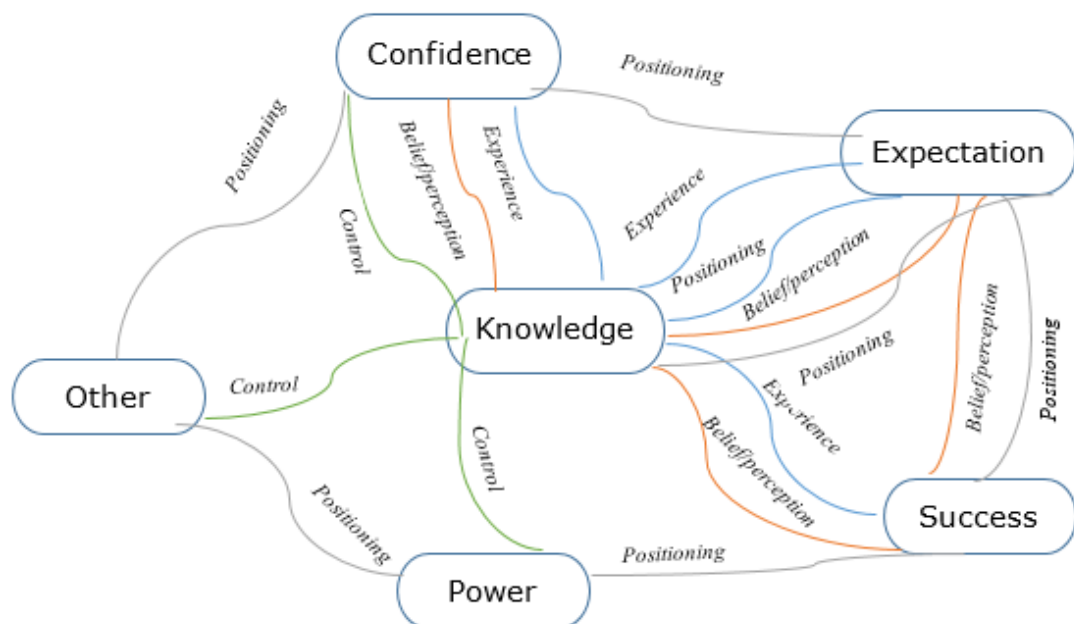

Figure 2. Topological map of affects and connections.

The topological mapping shown in Figure 2 is drawn from the first interview with Kathy. As highlighted in Figure 2, knowledge was identified as an affect produced. As further diffractive performative expressions were identified, other affects were

produced. Topological mapping was then used to trace the connections between each affect, providing a visual representation revealing that the images of self in teaching practice cannot be understood in isolation, but only in relation to other external elements. According to Mazzei (2013), 'a diffractive strategy considers that knowing is never done in isolation but is always affected by different forces coming together' (p. 778). The topological map provides this network of forces coming together, to produce the images of the teacher. For instance, in the analysis of Kathy's interview, a connection was produced between knowledge and success based on experience that is her knowledge developed through time.

The topological mapping was initially constructed for all 20 interviews, built as previously described around the teacher participants' past, present and possible future images of their selves in teaching practices. However, the seamless way in which the teachers spoke across time meant that the temporal separations were a superficial construction. Therefore, the decision was made to overlay the maps so that the affects of self in teaching practice for each teacher emerged independent of time. This aligns to what Grosz (2010) suggested was the 'protraction of the past into the present, the suffusing of matter with memory, which is the capacity to contract matter into what is useful for future action and to make matter function differently in the future than in the past' (p. 153). This act produced different connections between self and teaching practice and highlighted different intensities and images of the teacher.

The initial analysis focused on the connections between self and teaching. As seen in Figure 2, these connections were shown by labelled lines, and included experience, beliefs and positioning. However, upon reviewing these findings, it became apparent that focusing on the connections only served to highlight the connection without considering what this meant for the movement in the images held. The overlaid topological maps were a tool for further analysis. Searching for patterns within the themes, to identify the emerging images from the participants of their teacher self, became the next phase of analysis.

3.6.4 Phase 4: Finding Images

The initial writing of the findings, which focused on the affects and connections of self in teaching practice, provided an account of each teacher's images of self. To conduct a thematic analysis, Braun and Clarke (2006) suggested searching for themes 'across a data set rather than within a data item' (p. 8), such as interviews from one

person. To this end, the accounts of each teacher's images of self in teaching were combined into one document to give a separate account of how the teachers navigated the image of the quality teacher as presented by the APSTs.

The focus was on determining the different images of self held in teaching. The decision was made not to leave out any image of self in teaching, to see how the different images interacted with each other. An inductive approach to determining the themes was used whereby the data were coded 'without trying to fit it into a pre-existing coding frame, or the researcher's analytical preconceptions… it is data driven' (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 12). Therefore, the inductive search for patterns focused on the images emerging from the different phases of analysis, drawn from each teacher's interviews.

3.7 Ethics

Ethics approval was gained through both Education Queensland and the University of Southern Queensland's Human Research Ethics Committee (Approval No. H12REA202). To ensure ethical integrity was maintained, all participants were provided with an approved information sheet and consent form for their consideration before their participation.

Interviews were recorded and transcribed, and were secured according to ethical requirements on the USQ server behind password protection. The consent forms were scanned and secured in the same location. The transcriptions were de-identified and pseudonyms were used to protect the identities of the teachers and maintain ethical integrity. During the data-collection phase, one teacher did not continue for personal reasons. All data from this teacher were deleted and are not included in the data analysis. A follow-up interview with this teacher was held to ensure that the teacher was aware of available support structures if required.

3.8 Limitations

This study provides insight into the images of self in teaching held by current teachers in view of the tensions they are experiencing in an era that reinforces quality in a context of increasing standardisation and performativity. The size of the study was limited to a few participants to provide rich data. This study did not seek to generalise the data or findings, but to highlight the uniqueness of each teacher in the context of

standardisation. While the number of teachers interviewed could be viewed as a limitation, it did not detract from understanding the different images they hold or how this diverse group of teachers navigates the era of quality and standardisation. What can be generalised is the impact the APSTs have on a teacher's own image of self in teaching.

This study focused on one state in Australia; however, there is no evidence to suggest that replication in another state would yield different results, given that the APSTs are Australian standards and apply for all currently registered teachers across the country. It would be useful for further studies to compare the images of self in teaching that Queensland primary school teachers hold with those held by teachers from other states in Australia. Additionally, the inclusion of secondary teachers would provide greater insight into other elements of teaching that may affect the images of quality held. The choice of methodology and method of this study were appropriate for the theoretical choices made. The application of these methods of data collection and the resultant analysis were suitable and achieved the stated purposes. The findings from the analysis are presented and discussed in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Images of the Teacher Self

The era of quality and standardisation has changed the context of teaching. The focus has moved to what is a quality teacher and what defines quality teaching. Standardised measures are used to decide which teachers meet the expectations of a quality teacher. The APSTs provides one image of quality. However, this image does not consider that each teacher has his or her own diverse views.

This chapter outlines each teacher participant's images of self and practice in direct response to the research question, how do teachers view themselves and their teaching practice in an era of quality and standardisation. As evident in the methodology, images of self and practice are made apparent through interaction with others. The labelling of these images came after the text was written and emerged while engaging with the literature. What was evident in each of the teacher's images was the use of metaphor to describe how they viewed themselves in their teaching practice. These metaphors framed their stories of the images of self and practice they hold.

To understand the images of self and practice, four interviews were conducted with each of the five teacher participants, exploring different time points in their journey through teaching; that is, the interviews investigated the past, present and future images that the teachers hold. A particular focus within the investigation of their present images of self and practice was on how the teachers view themselves and their practice when using the APSTs as a frame of reference. Therefore, contained within each teacher's recount of their images of self in teaching is a map that contains their self-evaluation against the APSTs. This became a turning point for most of the teachers in this study and had implications for how they navigated the era of quality and standardisation.

This chapter will consider the interplay of images of self and practice produced through the interviews including through the lens of the era of quality and standardisation. The first teacher to be introduced, Harriot, has been teaching before the move to a neoliberal agenda became evident in education. Her recount speaks to the images held before and during the current era. The next recounts are those of Kathy and Jessie. They have the least number of years' experience in teaching of the research participants, graduating from their respective universities just as the APSTs were becoming an important factor in ITE. The fourth recount is that of Cassie, who negotiates her images of self and practice quite differently to the other participants. The

final recount comes from Tina. Like Harriot, Tina trained at a teachers' college; however, she has distinct images of self and practice that have held firm through the era of quality and standardisation.

4.1 Introducing Harriot

We are like the reeds in the pond and when the wind blows we all just bend; we let it pass over our heads and then we stand up straight again, and it gets too much; you bend over because it's a strong force; it goes away and you can stand up and get on with [teaching]. I will always give it my best; I will not let them down, and that's why I'm here after 50 plus years! (Interview 2)

4.1.1 The Image of Resilience

Harriot's teaching has spanned from the 1960s to the present day. She trained at the Melbourne Teachers' College and has lived through changing educational policy and curriculum. The effect of these changes is evident in her use of the metaphor of 'reeds in the pond'. This imagery is an emotional expression of her experiences as a teacher over more than 50 years, and affirms her ability to withstand these changes by virtue of her longevity in the profession. Her resilience and the care she has for both the profession of teaching and her students are evident.

Images are used by Harriot to demonstrate the value she places on imagery and perception. Abbs (2012) suggested that imaginal and perceptual thinking are the primary means of conception. For Harriot, these images allow her to conceptualise important aspects of her professional practice over time. The analysis of the interviews revealed that Harriot places great importance on imagination, creativity and care, and these are essential to her success and longevity in teaching.

The above excerpt highlights the moving images of self and the 'authentic care' (Valenzuela, 1999) that underpins Harriot's professional practice. Authentic care, according to Valenzuela (1999), is where teachers 'embark on a search for connection where trusting relationships constitute the cornerstone of all learning' (p. 263). This idea of care, for Harriot, means that she is always striving to do the best for her students in what Valenzuela (1999, p. 676) saw as a continuous search for competence. Harriot's view of a good teacher lies in the relationship that a teacher has with their students.

Throughout her 50 years of teaching, Harriot has strived to improve and respond to the needs of her students:

> *I tried and still do to make lessons engaging, that are engaging to children so that they really have some wonder…I had over 50 children in the class and it wasn't difficult, but today I look at my class and I think I need to do this with you, and this and this and this. (Interview 1)*

As indicated in this excerpt, applying authentic care to her students has become increasingly difficult over time, because of all the things outside her control that affect her classroom. Harriot sees aesthetics as integral in the educative process, a place where there is creativity and wonder. However, she notes that this is becoming difficult because other priorities are consuming her time:

> *I could do what I had to do, and I didn't go home and worry about them. And I didn't go home and think about them, as much. But today I think I find that the longer I teach the more consumed I am by what I have to do in the area of their work and more consumed by how do I get these kids to like themselves, be engaged, know why they're here and give them success. (Interview 4)*

Jagodzinski (2010) called this 'capitalist hegemony' (p. 30), in which creativity is a surplus value because it cannot be counted. Ball (2010) presented this as the performative agency. What this agenda ignores is the subjectivity of both teachers and students. Tensions are then created between what Harriot wants to do and has to do:

> *I think one thing that has changed: I've become cynical. Because I see and hear all these words, but as Oscar Wilde said: 'More is said than done'. And sometimes I see things to be done and they do get put into the too-hard basket and they're never addressed. (Interview 4)*

4.1.2 The Image of Teaching as a Craft

Harriot considers teaching a craft. However, she believes that the current climate of educational policy, especially with the implementation of the C2C in Queensland, is constraining her practice:

> *They forget [teaching] is a craft. It's not just stand there and tell, it is a craft and you have to be able to pick things up by a look or a turn of the head or an expression. (Interview 2)*

I think the C2C to me was almost like an act of desperation, where they didn't have to trust in teachers…I sometimes hear things that make me think 'why is this happening?' All these children are getting blasted about 'I taught you this last week, so you should know it?' No, you didn't teach it last week or they would know it. And why are you dumping it back on them? The buck stops here…I see this as the era of desperation. (Interview 2)

The implementation of the C2C has heightened surveillance of teachers' professional practice. Harriot believes that this is about trust, which Ozga (2013) contended is a hallmark of the performative agenda. This this lack of trust has diminished the care that teachers can convey to their students and through their practices'.

Harriot's images of self and professional practice are influenced by her involvement at the Melbourne Teachers' College, where she felt part of a community in the 1960s. She speaks highly of her lecturers and even more so of the infant's mistresses (preschool teachers) that she had in her first five years of teaching. The care that she received during her training underpins her choices in professional practice to the current day:

I had infant's mistresses who were the salt of the earth. They loved their young teachers and we loved them. They guided us along. We were never a nuisance to them. You would go seek some advice, and they would give us a lot of praise. We knew where we stood and what we had to do…I think I was very lucky that I had some lovely people around me. The school that I did go to after I left college, some of the teachers there are still my friends today, and that's 50 years ago. (Interview 1)

Harriot's recollections and her fondness for the past stand in stark contrast with her concerns about the present:

They (other teachers) were obedient in school, and they have just transferred their obedience from their situation in childhood to their situation in adulthood, and it does not serve them well, or the children that they teach. The other day I was doing something, and I stepped forward and made a comment, and it was something that everyone else that was with me had been talking about, and I felt like I looked behind and they were sort of going 'yeah, off you go', you know, and it's something as a teacher that you go 'We all think the same thing, let's take that step forward together'. (Interview 2)

Harriot privileges her image of self as a teacher who challenges systemic requirements and imposed expectations. She enables this view of herself as someone who puts the care of children before expectations that do not help the children she teaches. The regulations that other teachers are obedient to are seen by Harriot as a form of control that she resists, which is why Harriot sees that resisting the power of regulatory expectations is difficult for teachers whose obedience at school has been transferred to their current situation of teaching. The past in her view is ever-present, confirming Deleuze and Guattari's (1991) view of the coexistence of moments, and influences the choices she makes in her professional practice.

The interviews with Harriot produced images of a strong, student-focused teacher with an appreciation for the current context of education in relation to the past. She is an eloquent speaker who passionately recounts her time in education and what it has given her:

> *I think my life, because I've been educated and I have a job that I love, is rewarding in many ways, the rewards outweigh the negatives. I have had a better life because of that, and that's what I want for these children I teach… So, I try to give to children what I think education's given to me. That's about the crux of it. (Interview 4)*

The images of her self in teaching as caring pervade the other images produced through the analysis of the interviews. The connections that she makes with students and the community of teaching provide insight into her images of self and the effect these have on her professional practice.

4.1.3 The Image of Belonging

> *I went to Melbourne Teachers' College, with the symbol of the griffin, and it was a lovely place to be because you were right next to the Melbourne University and you went there every Wednesday to the university and had an assembly with the Dean of the university and we sang rousing English song. It was really pleasant. It gave you a lovely atmosphere of being in an environment where people could make good conversation and enjoy the collegiality of their peers and that was really pleasant, I really liked that. (Interview 1)*

Harriot's story was eloquent, descriptive and poetic in its construction. Her story took me to the place that she was describing in such a way that I felt like I was reliving

the experience with her. Bruner (2001) called story a 'transparent window on reality' (p. 6) and Harriot's story provided such an opening to understand her experience of self in teaching. Her retelling of her experiences at teachers' college started with remembering the symbol of the griffin, 'which symbolises swiftness and strength, wisdom and light' (Victoria Education Department, 1967, p. 13) and was representative of the environment that she enjoyed.

This story provides insights into the way in which the environment of the teachers' college enabled Harriot's view of her self in teaching. There confirmed for her that this was where she was meant to be. Throughout our conversations, there was a sense of 'belonging to teaching' that enabled her view of self and practice:

> *We had the feeling that we were being nurtured along this path. I never felt 'what do I do next, what do I do?' I was never anxious, I felt very comfortable at the teachers' college… I really loved what I was doing and it never crossed my mind that I should have gone and done something else. I felt very comfortable in that environment…we just seemed to fit in. (Interview 1)*

For Harriot, the sense of belonging is an important factor in her view of self. Her view of teaching as her place of belonging suggests that Harriot's understanding of self is bound to where she is located, in what Dixon (2000) called an embodiment of place, in her notion of self. This is based on Dixon's (2000) view that places are 're-conceived as dynamic arenas that are socially constituted and constitutive of the social' (p. 27). Therefore, Harriot's incorporation of teaching as a place works to locate her image of self in such a way that her understanding of her own subjectivity is inseparable from place. As Malpas (2004) stated, 'one does not first have a subject that apprehends certain features of the world in terms of the idea of place; instead, the structure of subjectivity is given in and through the structure of place' (p. 34). Dixon (2000) confirms the importance of belonging in understanding self. This was evident throughout all of Harriot's stories.

4.1.4 The Image of the Artist and Storyteller

During our subsequent conversations, I realised that for every question that I asked, Harriot responded by retelling a story. Each story became a living expression of Harriot's experiences of life and teaching. For Harriot, the story told shaped her everyday experience to make sense of her world (Bruner, 2001, p. 7):

When I was at college I was creative. I had to give a lesson on something about plants and I got off the bus and very obligingly there were all these toadstools growing on the nature strip. So I picked them and I took them the next day to include in the lesson that I had about plants or whatever it was. (Interview 1)

I initially thought that Harriot's use of stories was inconsequential to understanding her images of self. However, Bruner (2001) suggested that self is a work of art, produced in what Bruner (2001) called a self-making story (p. 14). Harriot's stories were part of the production of her images of her teacher self.

The images of her teacher self are captured within her own aesthetic experience and understanding of teaching as an art form. Dewey (1980), when explaining aesthetic experience, suggested that the creative process and expressive potential is exemplary in how we intellectually experience and shape our own world (p. 45). The focus for Harriot on creativity in her teaching practice is transferable to the construction of the images of her teacher self. Just as Harriot connects with teaching as an artistic activity (Eisner, 1991), so too is she expressing her aesthetic experience.

Harriot holds very distinct images of a teacher. Her stories indicate a strong connection to the past, which has influenced her views:

When you were a student-teacher you didn't have the status of the teacher, you didn't go to the staff room, but that was good in a way, because you had your own little room. We were quite happy to go into our little room by ourselves but we were always treated with great respect and friendliness. I never felt that this teacher didn't want me in her room or she thought that I wasn't or she couldn't be bothered…I think you were very welcome and I think that had a lot to do with how we then went about our work because we knew that if there was a criticism you knew that it would be constructive and it was there for help, to help you. And they always wrote something lovely on the end and signed their name. (Interview 1)

There is timelessness to her story, where her focus on what a teacher is and should still be today is evident. Harriot valued the relationships that she developed during her pre-service days and the care and respect that she felt she was given. According to Vick (2003), the focus on personal attributes was the result of practicum reports coming out of Melbourne Teachers' College in the 1950s, which included feedback on the personality and traits of the pre-service teacher. Interestingly, there has

been a move with the recent *Classroom Ready* (2014) report to consider the personal attributes of teachers.

The personal nature of teaching for Harriot was embedded in the curriculum of Melbourne Teachers' College, and was further evident in our conversations. The personal nature of teaching became more evident as our conversations progressed, when Harriot mentioned that she identified as an Aboriginal woman:

> *Because with the little Aboriginal children, with my bit of Aboriginality, sometimes with it comes mysterious things. And I seem to be able to listen to these children and I can see their confusion. Because that's what I think a lot of these children suffer, is confusion. (Interview 3)*

Harriot's identification as an Aboriginal woman was only directly mentioned once, but it was alluded to throughout our conversations. Her use of stories throughout our conversations, to convey her knowledge of self and professional practice, as well as the importance of belonging to place, now becomes more significant. Harriot's identification of her Aboriginality provides a vehicle for her to connect with her sociocultural world (Dyson & Genishi, 1994).

I came to understand that her stories were not just to provide me with an expression of her past, present and future, but were an integral part of how she learns and her way of teaching me who she is. Harriot's approach to stories is reminiscent of Patsy Cohen's approach to learning. Patsy, an Aboriginal woman from Ingelba, learned about who she was by gathering and recording the stories of the people of Ingelba, told as they walked around and remembered (Somerville, 2010). According to Klapproth (2004), in Aboriginal communities 'storytelling has prime place in the traditional Australian Aboriginal practice of transmitting knowledge' (p. 78), and is also bound to place. Gruenewald (2003) suggested that places make us who we are: 'as occupants of particular places with particular attributes, our identity and our possibilities are shaped' (p. 647). For Harriot, teaching is intrinsically linked with place, as was revealed in her retelling of her teacher training experiences.

Harriot's storytelling is used as a means of explaining her experiences. Davies (2000) described these as storylines. According to Søndergaard (2002), they are 'often used as the explanatory framework of one's own and others' practices and sequences of action' (p. 191). Harriot's storyline is her 'cultural narrative' (Søndergaard, 2002, p. 191) and was evident throughout our conversations. She often connected what she

was doing with spiritual things, and could not articulate where else the knowledge came from, except her Aboriginality. She mentioned in the excerpt above that with her Aboriginality *comes mysterious things* (Interview 3) that enable her to understand when others cannot. This idea of not being able to explain where her knowledge or understanding came from was referred to a number of times:

> *I don't want to sound weird here, but it's more an emotional spiritual thing, that I know that I can change kids around. And I know the way that I do works because I've had principals say to me 'How did you do that with that child?' and really I don't know, it just happens. And that's where other people don't understand. (Interview 3)*

4.1.5 The Image of Care

Harriot's stories about her interactions with the students in her classroom reveal her to be caring. This level of care is evident in her focus on increasing their knowledge to open doors for them both now and in the future:

> *I want them to enjoy learning like I still like learning…I read poetry. I read anything that is educational and I read the transcripts of the ABC. You can never have enough education… I love thinking, and I want them to be thinkers, because it opens up so many doors. I try to give education what I think education's given me. (Interview 1)*

Harriot's heightened sense of care relates to the values and beliefs that she holds. She wants to create an aesthetic experience for her students. The focus for Harriot is on the aesthetics of the educative experience. She engages in a making and re-making of her professional practice in what Baker (2015) contended is a 'struggle towards an artistic ideal' (p. 1). This ideal connects to what she sees education has given her. It could be argued that there is a cycling of values that inform and are being informed by her professional practice.

The image of Harriot as a caring teacher is also seen in her focus on the emotional security of her students. She wants them to feel a sense of belonging in the space of the classroom and she works with her students to help them overcome their social issues so that they will be successful:

> *We didn't have the workload and the problems we have today because the social issues don't stop at the gate. These children and I can see them they bring their*

attitude to school, and we can't erase them those attitudes. We have to work out how it affects children to be successful…I want my children to come into my room and to feel secure. (Interview 1)

This care for her students has been informed by her personal experience of care in her teacher training, which she draws from and into her professional practice. Harriot's teaching is based on how she was taught and what she now values. This was a key consideration in Lortie's (1975) 'Apprenticeship of Observation'. Lortie (1975) found:

> Teaching is unusual in that those who decide to enter it have had exceptional opportunity to observe members of the occupation at work; unlike most occupations today, the activities of teachers are not shielded from youngsters. Teachers-to-be underestimate the difficulties involved, but this supports the contention that those planning to teach form definite ideas about the nature of the role. (p. 65)

From this perspective, the values that Harriot holds are influenced by the beliefs and experiences that she has had over time. Richardson (2003) suggested that teachers' beliefs relate strongly to their experiences. Harriot has a strong sense of community, and a need to belong. Her connection to students' sense of belonging relates to the beliefs that she holds, and revolves around the way she views the world. However, these beliefs are evolving in and through her interactions with others (Baker, 2015):

> *I can remember playing school with my dolls and I was giving one a whack one day…you know we used to see kids getting whacked all the time. And I felt really awful about it. So I think that was the start…here is my little doll, and I was supposed to be being her teacher and showing her what to do, and I don't respect her…I think that was an awakening to the needs of whoever you were, even though they were dolls, and it carried through. (Interview 1)*

Harriot compares her experiences as a child and as a teacher to explain the empathy and care that she sees as a significant part of her professional practice. Her experiences over time have further developed this knowledge, but what she learned caring for her dolls carries through to the present day, enabling the level of care that she feels for her students. Her care for children is an essential part of who she is and how she teaches. This interplay between beliefs and teaching is evident in her professional practice (She, 2000). According to Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and James (2002),

teachers' beliefs are already a part of them when they enter formal preparation programs (p. 116).

For Harriot, her image of self is influenced by teaching in Australia, New Zealand and England. She recounts stories of the many teachers she has encountered on her teaching journey. Her diverse experiences of place have heightened her understanding of professional practice and how she understands the value of creativity:

> *Because when I taught in England, and that was about 10 years ago, the teachers there would say to me you are so lucky you can still teach and you can teach it in a manner that you can present it in a creative way where they were getting very stifled in what they could do. (Interview 1)*

The connection to aesthetics in education became a key point of difference in how teaching practice in Australia was viewed. Inherent in this understanding is the idea that creativity is an essential part of education and is missing in the English system. Jagodzinski (2010) suggested that creativity is seen as 'surplus value where there is a necessity to count within a broader educational edifice' (p. 31). There is a disconnection between an organising principle of Harriot's self and practice and the current performative agenda.

Harriot's connection to time, through her converging of the past, present and future, becomes what Hopkins (1986) called an organising principle for understanding self and practice. This is evident in Harriot's storyline and use of multiple points in time in her conversation to understand her images of self and professional practice. Harriot's use of the past and present, as well as her projection into future actions, provides a framework for considering the possibility that self is not situated within one time or place. Harriot's past, present and future are interrelated in her view of self and practice. Therefore, there is a lack of temporal fixity (Hopkins, 1986), which is line with Deleuze and Guattari's (1991) supposition that successive moments can coexist.

4.1.6 Layered Images

> *When we went to teachers' college, we were given that this is what a teacher should look like. You had things you were supposed to be skilful in. They taught us every day all day how to teach, and they taught us how to present ourselves and how we should speak and how we should always know more than the children knew. (Interview 1)*

The image of the teacher that Harriot was given reflected a master–apprentice model (Pratt & Johnson, 1998). The framework through which she was taught was also based on this model, with Harriet constantly receiving critique from experienced teachers, both at the teachers' college and in the classroom (Victorian Department of Education, 1976). This image is overlaid on her professional practice in the present day, and translates into the expectations that she has of herself to be a good teacher. There is a bringing together of Lortie's (1975) 'apprenticeship of observation' and Aboriginal ways of learning in relation to observation and imitation (Hughes & More, 1997; Yunkaporta, 2009). The lack of linearity in Harriot's view of her self and professional practice reveals a convergence between her image of self as an Aboriginal woman and the image of the teacher she developed during her pre-service years.

This lack of linearity in her projection of images of self can be seen as further evidence of her image of self as an Aboriginal woman. Time is a cultural concept and, unlike the Western conception of time as linear, Aboriginal people see time as a concept that 'moves across past, present and future' (Gallois, 2007, p. 34). Therefore, time from an Aboriginal perspective is not bound to one place or space, but is happening in successive moments. This has a significant effect on the images of self that Harriot projects onto her professional practice, especially with regard to the clear image of a teacher that she developed during her pre-service years. There is, in this, a continual convergence of the different images of self.

These images of self, during her pre-service years, confirmed Harriot's view of teaching. Minor et al. (2002) confirmed that beliefs about teaching are either challenged or nurtured during the 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975). These images are bound to what Harriot perceives as what a good teacher does. For Harriot, the good teacher is a caring teacher. Werler, Cameron and Birkeland (2012) suggested that a good teacher is bound by the idea of care, an altruistic perspective that has been the subject of criticism in the current climate of quality. The altruistic idea of care is challenged by the performative agenda, which according to Ball (2010) ignores anything that cannot be calculated. In this climate, care is replaced by duty. However, care is a key element in Harriot's image of self, and is a central feature of her professional practice, especially in relation to her interaction with others.

4.1.7 The Image of Experience

Harriot's image of self as an experienced teacher is portrayed in her self-evaluation against the APSTs (see Figure 3). She expresses disappointment that she has not had the opportunity to progress to the leading teacher level, which she attributes to other, and in her view less-experienced, teachers being appointed as the pedagogical leaders of the school. She questions their ability, and their ready devotion to duty with the move to explicit teaching. It is this idea of duty that causes tensions between Harriot and other teachers in her current school. For Harriot, her duty is to her students. Everything she does is about modelling to students how to behave, balanced with her care for them:

> *I get appalled with some of the things that I see and hear. And even if it's things like dress, we must present ourselves as a role model the whole time. (Interview 3)*

> *I think I was viewed as a fuddy-duddy. (Interview 2)*

	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 1 Know students and how they learn			●	
Standard 2 Know content and how to teach it			●	
Standard 3 Plan and implement effective teaching/ learning			●	
Standard 4 Create/maintain supportive and safe learning environment			●	
Standard 5 Assess, provide feedback & report on students' learning			●	
Standard 6 Engage in professional learning			●	
Standard 7 Engage with colleagues, parents/ carers and community			●	

Figure 3. Harriot's self-evaluation against the APSTs.

Harriot believes there are times when other teachers do not respect her experiences and view her as a recalcitrant. She sees them being dutiful to what the principal requires without consideration to the care the children need. Harriot often feels old and describes being 'thrown out' (Harriot, Interview 3) with all the other teaching

strategies. There is a disconnection between what she sees as the purpose of education and how education is now positioned. There are different agendas and different levels of accountability. For Harriot, the focus is on learning. The current accountability framework (Department of Education and Training, 2015) is built on a consumer model, where students are just one customer, and learning is based on community expectations, and government priorities and policies. Thus, professional practice is based on evidence of performance, not the individual needs of the child. Harriot acknowledges this fact:

Teaching seems to have got this identity of its own…I seem to be here to satisfy adults. (Interview 1)

Harriot considers that the purpose of teaching has changed. Hattie (2016) suggested that the focus is now on ensuring that each child has a year's progress for a year's input. However, this is based on academic measures alone, which ignores the very personal nature of teaching. Hattie (2016) called for clearer notions of success, but ignored aesthetic education and the care that Harriot feels is an important part of the process of teaching. There is a shifting focus of care for the child to care only for the outcomes of learning:

[There are] kids who actually need a lot of help, and I know of instances where they've been in year one, they've had really horrendous problems, and they mightn't get fixed 'til they're year six… I think if you're going into battle, you know the enemy. You have to know what the enemy is, and the enemy is behaviour and how they see themselves. (Interview 4)

For Harriot, her sense of belonging in teaching is based on the care she has for her students. She struggles with the disconnection of teachers to elements of care for the student, and the performative agenda, which tends towards being oppositional to the image of care that she holds. This divide between her image of self and practice raises questions about the purpose of teaching and what is measured in the performative agenda. Harriot's image of teaching as a craft does not sit easily with measurement against the standards.

4.2 Introducing Kathy

I have noticed in the last couple of years that nearly everything is based on how other people see me. That is such a bad self-image. I want to be perceived to be

a good teacher. Not just to be a good teacher but to be seen as a good teacher. (Interview 1)

4.2.1 The Image of a Good Teacher

Kathy wears a mask. The mask she wears is that of the good teacher, the ideal teacher that Kathy desires to be. Bartsch (2006) suggested that the mask 'connotes a political world in which the performance of the persona entailed the donning of a false surface' (p. 9). This was a revelation to Kathy, which emerged through our conversations. From the surprise in her voice as she made this declaration, this may have been the first time she realised her connection with others' perceptions of her. Akinbode (2013) suggested 'that the telling of a story might be a cathartic experience for the teller, and lead to emotional insights' (p. 64). This was clearly evident for Kathy.

The image of the ideal teacher is Kathy's mask. However, this mask changes depending on who is looking. Bartsch (2006) suggested that there are few people who can see through the mask. Kathy attempts to divide her self into the self that others observe, the mask that she wears and how she views herself. Higgins (1987) introduced different self-state representations to understand the motivation to change depending on the different standpoints of the self. Self-state representations, according to Higgins (1987) comprise the domains of the self, the actual, ideal and ought self, and the standpoints of the self, which is the own or other. For Kathy, there is a discrepancy between how she wants to be seen (ought/own) and how she is seen by others (actual/other). According to Higgins (1987), individuals are motivated to reach a condition where there is no discrepancy. Kathy attempts to eliminate this discrepancy by presenting herself in a way she thinks is expected by other teachers. She wears the mask of the ideal teacher in the hope that she becomes what she portrays.

Kathy is masquerading as a good teacher. Carson and Langer (2006) suggested that 'purposely acting as if one is somehow different than he or she is can lead to self-improvement' (p. 32). However, inherent in this notion is that there is a single representation of a good teacher that Kathy can attempt to masquerade as and achieve. However, unlike an historical masquerade, which was a 'space where people could enjoy fleeting liberty' (Tseëlon, 2001, p. 28), Kathy's masquerade homogenises and constrains the image of her teacher self to her ideal/own and ought/other perceptions of a good teacher.

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Kathy cares about what others think of her in the practice of teaching and wants to be perceived as a good teacher. Baumeister and Leary (1995) suggested that this is part of the desire to belong. A desire to belong relates to 'experiences of being part of the social fabric and the ways in which social bonds and ties are manifested in practice' (Anthias, 2009, p. 8). For Kathy, her focus is on impressing other teachers so that they see her as a valuable part of the community of teaching:

> *I just really wanted to make a good impression…We were told from day one that you are going into a school to get a job, so make a good impression. (Interview 1)*

> *It was you know, 'you are a fourth year, you're supposed to know what you are doing', and I was really wanting to make a good impression. I wasn't going to say no, so I had to do what she told me to do…They just chucked me in there expecting me to be able to do it, and I couldn't. (Interview 1)*

Carson and Langer (2006) suggested that individuals who are focused on impressing others are putting on a 'good front' and 'behave the way others think they should behave or the way they think others think they should behave in a given situation' (p. 31). Kathy attempts to mask reality and the image of her actual teacher self. She is attempting to both conceal her teacher self and reveal what she believes others want to see. Tseëlon (2001) suggested that the mask is the 'embodiment of the fragile dividing line between concealment and revelation, truth and artifice' (p. 20), as the wearer wants to be identified with the mask they wear. What is evident is the unveiling of the images that represent the different standpoints of the self (Moretti & Higgins, 1999).

There are shifts in Kathy's images of self, depending on the standpoint to which she defers. Markus and Nurius (1986) introduced research into the possible selves to 'represent individuals' ideas of what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming' (p. 954). Kathy wants to be the ideal teacher that she believes others think she ought to be. She wants to be a good teacher and is afraid of not attaining this ideal. Kathy masks her 'actual' self and projects an 'ideal' self, based on an 'ought' self. Therefore, attempting to elucidate Kathy's images of her teacher self is a difficult task, as Kathy portrays the images that she thinks others expect.

4.2.2 The Image of the Newcomer

As an added complication to understanding Kathy's images of her teacher self is the alternative mindset that she embraces through having engaged in a double degree in Education and Human Services:

> *It was my fourth year though it was when I did the human services pracs, so by the time I got back into the classroom in my fifth year, I had been out of the classroom for two years. And we raised that several times with the university, that it was a problem. You can't take us out of the classroom for two years. Any of the skills we had developed are gone, and anything that we come across in our reading, we might do or try, was gone out of our heads. And so, we were in a human services mindset and it was clearly different to a teaching framework which is really hard to get back into. (Interview 1)*

Not only did completing a double degree mean time away from the classroom, she also saw her focus during that time as different to when teaching. For Kathy, the completion of a double degree is part of her attempt to impress others. It is, as Steele, Spencer and Lynch (1993) contended, a 'self-affirming, image-maintaining process' (p. 885). The double degree is also significant as it highlights Kathy's indecision about whether she wanted to be a teacher:

> *During my second year prac…I thought that I was meant to do this, you know that this was my career and I could do it. (Interview 1)*

The disconnect that Kathy makes between teaching and human services suggests that she does not see these experiences as having contributed to her teaching professional practice. It could be argued that Kathy does not understand teaching as a human endeavour. This is evidenced by her focus on the knowledge required to teach:

> *I didn't know much. I was eager to learn, but I didn't know very much about anything…There were so many things that I didn't know and should have known…I didn't know what I didn't know. I had no idea what was missing, and where to get that knowledge. (Interview 1)*

Bullough (2014) suggested that newcomers to teaching see practice as dispensing what one knows and practice does not always make perfect (p. 80). Kathy situates herself as a newcomer to teaching even after her three years in the profession by her continued belief that she just has to work hard to become a good teacher.

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4.2.3 The Image of the Overachiever

I didn't think that I was a very good teacher…I am pretty tenacious and knew that if I kept going that I would be a good teacher. (Interview 1)

I have always been such an overachiever, and done really well at everything that I had tried, and knew that I could do, I knew that I wasn't hopeless. (Interview 1)

Kathy believes that the harder she works, the more she will achieve. Her view of her own competency aligns with Dunning et al.'s (2003) supposition that individuals start with a top-down approach with their own pre-conceived ideas about their knowledge and skill. Kathy's pre-existing views of self and professional practice are not based on any objective performance. Instead, she works from the understanding that she has the necessary attributes to be a good teacher, and because she is an overachiever, she will attain her goal:

I wasn't considered what a good teacher was. But that I would get there, because I had the necessary pre-requisites. I had an interest in kids and I had a love of learning. I had an interest in getting the best out of them. I had skills and I developed those skills. I was getting good at using them in the classroom that I knew that I could develop it and I knew that I wasn't totally and completely useless. (Interview 1)

Inherent in Kathy's statement is what Clance and Imes (1978) described as a 'diligence to prevent discovery' (p. 83). As Ringenbach (1998) suggested, many 'overachievers have problems dealing with their own imperfections' (p. 112). Therefore, for Kathy, her focus is on the knowledge and skills she needs to prevent discovery.

Kathy's focus is on the knowledge she has to attain. Bullough and Pinnegar (2009) suggested that the new managerialism focuses on best practice and knowledge rather than on relationships. Kathy's focus is on her self and what she can or cannot do, with no connection to the human interaction involved in teaching. In this way, Kathy situates herself as a beginning teacher even after three years in the profession.

It is clear that Kathy desires to not just *be* a good teacher but to be *seen* as a good teacher. She wears a mask to ensure that her 'ideal' and others 'ought' view of her self is what is seen. Additional to this, she has a very narrow view of her self and

professional practice and masquerades in the role of teaching, to belong. Kathy believes that her desire will produce the reality of a good teacher.

4.2.4 The Image of the Ideal

I always had good teachers… Very nurturing and fun, and that whole in control thing. That is why when I got into that fourth year practicum and everything was chaotic, I couldn't deal with it because it was totally different to what I had ever seen. (Interview 1)

I had really good teachers myself as a kid and teachers that really helped and really knew what I needed and were able to really pinpoint where I was at and really figure out the gaps in my knowledge that I had and build them. … and I was a high overachiever and so they always helped me. Even in primary school I was a high achiever and they would always push, and I am really glad that they did. (Interview 1)

Kathy has a very narrow conception of teaching practice. She puts a box around good teaching and decides what does or does not fit within it. She lists the attributes that she sees as necessary for good teaching. Arnon and Reichel (2007) suggested that every individual 'carries with them an image of ideal teachers and their qualities, skills and abilities' (p. 461). As Kathy says:

I am very judgemental and I know what a good teacher looks like and I know what a bad one looks like. (Interview 2)

However, in defining the attributes or skills needed to be a good teacher, there is no clear consensus. Miller (2012) suggested that these are difficult to qualify. Connell (2009) argued that it is a conceptual question and is constantly changing. However, Kathy categorises good teaching according to her own experiences; that is, her ideal/own standpoint of her teacher self.

The ideal image of a good teacher held by Kathy is intricately intertwined with her own experiences as a student. Lortie (1975) and Chong, Low and Goh (2011) contended that teachers enter the profession with images of a teacher from their own schooling. For Kathy, there is comfort in this continuity and an explanation for her own deficiencies. Dewey (1938) suggested that this continuity allows for this knowledge to become an instrument to deal with new situations.

The ideal image held by Kathy narrows her view of teaching. However, it is also her aspiration, the ideal against which she measures herself:

I knew that I wasn't a good teacher… I always thought I was doing a bad job…I knew that I wasn't hopeless. I knew that I had things missing, but I knew that I was capable, I was more than capable of doing it, I just couldn't because I didn't know things. (Interview 1)

Kathy continues to wear the mask of her ideal, aware that she does not measure up. According to Cole and Knowles (1993), 'preservice teachers strive to enact or play out their personal images of teaching despite contextual realities which are often at odds with them' (p. 459). Even with the honest appraisal of her self, Kathy maintains the ideal/own even in the face of the actual/own. The discrepancy identified in her pre-service years motivated her towards her ideal (Higgins, 1987).

Kathy's current image of a good teacher sits against the backdrop of her self-evaluation against the APSTs (see Figure 4). Kathy's actual/own evaluation highlights contradictions between how she sees herself in actual practice and how she wants to be seen. The APSTs (2013) state that a quality or good teacher is able to exhibit professional knowledge, practice and engagement. Kathy is unable to measure up to the standards, and fears others seeing that she does not measure up. This discrepancy between what one can do and thinks they can do has been termed 'imposter syndrome' by Clance and Imes (1978). This also explains Kathy's need to wear the mask of what others expect of her and what she expects of herself. As Ferrari and Thompson (2006) explained, imposters fear failure.

Standard 1 Know students and how they learn	Graduate ●	Proficient	Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 2 Know content and how to teach it	Graduate ●	Proficient	Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 3 Plan and implement effective teaching/ learning	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished	Lead ●
Standard 4 Create/maintain supportive and safe learning environment	Graduate	Proficient ●	Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 5 Assess, provide feedback & report on students' learning	Graduate ●	Proficient	Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 6 Engage in professional learning	Graduate	Proficient ●	Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 7 Engage with colleagues, parents/ carers and community	Graduate	Proficient ●	Highly Accomplished	Lead

Figure 4. Kathy's self-evaluation against the APSTs.

The success Kathy recounts in the following excerpts is in relation to her fear of failure:

> *I remember posting on Facebook after that first day (as a classroom teacher), I was born to do this. I mean it was just so successful. I felt good that I had solidly got through a day on my own without anyone looking over my shoulder. (Interview 1)*

> *The first day that I was on my own...and nobody died...nothing exploded. It was not a spectacular day, it was not a bad day, nothing exciting happened in it, but I survived and that was a real comfort. And by the end of that I was I was like 'I can do this'. (Interview 4)*

Here, she is countering any perception of her failure to be a good teacher by showing what she can do. Spencer, Fein and Lomore (2001) suggested that 'because the self-concept depends to such a large extent on these self-other perceptions, concerns about failures in this interpersonal aspect of the self can be particularly threatening to individuals' (p. 42.) Kathy's own evaluation against the standards threatens the mask that she wears for others and her image of self.

4.2.5 The Multifaceted Images

Kathy's cycling through perceptions of self and other complicated the understanding of her image of self and the effect of this on her practice. In particular, she assumed different subject positions, which sometimes appeared to contradict each other. However, one constant is her desire to be seen as a good teacher and her fear that she will not meet this ideal. Her desire to be seen as a good teacher produces her reality:

> *I like to think I am a lot better at what I do, now, than two years ago. I know*
> *more now, what is important and what needs to be done. (Interview 2).*

By holding to her ideal image of a teacher, Kathy is motivated towards that goal in what Deleuze and Guattari (1987) contended is desire not as lack, but as a practice that constructs its own field of immanence (p. 156). Moretti and Higgins (1999) suggested that self-representations are interconnected. For Kathy, her ideal image, what she and others think she ought to be, are interconnected with her actual image of self. Her image of self and practice is multifaceted and guided by a range of self-state representations. However, Moretti and Higgins (1999) argued that some individuals are more sensitive to others' representations of the self, which is evident throughout Kathy's conversations.

Kathy image of self and practice is strongly connected to others' representations of her. This is evident in the confidence she gains from feedback:

> *I had so much positive feedback from her and she would tell everyone how great*
> *I was. She went to the deputy principal and said that she wanted me back for my*
> *final prac…She kept saying to everyone, exceptional, she has done really well, a*
> *very good student-teacher…By the end I was really confident. (Interview 1)*

Moretti and Higgins (1999) suggested that individuals 'who chronically regulate in relation to the guides of significant others run the risk of experiencing psychological distress and low self-esteem' (p. 209). For Kathy, her own self-esteem or self-worth is directly connected to the level of confidence she has, and is related to how her significant others, her mentor teachers, see her. Ferkany (2008) suggested that self-worth manifests itself in an individual's confidence:

> *I wasn't confident in my ability. I did have ability, the best that it could have*
> *been, but I didn't have any confidence in it at all. (Interview 1)*

Kathy's confidence, or lack thereof, positions her differently in her professional practice. Her confidence, whether internal or external, produced different images of her self and different considerations of what she could do:

> *It took me a long time to be gutsy enough to do my own thing, my style, than what teachers wanted. (Interview 1)*

Compte and Postlewaite (2003) confirmed that confidence affects performance. Kathy's image of self as confident is directly connected to her ability to perform as a teacher. This suggests that her images of self are multifaceted and incorporate a range of elements of self and other. However, tensions are also evident between these different images of self:

> *I was not really confident at all…all I ever got was you need to do this, you need to do this, not that you're doing well.*

> *I didn't think that I was ready, and I wasn't but I think the university had a big part to play in that. I think that they failed me…It wasn't really my fault. (Interview 1)*

This interrelation between self and other and the tension between the different images of self and practice brings this discussion full circle. While throughout our conversation Kathy attempts to wear a mask, she removes this mask to show that her teaching is a masquerade based on how she wants others to see her. However, this masquerade is as much influenced by her own confidence as the confidence given to her by others. Goffman (1959) suggested that individuals are strategic in their impression formation, much like actors on a stage.

While initially it seems that the image of Kathy's teacher self is unknown to her, it was more her perceived lack of confidence in her teacher self that blurred these images. Rancière (2009) contended that 'the image is never a simple reality' (p. 6), and for Kathy, her images are the reality of what she wants others to see. However, by attempting to conceal, she reveals more about her self and other than she realises.

4.3 Introducing Jessie

It's not for everybody…not everyone can draw pictures, not everyone can teach. It can be quite creative it can be quite mindboggling at times. Sometimes you are doing a great drawing in the classroom and it turns out horrible when you stop to reflect. You know you are either good at it or you are not…but I guess I see teaching as you are there for the children and without you being there, your artwork is never going to be complete. (Interview 2)

4.3.1 Image of the Artist

Jessie's connects teaching to drawing pictures, depicting teaching as an art form. Eisner (1996) found that when teachers were asked to characterise the nature of teaching, their responses often described an art or a craft (p. 9). Teaching as drawing is not a literal description, but a metaphor, the use of which, according to Munby and Russell (1990), gives insight into how teachers construct their professional worlds (p. 3).

The metaphoric construction of teaching as drawing provides insight into Jessie's view of self and her own practice. In the excerpt above, she uses the metaphor of drawing in multiple ways: she introduces teaching as a creative endeavour, in turn considering it in relation to anyone's capacity to teach, thereby interconnecting the self and teaching practice. Eisner (1996) explained that teaching as an art form can be understood in relation to either an 'art that is' or a 'work of art'. Jessie views teaching as an aesthetic experience that encompasses both. This is supported by Dewey's (1938) contention that a work of art is a work that makes aesthetic experience possible. For Jessie, teaching is both an art form and a creative endeavour.

Jessie draws parallels between drawing and teaching as a creative endeavour, considering that good teachers are creative teachers. Jessie's comment that not everyone can draw reflects her view that not everyone can be a good teacher. There is a connection here to her belief that drawing, and thus good teaching, cannot be learned. Jessie does not see teaching as knowledge and skills to be obtained, but as something inherent to the person. Wragg (1984) observed that those who consider teaching a creative endeavour avoid using terms like 'skills', as this reduces teaching to mechanical crudity (p. 7). Jessie views teaching as all-encompassing and questions the capacity of teachers that do not embody teaching as an art.

Jessie believes that good teachers are creative and there for the children. Palmer (1997) suggested that the capacity to teach is affected by one's ability to connect and move beyond technique. There are no shades of grey in how Jessie sees the capacity to teach. For her, it is all about the children. Dewey (1938) stated that humankind 'likes to think in terms of extreme opposites. It is given to formulating its belief in either/or, between which it recognises no intermediate possibilities' (p. 17). This provides an underpinning to Jessie's story about how she views her self in teaching and how she views others, who do or do not succeed according to her criteria. According to Weisberg, Sexton, Mulhern and Keeling (2009), teachers are acutely aware that they are not all the same (p. 2). Jessie makes a distinction between herself as a good teacher who connects with students, and those who do not.

The relationship between the teacher and others is key in Jessie's view of a good teacher. Palmer (1997) contended that 'good teachers join self, subject and students in the fabric of life because they teach from an integral and undivided self' (p. 16). For Jessie, she is not complete without teaching; teaching has become an integral part of her life and how she sees herself. For this reason, Jessie believes a person is either a good teacher or not, because being a good teacher is inherently part of who you are.

Jessie also suggests that without being in the classroom, the artwork, her teacher self, is not complete. Brooks (2009) highlighted that drawing allows an image to be seen as a whole. Jessie sees who she is; she is entwined in her professional practice. The excerpt above about drawing pictures provides the imagery showing Jessie's interconnected view of teaching. Jessie sees that teaching is an essential part of who she is:

> *I teach who I am. (Interview 2)*

> *I am a constructivist. I am student-centred. I am all about achievement for the students. I am focused on that. And that sums it up how I think about teaching... What you see is what you get. (Interview 2)*

In fact, she is adamant that without teaching, she would be incomplete. Throughout our conversations, Jessie spoke of teaching and being a good teacher as a calling. According to Kung (2013), there is an echo of a voice from the past when teachers describe their work as a calling. Teaching as a calling draws from both motivation and external circumstances (Kung, 2013).

4.3.2 Transitional Images

I probably knew myself pretty well…as a teacher I don't think I was far from what I am now. Some things aren't realistic in the real world. (Interview 1)

Without the experience in the classroom, and classes and different year levels, I don't think that I would come up with this personal statement that represents me today… Words can't describe how important those [professional experiences] were to me…I'm on my way, but I don't think I am there yet! (Interview 1)

I was a very beginning teacher… I was going through my beliefs of what I was expecting, what teacher would I be compared to the real world. I [could] probably write a novel now. It has only been three years! (Interview 1)

Jessie foregrounds how well she knows her self in teaching. Inherent in this the connection by Jessie to the images of past teachers, which she has subsumed into her own images of self. Zembylas (2003) argued that subjectivity is produced, negotiated and reshaped through discursive practices (p. 113). It is Jessie's experiences as a pre-service teacher, developing her personal philosophy, and her experiences in the classroom, that over time have shaped and reshaped her view of self and her professional practice. Contained in this is a realism of teaching that Jessie believes continues to shape her. Foucault (1990) suggested that there is a need to trace the constitution of self through the intersection of meaning and experience. For Jessie, there is no defined continua of her developing self and professional practice.

Jessie cycles through different times, places and experiences to conceptualise her image of self and practice. Barad (2003) contended that individuals emerge through interactions. For Jessie, it is in interacting with teachers and professional practice that her images of self and practice are emerging and becoming. She sees that all views of her self are contained in her current image. Markus and Nurius (1986) contended that no selves are left behind. Jessie sees the continuation of herself as a teacher from the early years to the present day, and there is no divide between her personal and professional images of self. This is especially significant when Jessie attempts to understand where her knowledge of teaching comes from:

When you are in a situation, you just go, that feels right I am going to go with that… it just comes or it feels natural to do what I do in the classroom. (Interview 2)

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It is definitely training as well, but I guess that it is embedded in you, that you don't even notice that you are doing it. It is about 50/50 [you versus learning] … Training, it kind of plays in the background and you don't notice that it is from the training that you are doing a certain thing in a certain way. (Interview 2).

Just feels like it is innate, do you know what I mean? I don't know if it's because I've had lots of little brothers and sisters and I've always been helping on schoolwork and things like that, almost being a teacher at home when you were like that at a young age? I don't know. We used to always play schools growing up, so I don't know if that's it. (Interview 4).

Jessie finds it difficult to articulate where her knowledge or ability comes from. Yet, throughout our conversations, Jessie repeats the words 'innate' and 'instinct'. Taken at face value, the use of these words suggests that Jessie has an existentialist view of self, an essential self that is fixed. However, Cheng, Chan, Tang and Cheng (2009) completed a study on the epistemological beliefs of teachers and found that distinctions could be made between the naïvity and sophistication of teachers' beliefs depending on whether there was an innate ability to learn. Applying Cheng et al.'s (2009) definitions to Jessie's statements reveals that she has a mixed epistemology with her understanding of the role of training in developing her innate knowledge:

I am a constructivist. I am student-centred learning...I am all about achievement for the students, I'm focused on that. And that sums it up how I think about teaching… what you see is what you get… When you are in the situation, you just go, that feels right I am going to go with that…It just comes naturally or it feels natural to do what I do in the classroom…It is definitely training as well, but I guess that it is embedded in you, that you don't even notice that you are doing it, but you are doing it… I probably could safely say that it would be 70 per cent me and 30 per cent learning. (Interview 2)

Jessie's transitional understanding of her self and practice suggests that she is developing ways of dealing with new situations. Brownlee, Purdie and Boulton-Lewis (2001) explained that the change in beliefs happens when teachers question discrepancies between pre-existing beliefs and new information:

There is an image of yourself sitting up the front of the class delivering your class and having no problems. But in the real world that just does not happen…

that was my image of myself from when I started uni and that was my image of
what a teacher is, and I guess that would come from when I was at school.
(Interview 1)

Her idealistic view of teaching is in complete contrast to her realistic experiences. This both consolidates her images of self and clarifies her understanding and images held of practice. Jessie is able to differentiate between an ideal and actual image of good teaching. Higgins (1987) posited that the different images of self have motivational significance. It is interesting that the analysis of Jessie's interviews revealed a discrepancy only in her image of practice'. Brady (2007) suggested that teachers' ideal image of the classroom gives insight into the emerging identities of teachers.

Jessie has an ideal image of teaching that she can see is unrealistic in the 'real world'. This ideal image is drawn from her romanticisation of her own school days. Brady (2007) confirmed that many beliefs about the role of the teacher and learning are accumulated from one's early school days. However, Apple (2001) suggested that it is the neoliberal agenda that is returning us to 'a romanticised past of the ideal home, family and school' (p. 412). In the face of change, what Jessie describes as the 'real world', she realises that school as she knows it no longer exists, and that she must adapt to fit in. She cannot see teaching as she once did. Jessie, therefore, moves to mimic teachers, to move forward in her professional practice:

I threw a lot of my own stuff in there, but a majority of the time you do tend to
find that you mimic what the mentor teacher was doing. (Interview 1)

4.3.3 The Image of the Apprentice

Even though Jessie has become more realistic about her self and her professional practice over time, she is not yet where she hopes to be; that is, she is not at the standard set by those teachers she views as professionals and that she seeks to emulate. Hodder (2014) suggested that the positions individuals assume are relationally produced:

Yvonne: So when you think back at your mentor teachers, when you looked at
them, how did you see them? If you had to just capture them in one word, what
would it be?

Jessie: The one that I was just speaking of before, I would probably say
unprofessional. Another one that I taught with in grade one, was extremely
professional, very routine based, very student-centred as well. I actually felt that

myself and her saw eye-to-eye on a lot of things. The way she taught in her
classroom would be the way I taught. Mimicking her wasn't a problem.
(Interview 1)

Jessie's perception of a good teacher is based on how she views the teachers that she has emulated in her professional practice. This suggests an inconsistency in Jessie's view of self and teaching. At the beginning, Jessie was adamant that a good teacher is something you are, not something that can be learned. However, she also discusses an apprentice–master relationship and teaching as a craft. Jessie copies her mentor teacher, much as an apprentice artist copies the master. The apparent misalignment between Jessie's view of teaching as a calling and her view of teaching is a craft indicates she understands that there is more to teaching than she originally thought. As Gamble (2000) notes, the 'modelling of the invisible is what happens in craft apprenticeship' (p. 190).

Some aspects of teaching were invisible to Jessie until she entered the classroom. According to Gamble (2000), the master holds the craft in her/his body and the apprentice has no free access to this knowledge by virtue of being part of the group, instead having to copy the master to gain the knowledge. Jessie views her mentor teachers as wanting her to copy them. Jessie positions herself as someone called to teaching, and she is positioned in her professional practice by her mentor teachers as an apprentice who needs to be 'trained'. This significantly influences her professional practice:

You have to master those levels before you go to the next one…I wouldn't see
myself as being able to put highly accomplished if other people that have had 10
to 20 years teaching are only highly accomplished. I wouldn't feel that it is
right…I have only been out (of university) for three years, so I can't quite say
that I'm highly accomplished…That is probably just me going I've only been out
three years, how can I be a leader, so maybe I'm just rating myself lower.
(Interview 3)

Although Jessie believes that she is a good teacher, because of the position of her self as an apprentice, she cannot rise above the master. She does not want to be seen as an imposter. According to Clance and Imes (1978), '"imposterhood" describes a sense of personal inauthenticity in individuals who evidence achievement' (p. 242). It was clear in Jessie's professional experience reports and through our conversation that

she has been achieving as a teacher, yet she does not want to be seen as an imposter by teachers who have been in the profession for longer. This is not the only time that she expresses concern for how others see her.

4.3.4 The Image of the Professional Teacher

Jessie aligns herself, or does not, with others depending on their 'professionalism':

> *One that I taught grade one with was extremely professional, very routine based, very student-centred. I actually felt that myself and her saw eye-to-eye on a lot of things, and the way she taught in her classroom would be the way I taught, mimicking her wasn't a problem. [The other was] unprofessional, unplanned, winging it all the time. No feedback on lessons that I taught, and unaware of what I had to do there from uni. Unaware of some of the student learning difficulties. (Interview 1)*

According to Noddings (2003), professionalism refers to the 'standards and practices approved by the profession' (p. 246), or in this case approved by Jessie. It could be argued that Jessie, drawing from her idealistic images of professional practice, used this language to identify the 'master' teacher that she prefers to copy—someone who matches her view of teaching. There is an element of what Ball (2010) called game playing in this. Jessie wants others to see her as the professional she perceives herself to be. Therefore, she aligns herself with other teachers who she sees as similar to her, who have the same view of professional practice as she does:

> *Yvonne: So your prac reports…these are the image that your mentor teachers held of you…how do you think they saw you?*
>
> *Jessie: There is one in there. I think it is this one (sorts through reports), an emerging professional…they are the best words!*
>
> *Yvonne: When you look through your reports, can you pinpoint specific changes in the way you saw yourself after each prac?*
>
> *Jessie: Probably just more my growth in professionalism. I see myself as a professional now, not as an emerging professional. I'm still learning, always learning, but I see myself still striving to give my students the best. (Interview 1)*

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Jessie uses the term 'professional' to mean a good teacher and as a way to connect her image of self and practice to teachers she sees as 'professional'. This term invokes a sense of correctness in what she and the 'professional' teacher are doing in comparison to the other, the 'unprofessional' teacher. The suggestion is that a 'professional' teacher is one that puts their students first. Jessie dichotomises other teachers in relation to her view of professional practice, her view of them and their view of her. There is contained in this view a recognition of what Davies and Harre (1990) called positioning:

> Once having taken up a particular position of one's own, a person inevitably sees the world from the vantage point of this position and in terms of particular images, metaphors, story lines and concepts which are made relevant within the particular discursive practice in which they are positioned. (p. 46)

Jessie has taken up the position of a professional teacher to denote an image of self and practice that is relational, as someone who puts her students first. Jessie is a confident, self-assured teacher who knows what it is she wants to do in her own practice:

> *As a teacher in the classroom I've felt more confident with experience, and not second guessing myself so much; whether or not I'm doing this properly, or I'm more confident saying 'Yes, this is what I'm going do, this is why I'm going do it'. And I do believe that I'm not very far away from being highly accomplished [on the standards] in most of them, purely because I've had the experience of working with colleagues in a team-teaching environment and on PE... I haven't really changed anything, but it's made me probably more confident that I'm on the right track. I'm pretty confident that I'm knowing my students to the level I need to know them at; I'm making sure that their learning is in line with what they need and can do, and assessment come along with it. So yeah, I'm pretty confident that I'm on track. (Interview 3)*

Confidence is the key to being more than a copy of the 'master' teacher. It allows Jessie to take up the position of a professional teacher regardless of how others see her:

> *I will take their criticism if they have any, but I am strong, strong thinking in myself, that I know what I am doing is correct and that is how I would do it. That is probably based on going to university and my training here and my own schooling too. (Interview 2)*

For Jessie, her confidence extends on her calling to be a good teacher, and enables her to see the need to continually develop her practice. Initially considered a contradiction, her view of teaching as both a calling and a craft is actually an intertwining of the different positions that she has assumed through her experiences in teaching. Davies and Harre (1990) indicated that there is a braiding of several story lines through our conversations.

Teaching is a complex practice that is positioned as a calling, craft and profession within Jessie's conversation. Loughran (2011) called for consideration of teaching as both a craft and a profession. Jessie demonstrates this through her view of teaching as relational:

> *I believe that I am pretty good at building relationships. You can't do that just sitting at the front doing the lesson. You have got to get around and talk to the students and know them. I guess that is one thing that relates to that, a hands-on approach. I have that I have gotten that from university and I use it every day. (Interview 2)*
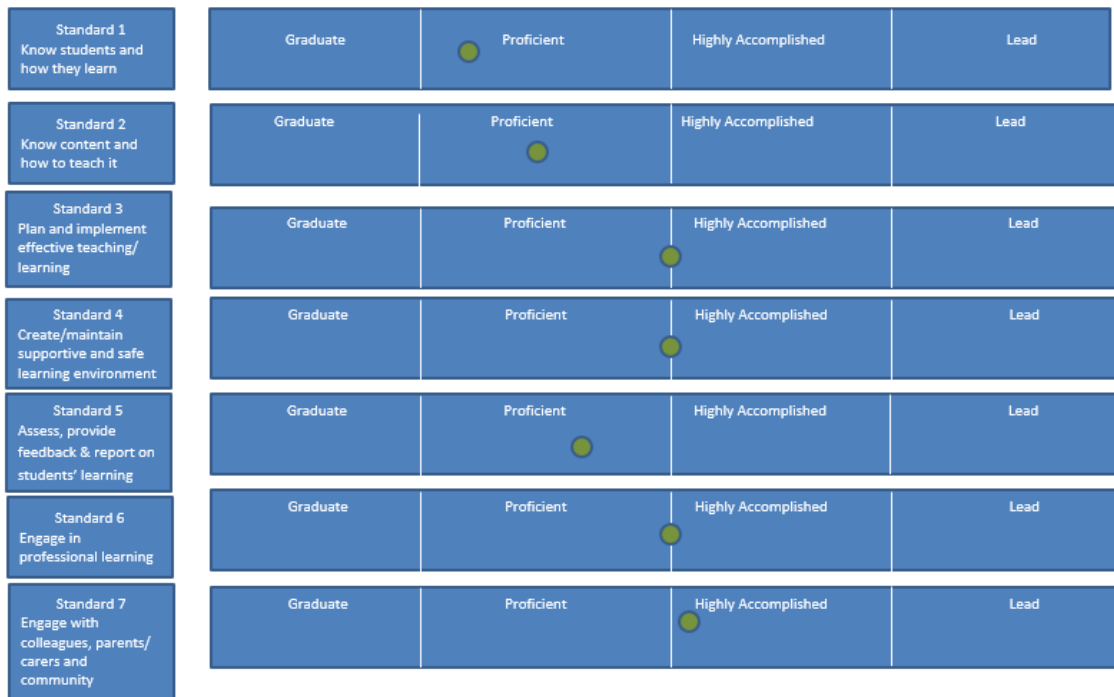
Jessie sees that the practice of teaching is a personal undertaking that encompasses elements of care for students and their engagement in learning. She also acknowledges the need to work within the apprenticeship framework of teaching as a craft, in line with her mentor teachers' expectations. However, her sojourn at university and the need to consider self in light of professional standards has also seen her accept teaching as a profession. Jessie's evaluation of herself against the APSTs (see Figure 5) is another example of her game playing.

Jessie is very aware of how she positions herself and others, but acknowledges that she cannot position her self against the standards higher than others perceive her. Jessie fabricates an image of her self and practice that she thinks others want to see. Ball (2010) argued that fabrications are both a form of resistance and of capitalisation. This is Jessie's way of resisting, by subverting from the inside:

> *I just don't teach from the book. You know what I mean. We always question why is that? You know they ask the weirdest things sometimes. But you know, sometimes we just run with it…You have to make an educated judgement of what can we squish together a little bit more to have that conversation still with the kids, because I do think it is important for them to sometimes go off on a tangent and look up things and find out that information. (Interview 2)*

Yvonne: Would you change based on what others say?

Jessie: No I would question them with what they meant. I would work out what I wanted to change. (Interview 2)

Standard 1 Know students and how they learn	Graduate	● Proficient	Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 2 Know content and how to teach it	Graduate	Proficient ●	Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 3 Plan and implement effective teaching/learning	Graduate	Proficient	● Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 4 Create/maintain supportive and safe learning environment	Graduate	Proficient	● Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 5 Assess, provide feedback & report on students' learning	Graduate	Proficient ●	Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 6 Engage in professional learning	Graduate	Proficient	● Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 7 Engage with colleagues, parents/carers and community	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead

Figure 5. Jessie's self-evaluation against the APSTs.

Jessie puts her own image of practice ahead of submitting to the requirements of the system. Her relational view of teaching is out of place within the performative agenda. Ball (2010) suggests this can cause teachers to leave the profession. However, Jessie subverts the system to teach in the way she believes to be best for her students. According to Ball (2010), fabrications 'conceal as much as they reveal' (p. 225). Jessie conceals her subversion by her game playing:

I do what I think's best. So, you know, I don't think I should change if I feel that's the right thing and I'm coasting along quite good and the kids are adapting. (Interview 4)

Yvonne: So one of the things that you have said often is that what you do in the classroom is what feels right. What do you mean by that?

Jessie: Curriculum-wise. Like you know you get the C2C and what you've got to teach and things like that. But if kids are struggling on one point and the document's telling you you've got to move on tomorrow, what I mean by that is I feel that it's right to stop and make sure the kids really understand what we're

all working on rather than move on and just go 'We'll fix it later'. So yeah that's probably what I mean by that, what it feels like… if I was a graduate teacher, I would probably knuckle down and just do as the document says, but now with the experience I would just speak up for myself and for the kids and say 'This is what we're doing and this is why'. (Interview 4)

Jessie feels that she can do what she thinks is best because of her experience, confidence and professionalism as a teacher. Chua (2009) suggested that the only way forward for teachers, is for there to be a breaking of the pretence, giving voice to the terror of performativity. However, for Jessie, this pretence continues in the preservation of her images of self and practice as an aesthetic endeavour:

With kids these days, you have got to almost teach them, you know, that they have to put on sunscreen to be safe outside. You have got to tell them, what to eat for lunches, when they eat junk food. That kind of social awareness that even so, you are almost sometimes like a parent, and you're socially getting those kids ready for life. So, you know, you're not just teaching them their 1, 2, 3, you are teaching them the bare basics of what they need. I guess it comes back to looking like a parent. That is the way I look at it, and then in some cases you have got to be more than just a teacher, you have got to get the kids ready. (Interview 2)

Jessie positions her teacher self as a caring professional, skilled in the art of teaching. However, her aesthetic view of teaching underpins all she does in her teaching practice. She understands that the needs of the students surpass her needs as a teacher and she will work to ensure that they have everything they need. However, she acknowledges that not all teachers think or feel the same way about teaching as being relational. This is evident in how she dichotomises other teachers as professional (aligning with her positioning) or unprofessional (not aligning with her aesthetic view).

Contained in the above excerpt is Jessie's view that teaching includes preparing students for life. Jessie's philosophical image of professional practice is evident throughout the interviews. For Jessie, teaching is more than a craft and a profession; it is a calling, an aesthetic experience that completes her. The current performative agenda does not distract Jessie; she subverts this agenda from the inside. She plays the game, is seen to be doing what is required, and then does what she thinks is best in her classroom.

4.4 Introducing Tina

I think when I first started teaching I wanted to save children and everything like that, but now I just want them to be happy. I want them to learn as much as they can. I don't think I view success as so much academic. I really concentrate on academic, but I think life's more about relationships…You know if you go to work and no matter what you do, you have to think 'well, this is what I did today'. (Interview 2)

4.4.1 The Image of Vulnerability

At the beginning of Tina's professional practice, she wanted to save children. The significance of this statement became apparent in the repetition throughout our conversations that she wants to do no harm. However, it was not until she spoke about an event in her early years of teaching that the importance of this became clear:

Yvonne: Were there other things, when you go back and say I still do that because of that space?

Tina: I think I have got a healthy disregard for some of the things that happened then. Because in the 80s you were allowed to cane kids and stuff like that. You know I would never do anything like that, but there were a few teachers who used to give the kids a bit of a 'whack'. I was told to hit a kid once and I did and I just, never again, you know. There are other ways to discipline a kid and then, I think, you may not believe this but I was really little back then, I was tiny and I just had to develop other strategies. Because I couldn't lord it over kids. You have to develop other strategies and sometimes reward systems and all of those sort of things just work better. (Interview 1)

Her emotional response to this event significantly influenced her view of self and others in professional practice. Zembylas (2003) suggested that 'issues of emotions and teacher identity inform each other and construct interpretations of each other both on a conceptual and on a personal level' (p. 214). However, for Tina this also exposes her vulnerability. Kelchtermans (2009) argued that teachers are not in full control of the conditions in which they work (p. 265). Tina was put in a situation that demanded an action with which she was not comfortable. This incident contributed to her belief that there are better ways to discipline, leading to her mantra to do no harm.

As the interviews progressed, a change is seen in Tina's view of self and practice. She no longer wishes to 'save' children; she just wants them to be happy. Kelchtermans (2009) found that 'during their career teachers find themselves challenged to properly balance between internal and external locus of control, between a satisfying sense of efficacy and a realistic acknowledgement of one's limited impact' (p. 266). Tina switches between how she views her self and practice in a way that suggests she is attempting to compartmentalise the different images of self and the changing purposes of education. This partitioning of self is mostly in relation to points in time and the different experiences that she has had in professional practice. Tina offers a glimpse into each compartment of her teacher self in the above excerpt.

Tina draws comparisons between her past views of teaching, starting 26 years ago, and those of the present day. Casey and Apple (1989, p. 84) suggested that our past is ever-present with us. Bergson (1896) contended that this occurs through perception and memory. Tina perceives a shift in her view of her self and practice, reflecting back through time, and explains the different points in time in relation to her position now.

4.4.2 The Image of Experience

Tina makes a distinction between two points in time and attributes this move in thinking to her experiences. Tina graduated from the Queensland Teachers' College in 1978 and has since worked in eight schools, including four primary schools and three special education positions. She connects her experience to the length of time she has been in the teaching profession. For Tina, time and increasing knowledge is essential in developing experience in professional practice:

Any sort of knowledge, if it is good knowledge, you take and then you work with kids. That has to change the way that you view your class… you kind of accrue knowledge over the years. (Interview 1)

Experience has shown her the importance of knowledge and she connects this to the differences she sees in her view of self and professional practice. Grosz (2005), in exploring Bergson's writing, contends that 'duration is difference, the inevitable force of differentiation and elaboration, which is also another name for becoming' (p. 4). Tina sees a difference between two points in time; however, through the lens of Bergson (2001), these are not oppositional but rather continual and reciprocal. Tina's knowledge has been influenced by the past, present and future. Time has contributed to the

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development of the images of self and professional practice that she holds. Connections can be made to Bergson's (1896) contention that there is a productive relationship between the past and the present.

The relationship between the past and present allows consideration of the movement of Tina's gaze. The movement of her gaze to look at what is not known, to what Derrida, Brault and Naas (1993) termed the invisible, allows Tina to move from what she knows towards new knowledge of self and professional practice. For Tina, her experience through time moved her gaze from focusing on the academic success of students to focusing on their wellbeing, and connected her self to practice in this conception. The movement in her gaze allows for an acknowledgement of her changing knowledge through experience.

Knowledge and experience have produced a change in Tina's understanding of the purpose of teaching and her practice. Braidotti (2006) contended that self is an experience that mobilises, and for Tina there is a mobilisation towards change:

> *There was one kind lady who taught there who took me under her wing and would give me lots of advice. Sometimes I think in your early years you are going to make mistakes, but if you have got someone, if you are teamed up with someone who you can go and talk to or say you are having difficulties with a parent or child, if you have someone who can take you under their wing in those first years, that is as valuable as anything because you can go to them for problems that you a have got and you always work to solve problems that you have got in your classroom at that time. And bit by bit that experience accrues. (Interview 1)*

Tina saw that she developed in her practice gradually because of the experiences that she had and the support that she was given. Her gaze was turned by others (Derrida et al., 1993) to what she could not see for herself, which in turn brought about a conversion in the images she held of self and practice. For Tina, learning from her mistakes helped her develop as a teacher and accrue experience in professional practice:

> *I do think that you pick up a lot on the way and I am probably a better teacher because of it. (Interview 1)*

Tina was like Derrida et al.'s (1993) blind man, searching out the spaces not yet seen to understand self and practice. This connection between seeing and knowing (Foucault, 1977) was evident in Tina's conversation:

> *Sometimes I think a lot of teachers, even younger teachers, don't realise the skill that they have got because they accrue them slowly along the way and through different experiences they have…You kind of learn bit by bit over time and all those experiences come together. You might muddle your way through the first few (years) but you learn skills through that. (Interview 1)*

It is not until a teacher turns their gaze to view their self, when they experience 'self' (Scott, 1996) that they see what was not seen previously (Derrida et al., 1993). As Casey and Apple (1989) contended:

> The glance returns bearing the world on its slender shoulders, thereby altering the subject who initiated it, enlarging and extending the glance in ways that are as radically new and unforeseeable. (p. 94)

For Tina, the turning of the gaze to see her teacher self through time allows an examination of how she views the purpose of teaching.

4.4.3 The Image of Resilience

> *If you go home from teaching thinking 'well my class just rioted all day' I mean what sort of life would that be, if you've got to be doing that for 25/30 years, going home thinking I've made no difference. (Interview 2)*

Tina has experienced a change in her purpose for teaching. Inherent in this is Tina's need to see success for her own wellbeing. Roffey (2012) suggested that 'there is a link between teacher wellbeing and student outcomes' (p. 8). Tina considers seeing success as an essential contributor to keeping her in the profession. Gibbs (2011) saw self-efficacy as a hallmark of resilience in teachers.

Tina has demonstrated self-efficacy in teaching through her commitment to making a difference and her longevity in the profession. Contained in Tina's professional practice is the hope that she is making a difference. Snyder et al. (1991) found that 'higher levels of hope involve greater reciprocally derived perceptions of agency and pathways as people consider goals' (p. 581). For Tina, the importance of her purpose for teaching allowed her to have satisfaction in her personal life and the goals

that she has set. Cotton Bronk, Hill, Lapsley, Talib and Finch (2009) suggested that there is a positive correlation between purpose and wellbeing (p. 500). Tina sees her changing purpose in education from students' academic achievement to their relationships as the hallmark for her success. Tina's self-evaluation against the APSTs (see Figure 6) paints a picture of a highly competent teacher and confirms her experience and resilience in teaching.

Standard 1 Know students and how they learn	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead
Standard 2 Know content and how to teach it	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead
Standard 3 Plan and implement effective teaching/ learning	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead
Standard 4 Create/maintain supportive and safe learning environment	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead
Standard 5 Assess, provide feedback & report on students' learning	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead
Standard 6 Engage in professional learning	Graduate	Proficient ●	Highly Accomplished	Lead
Standard 7 Engage with colleagues, parents/ carers and community	Graduate	Proficient ●	Highly Accomplished	Lead

Figure 6. Tina's self-evaluation against the APSTs.

4.5 Introducing Cassie

If this is your job and you get paid to do it then you really need to want to be there and to actually provide something for those children that can be something that they remember; because I remember the teacher that made an impact on my life as a child. I want to be that person that makes an impact on the life of every one of the 25 children in my room! I [teach] because it come0073 naturally to me! (Interview 1)

4.5.1 The Image of a Good Teacher

Cassie is adamant about what makes a good teacher. Her image of teaching is as more than just a job. Kessler (2007) suggested that the term 'teacher' conjures up many images and stereotypes of what a teacher is and what a teacher does (p. 124). For Cassie, it is about being a role model, being responsible and being a great learner:

I always reflect back to when I was in primary school I had really excellent role models as teachers. I see a lot of their attributes in me now. Just the way that they taught me how to be a great student and how to be responsible and how to be a great learner and get the most out of my education. I can see myself doing those things now with the kids that I teach. (Interview 1)

There is no one list of competencies, attributes or qualities to provide a simple answer to the question of what makes a good teacher (Korthagen, 2004). The attributes that Cassie refers to are based on her own experiences and beliefs and the role models that she had as a student. Lortie (1975) attributed this knowledge to the apprenticeship of observation. However, Palmer (1997) suggested that 'the imprint of a good teacher remains long after the facts they gave us fade' (p. 21). These models are her ideal image of a teacher that she sees as aligning to her current view of her self.

The attributes Cassie associates with a good teacher align to her image of her teacher self. Dolloff (1999) attested to the idea that we all have clear images of what a teacher should look like (p. 191). For Cassie, this includes wanting to be there for her students, having an impact and being confident and organised:

I was very organised. I was always somebody who knew what I had to do and was always willing to knuckle down and get it done. I would organise resources and I was always someone who knew the time that I had in the day and how to

manage my time well and to work with children and get through what I needed
to achieve in a day. I mean, I still am that type of person now, like a very
organised person. I think as a teacher it is something which is a good attribute
to have because you do have to do a lot of organisation to make sure you can get
through everything that you need to get through. (Interview 1)

Cassie constructs this image as a direct result of her experiences and knowledge of teaching. Dolloff (1999) confirmed that 'many of these images are created through direct experience with teachers' (p. 191). The key for Cassie is being organised, which Mullock (2003) found to be a key feature of a good teacher.

Cassie also views confidence as essential to being a good teacher. She sees that being confident positively affects her professional practice:

I really looked at them [mentor teachers] as somebody that I was trying to
impress and if they came across and said that I was doing something wrong or
something that maybe they didn't like I did lose that confidence and then had to
reflect upon that. And there was sometimes where I did let it get to me a little bit
and other times I had to go 'No I feel confident in what I am doing and I am just
going to roll with it'. I had a male mentor once and I think that he really shook
my confidence.

I also think that it had something to do with him…and the way that he perceived
me. I didn't feel that I was doing anything wrong but at the same time I think it
was more that I was doing things different to what he wanted me to do.

I was confident to right at the end where I actually felt that I was more part of
the school and actually part of the staff. (Interview 1)

However, her confidence does not only come from her own planning, but also from how other teachers see her. For example, she believes she is accepted by others as a good teacher and she has a need for affirmation from others rather than relying on her own comparison between hers and others' ability. Bandura (1993) outlined that 'highlighting deficiencies undermines self-regulative influences with resulting deterioration of performance' (p. 125). For Cassie, the feedback she received from one mentor teacher affected her ability to self-regulate, affecting her confidence. In this case, there was a disconnection between what she did and what she believed he wanted her to do. It is also important for Cassie to feel that she is part of the school community:

He [the principal] speaks highly of me on a personal level, and I know that when he has things that he needs someone to action, that he has the confidence in me that I have the capacity to do those things. (Interview 4)

The need to belong emphasises the very personal nature of teaching. Hong (2010) related confidence to the self-efficacy of teachers. Bandura (1977) suggested that teachers who lack confidence may have a hard time developing into good teachers. This is evident in Cassie's conversations; she struggled with confidence and found ways to build her own level of efficacy. She also worked hard. Hong (2010) suggested that the dropout rate from teaching stems from a lack of efficacy and commitment to professional practice:

I was going to make this work and it was what I wanted to do. You know you cannot go in lazy you have to really knuckle in because that is the life of a teacher, it is not a nine to three job. Even when you get home you are still thinking about it. So your job doesn't kind of stop. (Interview 1)

Cassie highlights the commitment needed to be a good teacher. She acknowledges that even though it is a job that you are paid to do, you really need to want to be there. Cassie commits herself to the profession. Dannetta (2002) suggested that commitment reflects the teacher's view that their work is meaningful. This is evident in the excerpt above, which shows that Cassie is committing to providing for her students in ways that are memorable. Kelchtermans (2009) saw teachers as taking a stance, and for Cassie this is to positively influence the children in her classroom:

I put myself forward as a teacher that's there for the kids' needs. You know, you are teaching and making sure that you're aware of all of their abilities and disabilities, and that you are putting forward the curriculum that caters for everybody. (Interview 4)

For Cassie, a good teacher puts students first. It is what drives her professional practice. Harden and Crosby (2000) suggested that how good teaching is viewed depends on the person's conception of teaching. Cassie holds the concept of student-centred teaching, and focuses on the role of the teacher as facilitator and role model:

I think it becomes a lot easier to then get into the nitty gritty of the learning and focusing on things when you have that great rapport of making sure your kids do

feel comfortable and safe with you as that role model up in front of them.
(Interview 1)

According to Kelchtermans (2009), teaching requires vulnerability. This is evident throughout Cassie's conversations when she discusses putting students first, and the requirement of developing a rapport with them and understanding their needs. Cassie suggests that this is because of the teachers that she had:

I clung to those teachers through high school that really I found were the people I wanted to aspire to be. I developed a really good rapport with those teachers and I think that in a way I see a lot of their attributes in me now. Just the way that they taught me how to be a great student and how to be responsible and how to be a greater learner and get the most out of my education. I can see myself doing those things with the kids that I teach. (Interview 1)

Bullough (1997) confirmed that teachers tend to rely on common sense, personal experience and implicit theory to explain their professional practice. For Cassie, she responds to the needs of the students she works with because of how her teachers focused on her when she was a student:

I hope that like some of the teachers that I really gelled with when I was young, I hope that the kids later in life look back at me and think I made a difference in their life. I want to inspire them to want to achieve some of those more long-term goals that we talk about when they were in the grade with me. (Interview 4)

Cassie's view of teaching and her own professional practice revolve around the need to make a difference in the lives of her students. Hattie (2003) suggested that 'what teachers know, do and care about is very powerful in the learning equation' (p. 2). Further to this, Bullough and Hall-Kenyon (2012, p. 7) highlighted that the motivations behind teachers' actions can shape the nature and quality of those actions. Cassie's motivation to teach is centred on the children in her classroom, and the inspiration that she wants to be for them. Cassie is motivated by the belief that she is meant to teach and make a difference in the lives of her students:

It took me a long time…even though you know that was what I wanted to do, that I knew I wanted to be a teacher. (Interview 1)

The need to make a difference is an inherent part of Cassie. As highlighted in the opening excerpt, teaching comes naturally to her. She makes no distinction between

her self and teaching practice. For her, teaching is a calling, and teacher and teaching become blurred:

> *It is not a nine to three job and even when you get home you are still thinking about, that's right I have got to get the flour out of the cupboard and the measuring cup because I need to do a science experiment tomorrow and it is all still going through your head as you are trying to go to sleep at night. So your job doesn't kind of stop. (Interview 1)*

Palmer (1997) argued that teaching is more than just getting up in front of the classroom. For Cassie, teaching is something that she takes with her everywhere. This ideal is contentious in the current climate of performativity. Kung (2013) contended that educational practices are increasingly being defined in technocratic-reductionist language that goes against a humanistic view of teachers. For Cassie, teaching is a human endeavour in which she cares about and connects with her students. There is a misalignment between her beliefs around teaching and those of the education system. As Kung (2013) explained:

> Over regulation of education has translated into an increasing sense of misalignment between teachers' personal beliefs about teaching and the education system's pursuit of social and economic goals that are less humanistic friendly. (p. 20)

Cassie acknowledges that she has had to make changes to align with government expectations:

> *You also look back at the things that have changed in education over the years, your knowledge has had to broaden, because there have been so many reforms with the, you know, what the government thinks is the next great thing that we need to introduce. (Interview 1)*

However, she does not situate this as a negative, but as a part of the changing nature of teaching and a means of improving her professional practice:

> *You need to continue to grow as a teacher professionally with your professional knowledge as well. You know you need to keep learning. It is important that you keep up to date with all the new stuff that is coming out and all the new processes that are put in place and the different things that the government are introducing for us to look at as teachers. I mean if you are not doing that then*

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you are not progressing, you are just stuck in that rut and you need to move
from there. (Interview 1)

You need to be making that growth because there is no point in just staying
stationary. (Interview 1)

For Cassie, there is an acknowledgement that the world of teaching is bigger than her classroom and there is a need to extend knowledge to encompass all ideas. She makes a connection between expectations and the politics of teaching, which situates her within another educational discourse.

Teacher professionalism is the new paradigm. For Cassie, this comes with expectations and a need for accountability:

I think because we are so accountable too, we need that data to support things
when parents come and say 'Why? Why has my kid got this, why has this
happened?' and you need to have that to back yourself up. (Interview 3)

I would say in the last five years it's just been a big push, ever since OneSchool
came on board. Yes, the OneSchool revolution, you know, being so accountable
for everything and making sure that you are providing that level of education
directed at that kid's needs so that they can achieve. (Interview 3)

Cassie recognises that accountability increased when reporting moved outside the school environment. Biesta (2004) noted that accountability has become an integral part of education (p. 233). For Cassie, the responsibility of accountability has led to personal growth. Biesta (2004) suggested that 'any solution to the problem of the current accountability regime has to be strictly personal and individual' (p. 234). Cassie does not view the regime of accountability as meaning she is answerable to governments or systems, but rather to parents and the students themselves. As seen in Figure 7, Cassie sees the current era of accountability as contributing to her view of herself as highly accomplished and lead in relation to understanding students and implementing teaching strategies to suit.

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Standard 1 Know students and how they learn	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead
Standard 2 Know content and how to teach it	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead
Standard 3 Plan and implement effective teaching/ learning	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead
Standard 4 Create/maintain supportive and safe learning environment	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead
Standard 5 Assess, provide feedback & report on students' learning	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead
Standard 6 Engage in professional learning	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead
Standard 7 Engage with colleagues, parents/ carers and community	Graduate	Proficient ●	Highly Accomplished ●	Lead

Figure 7. Cassie's self-evaluation against the APSTs.

Being accountable to students is a natural extension of Cassie's care of and for her students:

> *There are other ways the kids love hands on more than having to be so structured with the C2C sometimes. (Interview 1)*

> *It's a little bit like the C2C now. I take what I want and leave the rest. I look at it and grab a lesson and I just look at it and go, you seriously don't want me to do that again? I tried it last year and it didn't really work anyway. (Interview 1)*

When Cassie's gaze is on the child, not on expectations, she exercises her power to free herself from any constraints that the system places on her practice. Butler (2005) suggested that this is engaging in 'an aesthetics of self that maintains a critical relation to existing norms' (p. 17). It is Cassie's care for her students and for her self that produces her professional practice.

4.5.2 The Image of Care

A thread that flowed throughout Cassie's conversations was the care that she has for her students:

These children miss so much in their life, like they often don't have those figures in their life that are there for, you know, to just show them affection and to show them that you care. (Interview 1)

Cassie sees teaching as more than being about academics. It is about being a nurturer, it is about relationships. Noddings (1995) believed that teachers will not achieve unless children believe they are cared for and learn to care for others (p. 1). This caring and the teaching of care is a key underpinning to Cassie's professional practice:

Yvonne: So just looking at some of the things you've written, obviously one of the big things you've got is care. How does care play out for you? Do you see yourself as like a mothering role?

Cassie: Yes, you do because it's like I said before, so many kids these days come to school and don't have all of those attributes that you would expect a kid to bring; they haven't learned respect and they haven't learned tolerance and they haven't learned perseverance and they haven't learned all of those things to share and to know what it means to care for somebody else. And so you have to incorporate those things into your teaching. (Interview 2)

Noddings (1995, p. 2) suggested that when we care we want to do our best for the object of our care. This explains the level of commitment to hard work that Cassie has and the connection this has to her need to make a difference in the lives of her students. Owens and Ennis (2005) contended that commitment is an essential characteristic for establishing an ethic of care.

Cassie labels her image of care as 'mothering'. Owens and Ennis (2005) labelled Noddings' ethic of care as the 'motherly' voice of context (p. 393). For Cassie, this became something that she found easier to do once she herself had children. Her experiences over time have supported what she does in the classroom in the current day:

I think having that experience in that setting on that prac gave me a lot of knowledge to be able to work with those kids and the differing levels and the differing abilities that they had that was one big impact that I think I really had to take on board. (Interview 1)

Cassie makes visible her own experiences to show to herself and the researcher the knowledge that she has of her own teaching practice over time. However, this blurs the representation of her different selves, for the past is still in the present. Hamman et al.

(2010) contended that experience goes beyond the inner world to influence changing behaviours and goals. However, in Cassie's conversation, her past and present self are entangled, rather than being separate 'possible selves' (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

The view that there are multiple images of self and practice is highlighted throughout the interviews with Cassie:

> *They (mentor teachers) did quote a lot on prac reports and things that I was a very shy person, and that you know, I needed to come across as a bit more outgoing towards the kids and let them see a different side of me. (Interview 1)*

In the above excerpt, Cassie suggests there was more than one way of seeing herself and that who she was in the classroom did not always reflect who she was outside the classroom. Given that Cassie makes no mention of being shy with the teachers, this suggests they saw her as different outside compared to inside the classroom:

> *In front of my family and friends I am not a shy person, but I just think that when they were complete strangers and I didn't know them that I backed away a little bit than I normally would. I was different in the classroom I would say. (Interview 1)*

Cassie acknowledges the differences in her images of self inside and outside the classroom. Superficially, this discrepancy may illuminate the multifaceted nature of self as highlighted by Goffman (1959), or the situated self as developed by Ball (1972). Context plays an important part in Cassie's view of self. She acknowledges that in the classroom she has to be different to how she is in other contexts. Inherent in this is an 'ought' teacher self (Higgins, 1987), which Cassie has been told she needs to be by her mentor teachers since her early years of teaching.

Conversations with Cassie highlighted a teacher who is confident in her own professional practice, but reflective in understanding the influence that others have on her teaching. This started with the consideration of what makes a good teacher, and the influence her own teachers through school had on this image. This image became a measure of her success in professional practice. However, what cannot be ignored is the part confidence and commitment play in her developing image of self and professional practice.

Cassie's confidence and commitment highlights the very personal nature of teaching. Cassie believes she was meant to teach and she has worked hard to achieve

this. Confidence gained through others' responses to her professional practice built her image of her self as a good teacher. Teaching as an aesthetic practice is integral to her view of self and practice. For Cassie, how she engages with her students is central to how she teaches. Underpinning all our conversations was her need to make a difference.

This chapter outlines that the images of care, resilience, professionalism and experience are just some of the images of self in teaching providing insight into what images of self and teaching practice that teachers in this study hold. What was found, was that the experiences of each teacher have contributed to their images of self and practice and highlighted the challenges teachers now face. For when each teacher considered the APSTs and other accountability measures, experience faded as a decider of images held for the less-experienced teachers (Kathy and Jessie). Conversely, for Harriot and Tina, the two more experienced teachers, the APSTs confirmed their images of self. However, for both these teachers, there was a discounting of experience, with the standards determining the important elements of teaching and ignoring the idea of care that was so important to them both. Kathy and Jessie shared the view that they did not measure up. For Jessie, this was because she did not want to be seen as rating herself above more experienced teachers and risk being seen as an imposter. In contrast, Kathy identified contradictions between how she sees herself as a teacher and her actual capacity. For Kathy in particular, the APSTS became another representation to aspire to, and thus another source of tension. For all the teachers, the APSTs produced additional images of their teacher self. This is a significant aspect explored in the next chapter, which considers how the teachers navigate the era of quality and standardisation and the implications that this has for their images of self, their teaching and how they engage with students and the education system.

Chapter 5: Navigating the Images of the Teacher Self

Chapter 4 presented the different images of the teacher self that each teacher produced through the interviews. These images provided insight into each teacher's view of themselves in teaching, as well as revealing that each teacher held an ideal image of their teacher self. These ideal images often spoke to very specific ideas of what it meant to be a teacher, without reference to the APSTs. For example, Kathy has a very narrow view of teaching: she has constructed a list of attributes and skills that she considers necessary to be a good teacher, derived from the supervising teachers that she liked during her pre-service years. Kathy wears the mask of the ideal teacher to hide her lack of competence. Conversely, Cassie's ideal image relates to the care she has for her students and her focus on being a role model, and aligns to the image she holds of her teacher self. This highlights the very personal nature of teaching and teachers' need for efficacy in their teaching practice.

The identification of the personal nature of teaching is not new (Palmer, 2007). However, the implications this has in the era of quality and standardisation is a key consideration of this thesis. While Chapter 4 described how each teacher views their own knowledge, practice and engagement in teaching, there is a need to also understand how they navigate the challenges of the era of quality and standardisation and the quality teacher agenda. The participant teachers' self-evaluation against the APSTs provided an avenue to investigate this issue. Chapter 5 analyses each teacher's images of self while navigating the APSTs, which provides further insight into how they view themselves as teachers.

The APSTs are the standard of teacher quality endorsed by government bodies such as MCEEDYA and AITSL, and inform progression within Queensland's state education sector (QCT, 2018a). According to Santoro et al. (2012), 'standards are seen increasingly by policy makers and schooling systems as the most important way to ensure the "production" of quality teachers' (p. 1). This is evident in the outlined purpose of the APSTs as 'a public statement of what constitutes teacher quality' (AITSL, 2011). At the time the interviews were held, the implementation of the APSTs was in its infancy, and the implications of their introduction was only just beginning to be realised. The potential impact of the APSTs on a teacher's sense of self necessitated that they be a significant component of the third interview.

The APSTs are described in this study as a continuum of quality. They outline the expectations of teachers from the graduate level, through to proficient, highly accomplished and finally lead level, on seven standards across three domains of teaching quality: professional knowledge, professional practice and professional engagement. According to AITSL (2014) professional knowledge is the body of knowledge that teachers draw on to understand the needs of their students; professional practice is the repertoire of teaching practices used to maintain an equitable classroom environment and improve students' learning; and professional engagement is teachers' professional development and interaction with parents and carers, the school community and students.

The idea of a continuum in relation to teaching quality is not new. A report conducted by Conway, Murphy, Rath and Hall (2009) suggested that teachers' competency is something that develops over time and the focus of 'initial teacher education is on providing teachers with a set of high-level beginning competencies rather than preparing a fully-formed teacher' (p. xiv). In Australia, higher education institutions are required to prepare teachers to the first level of the APSTs. In Queensland, teachers are required to provide evidence of attainment for each descriptor relating to the next relevant level on the continuum (QCT, 2018b). According to the QCT (2018b), teachers are required to present a range of annotated documents to demonstrate each standard. These documents can include curriculum planning and assessment documentation, student work samples and records of reflective practice.

In this study, each teacher's perception of their positioning against the standards was captured within the APST framework (see Figure 8), with self-evaluation being either written or verbal. Each teacher is represented by a different colour, as indicated by the key under the figure. While Figure 8 provides a snapshot against each standard, the evaluation drilled down to the descriptors within. These were consolidated according to the three domains of professional knowledge, professional practice and professional engagement, to understand the effect on the teachers' own images of their teacher self. The focus was not on the elements but on how teachers negotiated this image of quality contained within the APSTs in relation to the images of self and practice that they had constructed.

Figure 8. Positioning against the continuum of quality.

This chapter is organised around the three domains of the APSTs and provides insight into how teachers navigate the era of quality and standardisation, especially when the APSTs are designed as the 'basis for a professional accountability model' (AITSL, 2014). Key to this is a discussion of what the images held by the teachers reveal about which aspects of professional knowledge, practice and engagement they see as important.

5.1 Professional Knowledge

According to the APSTs, professional knowledge is what teachers draw on to respond to the needs of their students (AITSL, 2011). The specific elements in this domain are 'know students and how they learn' and 'know the content and how to teach it'. In addition to the acknowledgement in the preface to the APSTs that teachers should know more about students than the subject content, there is a particular emphasis in the standards on understanding students' physical, social and intellectual development and how they affect learning and teaching strategies.

The APSTs provide insight into the knowledge teachers require. However, if learning goals are established in line with them, there is the potential to limit the knowledge that teachers attain. This is potentially problematic given that teachers attest

to the need to continually extend their professional knowledge to meet external expectations. For Cassie in particular, her image of resilience is based on her continued capacity to extend her knowledge. She acknowledges that '*education was bigger than her classroom*' (Cassie, Interview 3), which had implications for the knowledge she requires. Cassie indicates that she needs to extend her knowledge to meet external expectations within the performative agenda:

> *I think because we are so accountable too, we need that data to support things when parents come and say 'Why? Why has my kid got this, why has this happened?' and you need to have that to back yourself up.*
>
> *The 'OneSchool' revolution, you know, being so accountable for everything and making sure that you are providing that level of education directed at that kid's needs so that they can achieve.*
>
> *It's definitely made me think about ways that I can move myself along the scale with my knowledge and understanding and practice and things like that. (Cassie, Interview 3)*

For Tina, her knowledge allows her to push back against the current standardisation of practice. This highlights a contradiction in what knowledge is viewed by the teachers as valuable. Kathy is more pragmatic and correlates what she does to what she must do to keep and do her job to the best of her ability:

> *I'm not going to say that I would compromise my principles. You have to do, what you have to do. There are so many demands on your time, and so many other things, that go on.*
>
> *I'm fundamentally opposed to standardised testing, but I'm not going to refuse to do the NAPLAN. I'm not, not going to teach in the education system because I don't believe in NAPLAN. I got to do what I got to do. And if that involves prepping kids for a term in NAPLAN, because that is what we are doing, well that is what we are doing. I can't change that. (Kathy, Interview 2)*

What was evident in the teachers' stories was that their knowledge, in the form of professional judgements, does not appear to be valued. This idea of valuing teachers' knowledge has been has been central to the numerous reviews on teacher education. The perceived lack of knowledge of teachers in conjunction with economic requirements has led to decreased trust in teachers and, subsequently, layers of managerial accountability.

The move to standardisation (Mundy et al., 2016; Nerland & Kersath, 2015) and the convergence of teacher performance and student outcomes (Thompson & Cook, 2014a) has contributed to the diminished value of teachers' knowledge and a shift to universalising knowledge. This is evident in the teachers' discussions of the implementation of the C2C, which decreases teachers' agency. For Kathy in particular, her knowledge and competence were affected by only using what was provided:

> *Yvonne: If there was no explicit teaching, if we took away that training, and we take away the model that you would have been given…*

> *Kathy: (Interrupts) It wouldn't be me (Interview 3).*

Harriot identifies the C2C as creating tensions, as she sees it as a mechanism of control and evidence that teachers are not trusted. The idea of trust and mistrust is outlined by Harriot multiple times throughout her interviews. Harriot suggests that '*trust is a huge thing because you see we do not trust you, so therefore you will do all of the extended tests*' (Harriot, Interview 1). This is evident in the increased expectations around high achieving and lead teachers (QCT, 2018b), and the introduction of the Literacy and Numeracy Test for Initial Teacher Education Students (Australian Council for Educational Research, 2017) and Graduate Teacher Performance Assessment (AITSL, 2018). These externally driven imperatives evaluate teachers' knowledge at all stages of their teaching.

External imperatives are an important component of the neoliberal agenda. They seek the measurement of knowledge, which may not be measurable. Cassie describes the current era of quality and standardisation as the '*OneSchool revolution*' (Cassie, Interview 3) in which she feels '*accountable for everything'* (Cassie, Interview 3). Harriot labels this the *'era of desperation'* (Harriot, Interview 3). Evident in this is recognition that there is organisational control over teachers' knowledge, as evidenced by the C2C and the way it has been implemented in schools. However, mechanisms of performativity (Ozga, 2013) have also cast doubt on teacher knowledge and ability. This is evident in the representation of teachers in the media, which Baroutsis and Lingard (2017) suggested is 'likely to influence public perceptions of education systems and the teaching profession' (p. 3). Mockler's (2012) analysis of media text regarding the MySchool site found three distinct narratives: distrust, choice and performance.

The political agenda around the performance of teachers is part of an effort by the federal government to control all aspects of the education system. This control is

seen in the dissection of the elements of education and the prioritising of teachers as the key factor that needs to be managed. There is fear within the government that Australia is not meeting global standards (Ozga, 2013). Research undertaken by Hattie (2003) and Rowe (2003) has positioned the quality of teachers within this agenda as a priority. This has led to the continuance of what teachers see as a demonstrated mistrust of teachers' knowledge, which in turn has resulted in increased managerial accountability to produce measurable outcomes and performances (Ball, 2003). This is evident in Cassies perception of the changes required that affect her teaching:

> *I have been working hard. I come here at 8 and I normally go home around 5, but I want it to be useful. I do not want it sucking up my time. I would put numbers on a piece of paper that no one will ever use. Once a long time ago, we had to add up the roll and that just sucked up people's time, and they were never looked at, and we are doing this today because I think that it is fear and I do not think we are trusted. (Cassie, Interview 1)*

Accountability measures are now embedded as systemic requirements to ensure the quality of education in Australia (MCEETYA, 2008). However, from the teachers' interviews, it could be argued that system requirements, such as the external imperatives already highlighted, are mechanisms to determine whose knowledge and what knowledge should direct teaching practice. This was evident in the discussion on collecting and using data to inform teaching practice. Harriet suggests that '*the systemic requirements are time wasters*' (Harriot, Interview 1) that serve no real purpose.

The teachers themselves do not value imposed requirements such as standardised testing, as they see no real purpose or benefit to students' learning:

> *There are so many demands on your time, and so many other things that go on, and I mean, I'm fundamentally opposed to standardised testing, but I'm not going to refuse to do the NAPLAN…It comes down to what you value I guess. (Kathy, Interview 2)*

> *When I was first teaching we had inspectors…you were never brow beaten about NAPLAN, or what you weren't doing and I think if you were having trouble with something you went to somebody and they provided you with the solution, but now people are having problems but there is no solution. (Harriot, Interview 1)*

Foucault (1977) argued that systemic requirements eventually become mechanisms that serve as disciplinary devices. Harriot, who claims that '*it is now political and everything you read in the paper is negative*', recognises this (Harriot, Interview 1). She decries the resultant diminished freedom, recalling her experiences teaching in the United Kingdom:

> *When I taught in England, and that was about 10 years ago, the teachers there would say to me you are so lucky you can teach in a creative way. They were getting very stifled in what they could do. They had some tests, I can't remember now what they were called, but the school was out of whack for this time. (Harriot, Interview 1)*

For teachers, the impact of educational policies potentially creates a divide between the knowledge they hold and the knowledge they are able to apply. This tension is evident in the teachers' recounts of the limitations they feel are placed on what they can do in the classroom. Harriet and Tina, the longest-serving teachers, were the most affected, as conveyed by their stories of having worked under different layers of accountability, which they viewed as supporting rather than limiting their knowledge, judgement and, ultimately, practice:

> *I used to do things that you would not think of doing now. (Tina, Interview 1)*

> *It is not humanly possible to perform how you want to perform. (Harriot, Interview 2)*

> *I am behind in the C2C lesson, and to me you put the child before the curriculum in a manner that... this might say that this here has to be done like that, but that is not the way it is going to work for this child. (Harriot, Interview 2)*

This managerial accountability manifests itself in the form of quantifiable data rather than professional knowledge and judgement. This is especially significant for Harriot, who sees her own judgement regarding her pedagogical choices as restrained by the standardised response to the curriculum that is the C2C. Her view of the C2C is that it limits creativity and professional judgement. Tina also questions who is in '*control of decision-making in her classroom*' (Tina, Interview 3) when do many decisions including pedagogical choices are being made for her and other teachers. Kostogriz (2012) suggested that the political situation in which teachers find themselves

raises tensions around improving results, with implications for teaching practice and autonomy.

In the current era of quality and standardisation, autonomy is at risk of becoming subsumed within a pedagogical accountability structure in which products and productivity are prioritised above engagement and creativity. Harriot felt strongly about the effect this era has on her practice in contrast to her early years of teaching. During the interview, she switched between different points in time:

> Yvonne: Do you think teaching when you were a beginning teacher was simpler?
>
> Harriot: Oh much, I think it was more simple and I think we had a clear direction about what we had to do because the curriculum wasn't so crammed and it seems to have got this identity of its own where we are racing along and look out or you will get left behind. (Harriot, Interview 4)

This re-prioritisation towards productivity is also evident in a tendency to focus on students as subjects of data rather than as individuals with unique learning needs, requiring different pedagogical approaches. The bureaucratisation of teachers' work (Comber & Nixon, 2009) limits their capacity to respond to students' needs. This was evident with Cassie, who in highlighting the benefits of data to students' learning, also discusses students as an object in the educative process:

> So, that's been a big difference and where I've seen a change in myself professionally, just in the pedagogy in which I'm putting forward with kids. My class this year are very low, and it's no longer extension it's all about using the data that I do have or I gather on them and using that to just come up with teaching strategies and things that are going to just give these kids little glimpses of achieving. (Cassie, Interview 4)

According to Kostogriz (2012), this approach 'challenges the relational ethics of care in education' (p. 406). There is the potential for Cassie to limit her knowledge and what she does in relation to the prescribed standardised data and what the school or system requires, rather than based on the individual needs of the students in her classroom. For Kathy, the limiting of knowledge to what is required is part of her approach. She acknowledges that while she does not agree with standardised testing, she does what she needs to do, because 'that is what I am paid to do' (Kathy, Interview

4). This raises questions about whether teachers are teaching in relation to students' needs or teaching to the test:

> *You know, we're expected to get through this content and sometimes I think you're not doing it to the best of your ability because you're trying to move on and stay up to pace with where you need to be. Because at the end you have assessment and yeah you can differentiate that assessment to an extent, but it needs to still match the outcomes that you need to achieve. (Cassie, Interview 4)*

Teaching to the test is of real concern, particularly in relation to the professional knowledge of teachers. According to Popham (2001), there is enormous pressure on teachers to prepare students for standardised tests. This pressure comes from the use of standardised tests as a mechanism for measuring school and teacher performance (Volante, 2004). This has the potential to drive the manner in which teachers teach, which can affect their creativity (Longo, 2010). There needs to be a balance between preparing students for the test and maintaining engaging instruction that encapsulates teachers' knowledge and skills (Lazear, 2006). Teachers are faced with the challenge of navigating what they are accountable for and determining how best to manage the limited time that they have. Teachers are re-prioritising and compartmentalising what it is they do in relation to systemic requirements:

> *There's so much reporting and recording so that we're accountable for the decisions that we make, and we're accountable for the reasons why we're grading children the way we are with moderating and it is really tiring when you think about everything that we do now that we didn't do 10 years ago. (Cassie, Interview 4)*

What has been highlighted is the view that standardised data and accountability are more highly valued than teachers' professional knowledge. According to the Department of Education and Training (2015), the availability of data through OneSchool 'as a single point of truth' has led to greater accountability applied to teachers. This was evident in interviews with Cassie, Harriot and Kathy:

> *What's right by the kids is not what their top-down agenda is. It is not a Liberal government's corporate idea of a bottom line and money, that's not what's best for these children. Pounding them with practice NAPLAN tests does not teach them anything. Also, having so many subjects in a curriculum that you can't*

teach any of them right is not what's good for these children. (Kathy, Interview 4)

According to Clutterbuck (2016), OneSchool is both a policy artefact and an instrument to ensure compliance with mandatory processes, which produces a particular kind of truth (Clutterbuck, 2017). It is this point that is most contentious for teachers: whose truth is this, and how is it used to regulate teachers and teaching. OneSchool and NAPLAN as reporting mechanisms, in addition to standardised curriculum and pedagogy, are institutionalised disciplinary measures (Jeffrey, 2002). This repositions teaching as a set of routines rather than an application of teacher knowledge and judgement. There are inevitably implications for teachers' professional knowledge, judgement and autonomy in knowing how best to support the learning needs of individual students. This is what Ball (2000) described as the dehumanising effect of the performative discourse.

This dehumanisation of teaching is concerning given that teachers' knowledge is framed by their personal philosophies and experiences. The embedding of personal concepts such as belonging, professionalism and the interconnected personal and professional images of self in teaching are evident in the interviews. For Harriot, this revolves around belonging; for Jessie, it is her experiences from her early years of teaching through to the present day. For Tina, it is '*to do no harm'* (Tina, Interview 1), which leads her to prioritise the relational over the academic in students' learning. This leads to tensions when systemic expectations require the reverse. This creates, in Ball's (2003) words, a 'struggle over the teacher's soul' (p. 217).

This again highlights the very personal nature of teaching. This is evident when teachers highlight images of their teacher self as an artisan and artist. Jessie and Cassie see themselves as entwined into their teaching. Jessie stated that '*she teaches who she is'* (Jessie, Interview 1). She speaks of teaching as a calling. In Jessie's metaphor of teaching as an artwork, she believes that she would be incomplete without teaching. This is also evident for Harriot, who sees her care for her students as an essential part of who she is, and for Cassie, who holds the view that '*teaching is more than a nine to five job'* (Cassie, Interview 2). According to Kung (2013), there is an echo of a voice from the past when teachers describe their work as a calling. According to Aspland (2006), teaching was called a vocation or calling until the 1980s. Teacher training was designed to develop the personal capacities and qualities of teachers. This is significant as the idea of teaching as a calling brings with it sentiments of hope and commitment as an

integral part of who the teacher is (Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012). This runs counter to the notion of 'outputs', which are central to the performative agenda currently pervading conversations regarding education. This is evident in Tina's summation about teaching practice:

> *Because it is the sort of job that's so hard to walk away from. Sometimes, there can be a lot of emotion in teaching, too. Sometimes, you can put a lot of effort in for very little gain. (Tina, Interview 2)*

The disconnect between the performative agenda driving government policy and teachers' own images of self in teaching is highly problematic given that a teacher's commitment and motivation to teach is key to the development of their personal knowledge and level of innovation in teaching practice. Dannetta (2002) suggested that this commitment reflects the teacher's view that their work is meaningful. There is also an alignment with teaching being '*more than just a job*' (Cassie, Interview 1). Kung (2013) outlined the personal motivation of teachers to teach and highlighted that teachers' view of education as a human experience was at odds with the current narrow and technical view of education. Tina suggests that *'some people ... use the curriculum as an excuse and some people through experience will develop confidence and I think one size doesn't fit all'* (Tina, Interview 1). While it could be argued that knowledge is valued in the APSTs, the nuances of teaching as a human experience are compartmentalised into measurable components. The majority of the teachers mention their need to continue teaching as a human and caring encounter, informed by their knowledge developed through time and experience:

> *I feel that I am there for the kids 24/7 you know. If they need me I will drop what I am doing in order to help them. (Jessie, Interview 2)*

What is evident in the teachers' images of their teacher self is that knowledge is accumulated through their experiences in education and the past, present and even the future images of teaching they hold. However, experience is neither recognised nor valued in the current era of quality and standardisation (Ball, 2012). During the interviews, Harriot raised the issue of inexperienced teachers leading pedagogical change in the school:

> *Yvonne: So standard six, 'Engage in professional learning'. I think what's really interesting I think with this one is that we've spoken a lot over the last two interviews about your love of learning and the fact that you're always looking*

for stuff. But what seems to be how they consider learning is this whole idea of engaging with each other in professional learning, and I don't get the sense that maybe you've had the opportunities for that here?

Harriot: Well, I did once. I did once upon a time. But now, with the climate in the school, it's not there. Because you're never invited to do it, because when— and I spoke about this before—when the really young people were told that they are the leaders, the innuendo in that is devastating. We've had about three people leave who were older teachers, and it's damaging. (Harriot, Interview 3)

There is an element of resentment in the above excerpt, which is unsurprising given Harriot's longevity in teaching and the experience and expertise she has that has gone unrecognised. Harriot is disappointed that her experience is not valued:

With the climate in the school, it's not there. Because you're never invited to do it, because when—and I spoke about this before—when the really young people were told that they are the leaders, the innuendo in that is devastating. (Harriot, Interview 3).

Harriot blames the climate of the school and the introduction of standardised pedagogy for how she now views teaching. This challenges her image of her teacher self. However, while Harriot feels constrained, Jessie restrains herself based on her limited experience in the classroom:

I think that's just probably me going 'I've only been out three years, how can I be a leader?' So maybe I am and I am just rating myself lower. (Jessie, Interview 3)

Both Harriot and Jessie consider years of teaching and experience as essential to being seen as a lead teacher in relation to the APSTs. However, according to Ball (2012), in the 'regimes of performativity experience is nothing, productivity is everything' (p. 19). Therefore, there is less consideration of teachers' knowledge and experience in the current era. Teachers are not required to think, they should just do. There is an emphasis on teaching practice over knowledge, which results in a renegotiation of teachers' agency.

The changing emphasis in education to the measurement of teaching practice over knowledge and professional judgement is problematic. Bourke et al. (2015) suggested that the standardisation of work practices and accountability replaces

professional judgement in the current era of quality and standardisation. This was particular evident in Kathy's and Harriot's stories. Kathy is one of the inexperienced teachers that Harriot refers to, and until provided with a standardised pedagogical approach, demonstrated a haphazardness in her practice:

> *I just didn't have it all there. I would, like, forget, not forget, but like there was so much going on that I just didn't know that I had to do it until the last minute. (Kathy, Interview 1)*

Yet due to her willingness to engage with the new standardised approach, she was made a pedagogical leader.

> *Kathy: I am a leader in the school for pedagogy*
>
> *Yvonne: Is this because you have trained in the whole-school pedagogical approach?*
>
> *Kathy: I have and because I was so keen… I'm a third-year teacher, I don't do a lot of helping other people there. They are all helping me. Except for in the explicit teaching pedagogy stuff. (Kathy, Interview 3)*

In this situation, Kathy's leadership role represents a shift away from expert professional judgement to focus on teachers who are 'receipt-following operatives' (Winch & Foreman-Peck, 2005, p. 403). Professional knowledge is replaced by standardised work practices that do not require autonomy or professional judgement. Kathy deferred to standardised practices rather than develop her own pedagogical knowledge and practice. Ryan and Bourke (2013) suggested that this is part of the strategy to 'redefine teachers as technicians whose role it is to implement decisions made by managers' (p. 4). Unlike Kathy, Harriot, Jessie, Kathy and Tina do not just submit to what the system requires. This can be attributed to their advanced professional knowledge:

> *Curriculum-wise, like you know you get the C2C and what you've got to teach and things like that, but if kids are struggling on one point and the document's telling you you've got to move on tomorrow, what I mean by that is I feel that it's right to stop … If I was a graduate teacher, I would probably knuckle down and just do as the document says, but now with the experience I would just speak up for myself and for the kids. (Jessie, Interview 4)*

Sometimes teachers will say to me 'I haven't got enough time to do all of this', and I say 'You do your reading, you do your writing, and you do your Maths every day and try to fit everything else around it'. And they go 'But we're supposed to do this many hours of technology', and I go 'And who's going to know that you haven't?' (Tina, Interview 4)

Throughout each teacher's story, it became evident that in their own ways they each resist or subvert the systemic expectations that seek to eliminate the need for teachers' professional knowledge and judgement. Jessie indicates that '*she does not just teach what she is given*' (Jessie, Interview 4) but applies her professional judgement. Often this means resisting what is required by the C2C, subverting from the inside. Her relational view of teaching, much like Harriot's, is out of place within the era of quality and standardisation. Jessie subverts the system to continue teaching in the way she knows will provide opportunities to engage her students. Tina controls what she does, ignoring all else:

It doesn't matter what the Principal's like, doesn't matter what's happening around me, I can control my own room. (Tina, Interview 2)

Even within the constraints of the performative agenda, teachers still want, as Eisner (1983) suggested, to put their signature on their work. However, often times they do not advertise this fact, as Harriot suggests:

When it gets down to the grass roots the teacher in the classroom is the one that has all the responsibility to deliver what they're supposed to deliver. (Harriot, Interview 4)

Jessie conceals her subversion by pretence; Ball (2010) calls this game playing. Jessie feels that she can do what she thinks is best because of her experience and professionalism as a teacher:

I am strong, strong thinking in myself, you know, that what I am doing is correct and that is how I would do it. (Jessie, Interview 2)

However, Chua (2009) suggested that the only way forward for teachers is for there to be a breaking of the pretence, giving voice to the terror of performativity. According to Ball (2010), the terror of performativity has been produced through the regulation of education, which has led to judgements of, comparisons between and control over

teachers, where the focus is on measuring the product, student outcomes, often ignoring the knowledge of teachers.

5.2 Professional Practice

According to the APSTs, professional practice in teaching involves sophisticated communication techniques, a repertoire of effective teaching and behaviour management strategies, and the ability to engage in all stages of the teaching and learning cycle (AITSL, 2014). The APST standards around professional practice highlight the increased focus on data to inform planning. This, along with the move to the APSTs as the basis for a professional accountability model, is potentially problematic. Therefore, this section demonstrates that while each teacher has their own conception of teaching practice, which tends to encompass their ideal and actual images of their teacher self, this often became a site of negotiation.

The teachers' images of self in teaching were often drawn from the images given to them during their pre-service years. The imitative nature of the master–apprenticeship model is evident in Harriot's and Jessie's images of their teacher self:

> *You are just learning from your mentor especially when you are really watching them, I guess you just fit into what they were doing most of the time.*

> *You do mould to the mentor teachers' ways without really even noticing it. (Jessie, Interview 1)*

The values of teaching that Harriot holds are further influenced by the beliefs and experiences she has developed over time. Minor et al. (2002) confirmed that beliefs about teaching are either challenged or nurtured during one's own experiences. For Harriot, her values and experiences built her sense of community and belonging to teaching. This was clear in her description of her attendance at Melbourne Teachers' College (Harriot, Interview 1). This is also evident for Jessie, who sees that team situations have developed her professional practice. The construction of her teacher self was in relation to more experienced teachers:

> *The way she taught in her classroom would be the way I taught, mimicking her wasn't a problem. (Jessie, Interview 1)*

The focus for most teachers was on care of students and their agency. However, this ideology is at risk in the current era of quality and standardisation. The current era

has bought with it changing priorities regarding what is important in education (Ozga, 2008). The focus has shifted to what can be counted, with a move to a consumer model that treats the child and their learning as a product of teaching. These changing priorities have affected teachers' autonomy, self-efficacy and professionalism, which in turn has had implications for their wellbeing and retention in the teaching profession. This is because each teacher has a definition of success may differ from systemic expectations. This highlights the disconnect between the purpose of education as perceived by teachers and external agendas. These changing expectations of the purpose of education and teaching have led to a limiting of teaching to certain professional practices as described in the APSTs. This has led to a differentiation between teachers' capacities regarding what is perceived as good teaching in relation to the APSTs:

> *I really make an effort not to get behind in technology. Because I think that I become a target, you know, like 'Oh she's given up. Like, you can tell she's thrown in the towel, she's not keeping up'. (Tina, Interview 2)*

The shifting priorities have positioned teaching as a list of competencies rather than a cycle of values that inform and are being informed by teaching practices. According to the teachers interviewed, teaching as an '*art and craft is being ignored'* (Harriot, Interview 4), which is leading to teachers attempting to remake their practices to conform. However, this endeavour also ignores the very personal nature of teaching, when teachers see themselves as entwined in their professional practice. Palmer (1997) suggested that the capacity to teach affects the ability to connect and move beyond technique. Each teacher has a different and personal view of good teaching. Harden and Crosby (2000) concluded that how good teaching is viewed depends on the person's conception of teaching, which Lortie (1975) contended is determined by their own experiences.

The shift in how professional practice is positioned has left the teachers feeling powerless and often times as lacking the capacity to explain their choices, which are based on common sense, personal experience and implicit theory (Bullough, 1997):

> *The fact that I improved I suppose gave me some confidence knowing that I could go into a classroom and if I stuffed up I would try again the next day and get better at it. (Kathy, Interview 1)*

The teachers in this study indicated that their resilience and longevity in teaching was based on the belief that they were doing what was best for their students.

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This was evident for most teachers, but especially for Jessie, who states '*it also comes back to my student relationship too*' (Jessie, Interview 1). The current era of quality and standardisation sees care and creativity as surplus in the educative process (Jagodzinski, 2010). Harriot in particular felt that '*more and more decisions were being made for her*' (Harriot, Interview 4) with the introduction of NAPLAN and the C2C. There was a common belief that teachers' autonomy and self-efficacy in teaching practice was being tested, along with their professionalism. Short and Johnson (1994) suggested that autonomy is an element of empowerment, determined by the level of control teachers feel they have over their work.

Empowerment is closely tied to fulfilment and wellbeing, which in turn is connected by Harriot and Tina to resilience and longevity in teaching. Harriot describes letting everything pass over and then just '*getting on with the job* '(Harriot, Interview 2). Gu and Day (2013) confirmed that resilience is influenced by a range of factors, including a sense of fulfilment and wellbeing. For Tina and Harriot, their sense of wellbeing is connected to students' wellbeing and is the basis for their capacity to stay in teaching. Mehdinezhad (2012) suggested a strong correlation between teacher wellbeing and self-efficacy that connects to persistence in the face of difficulties. However, it is the interweaving of self-efficacy and wellbeing with resilience that enables further exploration into teacher retention.

Two of the participant teachers have demonstrated long-term engagement in the profession of teaching. For Harriot and Tina, their resilience is based on seeing their own success. For Tina, going to work and making a difference was imperative. For Tina, Harriot, Jessie and Cathy, their self-efficacy and sense of wellbeing are sustained by the care they have for their students and their hope that they are making a difference. Therefore, their perceptions of the purpose of teaching are entwined with the idea of care, their wellbeing and their understanding of success, which itself is constructed in alignment with their hope that they are making a difference in the lives of their students:

> *I don't like to measure success in terms of results. I measure success when my kids want to stay in after school with me and one of my girls said last week, 'I don't want to go to interschool sports today, because that maths lesson is going to be really fun'. I measure success when one of my low-level learners has learned his golden words. He got his golden words, that is success. (Kathy, Interview 1)*

You've got to be in a job you enjoy. In teaching, there's different measures of success. (Tina, Interview 2)

What is poignant in these recollections is that professional practice is the only domain in which success is considered a factor, despite the teachers demonstrating the interconnected nature of all domains. Significantly, success is defined differently among teachers and again by federal and state government education departments in Australia, which focus on the outcome of teaching in the form of the APSTs and standardised testing as measures of quality and the achievement of student success, respectively.

For the majority of the teachers in this study, their view of themselves as successful is entangled with the image of care they hold. The idea of care is drawn from Noddings' (2003) conception of teaching as a relational practice that develops the whole child. For Tina, the image of care is focused on '*doing no harm'* (Tina, Interview 1); for Harriot and Jessie, the image is authentic care, '*connecting relationships with learning'* (Jessie, Interview 2); and for Cassie, care revolves around a motherly image. Lynch et al. (2016) suggested that the concept of care is both an action and an attitude, and is being increasingly neglected within the current neoliberal climate along with emotional work and interactions. While care is interrelated with teaching practice for most teachers, it is not evident in the APSTs, despite these being the measure of quality professional practice.

Care is also tied to teachers' pedagogical choices and central to teaching practice. Harriot in particular found that being creative was becoming more difficult because '*time was being given to other priorities*' (Harriot, Interview 4). Ball (2010) noted that changing priorities are a hallmark of the performative agenda. What is evident in the teachers' stories is that this performative agenda brings about a change in the choices teachers make or wish to make. Tensions are then created for teachers. For Harriot, the tension is between what she wants to do—'*teach as I always found successful'* (Harriot, Interview 4)—and what she is now being told to do by the school leadership team, who are accountable to standardised test scores. This level of accountability has prevented teachers from placing their 'signature' on their work (Eisner, 1983) and separated the art from the craft of teaching (Lupton, 2013). The consequences of standardisation in teaching practice, according to Lupton (2013), are restrictive and homogenous practices devoid of originality and creativity.

While teachers are said to be being professionalised due to the implementation of the APSTs, the current era of quality and standardisation is also seeking to position what teaching is for and how this practice develops. This is highly problematic, especially when teachers view professionalism in teaching practice in relation to how they feel they are seen by others (Hargreaves, 2000). This makes Jessie's use of the word 'professionalism' interchangeably with 'a good teacher' especially significant (Jessie, Interview 2).

All teachers hold an ideal image of a good teacher. For Kathy, she wears this image as a mask. For Cassie, this image is drawn from past teachers with whom she has worked. For Jessie, it is based on the mentor teachers that she undertook her professional experience with in her pre-service years. Harriot only talked of the teacher she had become. She held no ideal other than the one she had attained. However, she demonstrated anxiety about the APSTs—*Now I'm scared I'm not going to meet all these standards (Harriot, Interview 3)*—as she was concerned that her images of self in teaching may not align with the prescribed standards. Harriot sees that her experience is not being valued and questions the confidence others have in her practice, as it does not align to the standardised pedagogy. It seems that confidence plays a significant role in enabling teachers to see whether they are, or others think that they are, a good teacher. This is relevant in all of the teachers' stories.

For Kathy, her varying levels of confidence position her differently in her teaching practice, producing different images of her teacher self and effecting the way she portrays herself as a teacher as she attempts to create her own signature style. She states, '*that is when I started to get gutsy enough to do my own thing, and start to use humour and the like, to lighten relationships*' (Kathy, Interview 1). Compte and Postlewaite (2003) confirmed that confidence affects performance. Kathy's image of self as a confident teacher is directly connected to her ability to perform as a teacher. Therefore, her self-worth is directly connected to her level of confidence (Ferkany, 2008). Similarly to Kathy, Cassie sees confidence as an essential part of being a good teacher and one that is mediated by feedback on her performance in the classroom:

> *I had a lot of trouble with that confidence in front of the class…If I wasn't organised my confidence was also down.*

I really looked at them [mentors] as somebody that I was trying to impress and if they came across and said that I was doing something wrong or something that maybe they didn't like I did lose that confidence. (Cassie, Interview 1)

Each teacher wants to be seen by others as a good teacher. However, Kathy focuses on impressing others by revealing only what she wants others want to see. For Kathy, the APSTs served to confirm her own capacity and lack of experience:

Yvonne: Has completing the evaluation changed anything that you are doing in the classroom?

Kathy: No, just confirmed things. (Kathy, Interview 3)

Greve, Rothermund and Wentura (2005, p. 64) suggested that where a deficit is identified, the individual focuses on the aspects of self that are more viable. For Jessie, her capacity as a good teacher develops through interactions with other teachers, and her evaluation against the standards provides her with the assurance she is meeting expectations. Barad (2003) contended that individuals emerge through their interactions with others. However, interestingly for Jessie, her self-evaluation against the APSTs had no recent effect on her images of self. This could be due in part to the fact that she interacted with the APSTs during her pre-service days. For Cassie, ticking a box to indicate she was highly accomplished affirmed the image of her teacher self that she holds.

5.3 Professional Engagement

Professional engagement encompasses both the identification of personal learning needs and professional networking. The APSTs suggest there is a need for teachers to not just identify and engage in professional learning but to model effective learning. A key term that underpins this domain is professionalism, which must be demonstrated in all aspects of the standards. This domain is instrumental in bringing all other domains together to 'contribute to the professionalisation of teaching and raise the status of the profession' (AITSL, 2014). This section discusses the different ways in which professionalism and engagement are captured within the teachers' stories.

Jessie engages in professional learning to build her capacity to be what the children in her classroom need:

You go to professional development, whether it be about Down's Syndrome or ASD or something like that; you think of that kid in the back of your head that you're going 'That PD4', and you think 'Yep, that's that child, okay that might work'. And then they'll give you strategies there and you'll go back and you'll change it and you'll alter it, you know, do it your way. And that's pretty much how I've found that it works the most. (Jessie, Interview 3)

She sees this as an important part of being a professional teacher and building her confidence and capacity as a teacher. This is also evident in Cassie's story, where she sees her evaluation against the APSTs as demonstrating her improvement in professional engagement. She sees that she is being '*accountable to the students in her care*' (Cassie, Interview 3). Harriot puts her students first, but this has been to the detriment of her professional engagement and networking. She states, '*I get appalled with some of the things that I see and hear*' (Harriot, Interview 3). She does not believe she has been given the opportunity to advance in her practice due to her age and longevity in teaching. This issue around progression is especially significant in Queensland, where performance pay measures were introduced in August 2018.

There is a lack of connectivity between the teachers' images of self and their professional engagement in the era of quality and standardisation. The teachers were so focused on their accountability to standardised measures such as C2C, NAPLAN and standardised pedagogy that they did not consider engaging in professional learning necessary, except in relation to these measures. The standardisation of teachers' knowledge and practice in the name of accountability has far-reaching consequences. In particular, teachers' knowledge and practice becomes limited to a set of competencies and skills, potentially reducing the need to engage in professional learning beyond standardised curriculum and pedagogy:

I'm not prepared to put myself up there to be criticised by people who really don't understand where I'm coming from because they haven't had the experience. (Harriot, Interview 3)

Evidence from the teachers' stories suggests that this reduction in autonomy has affected teachers' self-efficacy and wellbeing. Moreover, the analysis of these stories reveals a disconnection between the teachers' view and that of education policymakers. This disconnection potentially affects teacher retention, especially if professional engagement is directed by this imperative.

The analysis of the teachers' stories has provided insight into the limitations of the APSTs and their impact on professional knowledge and the practice of teachers. The value placed on the APSTs' version of knowledge and practice over teachers' own knowledge, experience and resultant practice indicates that the APSTs are the gatekeeper to teaching in terms of quality, standardisation and accountability. The analysis has also highlighted that discounting teachers' knowledge is paramount to questioning their commitment, due to the personal nature of teaching. This negatively effects motivation and innovation. The limiting of pedagogical choices, especially when professional learning is bounded by standardised pedagogy advocated by principals and policymakers, exacerbates these tensions. This chapter has identified some of the challenges facing teachers in this era of quality and standardisation and provided some insight into how teachers navigate the current agenda of quality. Chapter six examines these identified issues in order to understand the images of the teacher self that teachers hold and determine how teachers navigate the era of quality and standardisation.

Chapter 6: Challenges to Teachers in the Era of Quality and Standardisation

This chapter examines the key issues identified in this thesis. This research aimed to understand the images of the teacher self that teachers hold and determine how teachers navigate the era of quality and standardisation. This research highlighted the impact imposed standards and measures have on a teacher's own ideal image of quality and the challenges teachers face in their own teaching practice. The intent was to augment the ongoing debate around teaching and teacher quality in relation to teachers' autonomy and agency.

Chapters 4 and 5 highlighted the diverse images held by the participant teachers of the teacher self, along with the one commonality: that each teacher had constructed an ideal image to which they aspired. This raised the question of which image of quality should be aspirational given the diversity of the teachers' ideal images. The significance of this lies in the fact that the APSTs are currently being used in Australia as the 'official' image of teacher quality—one that has been constructed through policy discourses and systemic practices—despite teachers, the media and the community holding a range of other images. What is evident is that the differing images of the teacher self provide insight into each teacher's understanding of their own teaching practice and the purposes of education.

The images of each participant teacher's self highlighted their teaching practice. This is significant when considered in the current era of quality and standardisation, in which the purpose of education is aligned to economic expectations and market logic. Nerland and Karseth (20152) suggested that a market logic contributes to the view that 'actions can be justified by referring to some kind of evidence or universal knowledge' (p. 2). This logic suggests a one-size-fits-all approach to teaching practice in the name of efficiency that does not take into account teachers' views of the purpose of education. There is evidence in both Chapters 4 and 5 of the increasing misalignment between teachers' beliefs about the purpose of education and the political expectations of education. Biesta et al. (2015) contended that teachers hold beliefs about students, their role and the purpose of education that influence their classroom practices. This was

especially significant for Harriot, who, having been a teacher for 50 years, had been affected by the changing purposes of education and increasing levels of accountability.

This chapter considers the challenges teachers face in the era of quality and standardisation, including the increased monitoring of teachers' work, the move to managerial accountability, and the implications of this for teachers' self-efficacy and autonomy. This chapter also examines the affect these challenges have on teachers' wellbeing and resultant attrition from teaching. These are and continue to be topical issues, especially at a time when the media is reporting the need for more teachers (Moore, 2019) and the QCT is implementing strategies to raise the perception of teachers in the community (QCT, 2018b).

6.1 Teacher Performance for Managerial Accountability

It is clear from Chapters 4 and 5 that the current era of quality and standardisation has led to increased monitoring of teacher performance (Thompson & Cook, 2014a). While this idea of monitoring is not new, Harriot in particular, describes feeling powerless due to the increased scrutiny on her work:

> *The people who put forward all this stuff to do, they are not here, you're the ones on the coal face so you know, you're the ones that knows what happening, you are thinking up here that you have got an inkling but what you are presenting is not real. (Harriot, Interview 1)*

Zembylas (2003) confirmed that there is a powerlessness in teaching, especially when there is a belief that one's ideas are not being valued. The teachers hold different perspectives of how standardisation supports or controls what they do: Kathy conforms; Harriot, Tina and Jessie subvert; and Cassie feels vindicated.

The focus has moved to the quality of teachers and teaching rather than the quality of learning. This focus on quality saw the introduction of the APSTs in 2011, which are now used to benchmark the quality of teachers and present a deficit view of teachers. The performance of teachers is now linked to student performance, as teachers' work is shaped by the demands of the regime of accountability (Rooney, 2015). Bahr and Mellor (2016) suggested that the current context of teaching is one in which 'teachers are experiencing [a] pedagogic identity crisis themselves, where personal identities are confronted and challenged by the changing clientele and systemic demands' (p. iv).

Systemic expectations now dictate what student outcomes and teaching practices are valued. The prevalence in teachers' conversations of mentions of NAPLAN and the C2C in relation to their teaching reveals the extent to which the current era of quality and standardisation is reshaping their teaching practice. This is supported by La Guardia's (2009) contention that teachers may vary their practice to ensure external expectations are met. Bahr and Mellor (2016) argued that teachers need to move away from the 'regulator-imposed normative conceptions of teaching' (p. v) and reclaim the profession of teaching. The teachers have a strong focus on what their students need:

> *I think we have to be more robust in what we want for these children, because as corny as it sounds they are the future of our country and people look at us with greedy eyes because we have got everything that we could possibly need. (Harriot, Interview 1)*

This is significant considering that creativity, in the form of the arts and the way in which teaching happens, was often left behind in the name of delivering the product: the students' NAPLAN results. The data analysis revealed that external expectations have led some teachers to teach differently to what they know students need. This is ironic given that APST Standard 1 is to 'know students and how they learn'. For most teachers in this study, care and creativity are the most important factors. According to Cassie:

> *Many kids these days come to school and don't have all of those attributes that you would expect a kid to bring; they haven't learned respect and they haven't learned tolerance and they haven't learned perseverance and they haven't learned all of those things to share, and to know what it means to care for somebody else. And so, you have to incorporate those things into your teaching, because if you don't your classroom's bedlam when you're trying to focus work or group work, or even just having discussions and things like that. Because you want to teach your kids what it means to be respectful and what it means to be safe in a classroom. So, you have to bring those things that you would teach your own kids at home into your classroom and reiterate that in a lot of situations so that it makes your life easier on a daily basis. (Cassie, Interview 2)*

Cassie also comments that '*education will suffer if we are not able to find time to do the creative things*' (Interview 4). However, care and creativity are often considered merely altruistic (Werler et al., 2012) and are often put aside to meet systemic requirements.

For Jessie and Cassie, who report minimal changes to their practice, their focus is on the child rather than on systemic expectations. Tina does her own thing because '*who would know if I didn't*' (Tina, Interview 4). Harriot is also quite vocal about the need to be child-centred:

> *For goodness sake! We needed strategies to get into the children's head that would be successful. When it's this generic thing, I don't think it works. So, I don't think I'll change... I am happy with what I do because I have happy children, and they want to come into the room and they love learning. (Harriot, Interview 4)*

This study found that teachers feel pressured to put systemic expectations above what they see as their professional obligations. Harriot suggests that:

> *the stress and the frustration has only come really in the last few years. I don't think it's because I've gotten older, it's because I can sort of almost see a shift away from really what's good for children. (Harriot, Interview 4)*

In response to these pressures, the teachers resisted (Tina), complied (Kathy), subverted (Jessie), adapted (Cassie) or became cynical (Harriot). While trying to protect their own images of teaching, they are influenced by practices of resistance and compliance, which in turn affects the teachers' images of self. While it could be argued that teachers who do not comply with systemic expectations are derelict in their duty, the teachers in this study attempted to work within the systemic expectations in a creative way to enable their image of their teacher self to remain.

The performance of teachers is closely tied in the literature to students' performance on standardised tests (Whittle, Telford & Benson, 2018). The need in the wider community to measure tangibly the quality of teaching, teachers and education itself has led to the simplification of teaching into a set of measurable processes. The current policy framework suggests that by controlling the major input, teachers, the learning process and student results as the outputs can be controlled (Mockler & Groundwater-Smith, 2015). However, this study found that the connection between teacher performance and students' performance on standardised measures ignores the aesthetic and humanistic elements of teaching.

Teaching then is more than a job or an obligation. Teaching involves the attitudes, beliefs, emotions and moral values of teachers (Beijaard et al., 2004). Each

teacher brought to their teaching a range of beliefs and emotions that affected their professional practices, especially in relation to the choices that they made. Jessie said:

> *I am strong, strong thinking in myself, that what I am doing is correct and that is how I would do it. That's probably based off of going to uni and my training here and my schooling too. As well as my values and morals as a person. (Jessie, Interview 2)*

Cassie highlights the '*demands of the job*' and the need for '*stamina*' and a certain level of resilience, considering *'all the demands put on staff and the responsibilities that you need to take forward*' (Cassie, Interview 4), all of which come from the teacher's personal attitudes and beliefs (Beijaard et al., 2004). For Harriot, her belief that '*you put the child before curriculum*' (Interview 2) influences her professional practice. Kathy uses her personal values to inspire the children in her class to see education as important (Interview 4). For each teacher, their commitment to their students and colleagues drives them to remain in teaching. This is supplemented by their view of teaching as a craft or calling.

Harriot and Tina see teaching as a craft (Kervin & Turbil, 2003), with competency based in the skills demonstrated. For Jessie and Cathy, teaching is a calling (Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012) and good teaching is seen as an inherent part of who they are. These teachers see teaching as an art form, or a vocation. Manuel (2003) suggested that the current system ignores teachers' emerging stories and how they view teaching.

Teachers all hold personal beliefs about teaching and teaching. Their beliefs and values are contained in the ideal image they hold of a good teacher. Therefore, each teacher's ideal of what a good teacher has the potential to different. This is problematic: if every teachers' ideal of a good teacher is different, how can 'a good teacher' be measured. AITSL (2018) attempted to measure quality teaching in the APSTs, but as revealed in this study, when teachers who initially saw themselves as good teachers evaluated themselves against the APSTs, they often determined that they did not meet their own expected level of quality. This confirms Atkinson's (2004) contention that teaching is more than just what is contained in the APSTs.

The APSTs were constructed from a competency model of teaching. However, the participant teachers have a different view of competence than what is standard. This suggests that the measurement of quality teaching cannot be standardised such that all

teachers will be able to attain both their own measure of quality and the standard, which has implications for teachers' views of themselves. A common factor between teachers was their concern regarding the paramount need to 'perform', which often resulted in a redefining of a teacher's image of self and teaching practice. Day and Gu (2007) contended that teachers succeed only by satisfying others' definitions of teachers' work.

This uneasy tension invariably affects the wellbeing of teachers and their perception of success. As noted in Harriot's interview, the current era of quality and standardisation has had a greater impact on her view of herself as successful than did the time of the inspectors. It was also evident that previous experience in teaching is ignored or discounted in the current era. Ball (2012) agreed that experience is not rated in the current era, as productivity is everything. There is a disconnection here with how teachers' view their teaching practice as developing through time and experience, and the requirement for immediate productivity and fully realised images of teachers' efficacy. Although a performative view of teaching considers shared knowledge and pedagogical approaches (Nerland & Karseth, 2015), the underpinning intent is around accountability. Therefore, the APSTs as an image of quality come from the need for accountability and to govern education.

The APSTs have become the site for governmentality and the measure of quality for teachers within government policy. Anagnostopoulos et al. (2016) described this as an industrial view of quality, which takes a reductionist approach and results in pressure on teachers to perform. All teachers in this study express concern about this: '*I used to do things that I just wouldn't do now… but there wasn't the curriculum pressures either*' (Tina, Interview 4). However, Jessie reassures herself that she can explain her performance based on student needs:

> *I think if you can explain it they should be okay, because you are doing it in the best interests of the students and that's why we're there, and that's how I would word it to them. (Jessie, Interview 4)*

This is significant when the standardised processes and testing being imposed on teachers and their students focus on the academic outcomes of students, and the APSTs are an additional measure of accountability. Both the evaluation of teachers against the APSTS and the results of NAPLAN focus attention on the performance of teachers and how they are perceived. The focus on performance is even more evident with the recent introduction in 2012 by AITSL of highly accomplished and lead teacher certification

(AITSL, 2018) and the QCT (2018a), and the introduction of associated pay levels by the Department of Education Queensland in August 2018 (Queensland Government, 2018). An article in the Courier Mail dated 29 August 2018 decried that this pay rise has occurred despite the decline in NAPLAN results (Cameron, 2018). The connection of quality to performance against standardised measures is problematic.

The standardised measurement of performance was especially problematic for Harriot and Cassie, who see teaching as an aesthetic endeavour, and who are deeply committed to the caring and nurturing of their students. This is often in opposition to the need by society to progress education, which has seen a push to simplifying teaching into a scientific process, a one-method approach to teaching. There is a push for a new set of skills, a new way of working, to be more productive. The idea of needing to work more productively was evident in the interviews around the standardised curriculum and pedagogy implemented in Queensland schools. Teachers in this study viewed these innovations as affecting their work in both positive and negative ways, and questioned whether these sufficiently improved outcomes for students. While teachers talked about making a difference to their students' academic progress, more often than not the interview diverted to the importance of fostering the wellbeing of their students. Teachers countered the standardised expectations influenced by market logic and measurability (Webb et al., 2009) by refocusing attention on the needs of students.

The data from this study suggested that the way teachers view themselves and their practice in the era of quality and standardisation is not different to the ideal that they have always held or striven towards. Teachers' ideal images of quality are drawn from their beliefs and experiences, and for the most part, the effect of the APSTs on these images was to confirm rather than drastically change them. However, the current era of quality and standardisation did affect the teachers' practices. Teachers feel constrained by the standardised mechanisms of quality, which impinge on their practice and what they see as best for the students in their care.

A common concern was the effect standardisation was having on the wellbeing of students and, by extension, teachers. The teachers in this study felt that the child was being ignored in the current era of quality and standardisation. This presented a challenge to all teachers, who saw care as an integral part of the image of their teacher self. These teachers responded to this in different ways, as evidenced by the tensions experienced by the teachers when evaluating themselves against the APSTs. The APSTs are a self-evaluation mechanism, which Gurr (2007) sees as forming the framework of

accountability for teachers. There was concern for some that, even with their experience, they would not measure up. This was especially evident for Harriot, who stated *I'm scared I'm not going to meet all these standards* (Interview 3). Others did not see themselves as experienced enough to evaluate themselves highly on the continuum of quality. Jessie struggled to evaluate herself higher than her more experienced colleagues, *I've only been here three years how can I be a leader? So maybe I am rating myself lower* (Interview 3).

The advent of the high achieving and lead teacher pay scales (QCT, 2018b), achieved by evidencing one's competency against the APSTs, raises the potential for discontent and lack of fulfilment. The highly experienced teachers, in my study, who initially expressed images of competence evaluating themselves against the APSTs at a lower level due to lack of opportunity. Harriot indicates in relation to certain APSTS that '*you can't really do that in this school'* (Interview 3). The converse was also true, in which a teacher rated themselves lower against the APSTs than their practice demonstrated. This was evident with Kathy, who indicates the difference in her thinking:

> *from demonstrating knowledge and understanding to using teaching strategies based on knowledge and understanding. So, I could probably tell you, like I could probably spout to you all the stuff I learned about learning and intelligences but I don't use it. (Kathy, Interview 3)*

Teachers' fulfilment is at risk when there is a disconnection between how society and teachers view success in teaching. This disconnect between the views of society and teachers is problematic when teachers discuss being successful as contributing to longevity in teaching. This is especially evident in Tina and Harriot's stories. Their definition of success provides them with the satisfaction and motivation to continue in teaching:

> *Most teachers would want that but... you've got to be in a job you enjoy. And teaching, the only way is the measure of success… at the end of the day if you've got a measure of what you've actually contributed or something, you need to have something to show for the slog. (Tina, Interview 2)*

Society's view of success is based on performative measures in relation to pragmatic market imperatives, whereas teachers' view of success is more humanistic and encompasses children's academic and personal growth and development. Society's

view of quality teaching is based on student outcomes, as highlighted by recent policies, whereas teachers' view of quality is based on aesthetic practices of care and creativity. Harriot suggests that as a good teacher:

> *I can deliver the curriculum in the way that I know works. It needs to be with imagination, creativity and knowledge. You've got to know your stuff, you've got to be creative, and you've got to be passionate about it. (Harriot, Interview 2)*

Teachers in this study believed that their inability to teach in the way they know best led to feelings of powerlessness and dissatisfaction. Harriot suggests this is the reason good teachers are leaving the profession:

> *It's beginning to go around the traps, people who don't want to stay teaching any longer. And some of them are our brightest who would be excellent teachers for a long long time. So, this is self-defeating. (Harriot, Interview 4)*

Wellbeing and satisfaction are key issues for the participant teachers. Their perception of success is built on the training they received, the experiences they have had and their focus on care, which is being diminished in the current era of quality and standardisation. The impact on teachers' views of themselves as successful was greater for teachers who have been in the profession longer than for teachers who have been training within the era of quality and standardisation.

6.2 Teacher Attrition and Retention

This study found that one of the images of teacher self was resilience. This is significant in a time at which there is a focus on teacher attrition, especially with teachers leaving the profession within five years of graduation (Moore, 2019). Each teacher demonstrated a certain level of longevity in the face of increasing attrition and changing priorities in education. After 50 years of teaching, Harriet found that the current era of quality and standardisation made her feel powerless. This disempowerment was as a result of the testing of her autonomy, which had the effect of reducing her self-efficacy. There is evident in Harriet's story a persistence even in the face of change and an ability to seek a sense of fulfilment.

Fulfilment and purpose are common ideals that Harriet, Tina and Cassie demonstrated, helping them remain persistent regardless of the circumstances. For all three teachers, their teaching revolves around the students in their classrooms. For

Harriet, it is about '*creating wonder for students*' (Harriot, Interview 2); for Tina, it is about '*ensuring their wellbeing*' (Tina, Interview 1); and for Cassie, it is about her own improvement so she can be the best teacher possible for her students. The focus on students is a key part of these teachers' philosophies of education.

There is a link between having a clear purpose and teacher wellbeing. Each of these teachers aims to ensure that regardless of the changes around them they focus on their primary purpose, the students. Each teacher acknowledged that their purpose and wellbeing in teaching is tested in the current era of quality and standardisation. However, the image of care drives their persistence and response to policy changes. Harriot, Jessie and Tina, in particular, adapt and resist to ensure students are at the centre of their decision-making.

The personal values of the individual teachers and the basis of their training has influenced their retention in teaching. Harriet and Jessie hold an image of teacher self as an artisan and artist, which stems from their teacher training at Melbourne Teachers' College and Queensland Teachers' College, respectively, where they were introduced to teaching as an art and craft. For Jessie, this stems from how she viewed her teacher training as an apprenticeship. For all the teachers, the model of the ideal teacher was demonstrated to them by their supervisors during training and informed by their own personal values and beliefs.

While the personal beliefs, values and philosophies of teachers supported their retention in teaching, the teachers' indicated that their resilience was tested by standardised measures such as NAPLAN, C2C, explicit teaching and the accountability of OneSchool. Choices were increasingly being made for them, with the focus having moved away from caring for the individual to the requirements of the faceless economy. What this study has found is that the neoliberal agenda plays a significant role in teachers becoming disempowered and leaving the profession of teaching. Maaranen, Pitkäniemi, Stenberg and Karlsson (2016) suggested that a teacher's view of good teaching is idealistic, and this is threatened by the standardised view of teachers and teaching.

Teacher retention is at risk in the current era of quality and standardisation. While accountability can be appropriate, the managerial accountability being experienced in the current era of quality and standardisation limits teachers' autonomy and treats education as a factory model. Manuel (2003) suggested that while teachers

have a long-term view of teaching as a vocation, the profession of teaching is 'driven more by pragmatics and market imperative than by the high ideal' (p. 142). There is a lack of clarity around the purpose of education due to the differing views of what education is for held by all interested parties. For the government, the purpose of education is about developing assets for the improvement of the economy, whereas for teachers it is about developing the whole child. This affects the autonomy of teachers to educate according to the collective purpose of education from the teacher's perspective. Teachers are often left with the need to push back on externally imposed purposes. While they could accept the official discourse, like Kathy tends to do, the other teachers all knew that this was not what was best for the child or their own sense of fulfilment and success in teaching.

This has left teachers with limited autonomy and agency, which in turn has led to teachers' attrition. The teachers who have remained in the profession through difficult times are now questioning their continuance in teaching in the current era of quality and standardisation. They question what they can offer to education when their agency is increasingly limited.

6.3 Teacher Autonomy and Agency

A key consideration of this study was the reduction in teacher autonomy and agency in teaching practice. Each teacher held an ideal image of quality teaching practice and of themselves in teaching that is being ignored in the current era of quality and standardisation, especially in relation to the imposed image of quality, the APSTs and the standardised practices that ignore the humanistic elements of teaching. Increased surveillance and control (Thompson & Cook, 2014b) represses teachers' agency and autonomy (Zembylas, 2003; Hargreaves, 2000) and leads to a decline in their self-efficacy. This, along with the pressure on teachers to conform, has affected teachers' confidence in their own capacity and abilities in the classroom. This study found that confidence is an often-overlooked element of teaching practice and is essential for teachers to see themselves as successful.

Teachers' view of themselves as successful is essential in ensuring their agency. This study found that when teachers saw themselves as successful, they were able to be confident in the decisions and actions that they took in the classroom. Harriot, Tina and Cassie were able to continue working in the confined space of teaching and were able to measure limitations as valid or invalid based on their own experiences. These teachers

did not succumb to the reductionism of teaching practice, but sought ways to integrate systemic expectations into their own decision-making processes.

Teachers who were confident in their own image of self in teaching retained their teacher agency. However, this study found that teachers who did not have a strong image of self in teaching, such as Kathy, often succumbed to all systemic expectations and did not have the capacity to question the validity of these in relation to their own decision-making. The strength of a teacher's image of self in teaching predicts their capacity to negotiate their agency in relation to imposed policies and expectation.

A strong image of self in teaching was found in this study to be an essential element in ensuring effectiveness and continuance in teaching. This was evident in the teachers' responses to the APSTs, whereby they responded to this imposed image of quality in differing ways, including confirmation (Jessie and Cassie), acceptance (Harriot and Tina) and refusal (Kathy). These responses reflected the strength of the ideal image that each teacher held, which often revolved around their perceived success.

Having the teachers self-evaluate against the APSTs provided insight into the impact a singular image of teacher quality has on a teacher's images of self and their effectiveness as a teacher. While this impact differed for each teacher, the APSTs did not have the effect of homogenising the teacher's own images of self. Rather, teachers used the APSTs as a tool to understand their own image better, with the APSTs confirming and often strengthening their images of their teacher self, or providing them with insight into elements of teaching practice that they had not considered.

However, the APSTs also had the potential to discount teachers' experience and beliefs, which are essential elements in a teacher's view of their success and resultant agency. This is especially significant in Queensland where the APSTs are now used to determine eligibility for the high achieving and lead teacher pay levels, which focus on competency over experience and originality of practice informed by personal beliefs. The APSTs limit what success can look like in teaching, through the construction of a regulated framing, which constitutes an official image of teacher quality that is often at odds with the images held by teachers. This is a significant problem in teaching, as it prioritises systemic expectations over the learning of the child.

This chapter explored and provided insight into how teachers view themselves and their practice in an era of quality and standardisation. Consideration is given to the move to managerial accountability, and the implications of this for teachers' self-

efficacy and autonomy. This chapter also examined the affect these challenges have on teachers' wellbeing and resultant attrition from teaching. The significance in relation to the research questions will be explicated in the final chapter.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

The research problem that motivated my study was based on the notion that there is a perceived lack of quality in education, with teachers at the centre of this conversation. The introduction of the APSTs provided a standardised one-size-fits-all continuum of teacher quality, which this thesis asked teachers to evaluation themselves against to provide insight into how teachers navigate the current era of quality and standardisation. The stories of Harriot, Kathy, Jessie, Tina and Cassie have provided possibilities for raising the profile and perception of teachers and teaching. Through the analysis of these teachers' stories, a number of issues have arisen, including the rhetoric of managerial accountability; the one-dimensional view of teachers and teaching quality; mistrust and implications for teachers' self-efficacy, agency and autonomy; differing theories of educational success; and the silencing of teachers' voices in public policy.

The rhetoric of managerial accountability focuses on performance as a measure of quality and surveillance to ensure this quality is maintained. The effect of this agenda has been to connect teacher performance to students' results on standardised tests, with increased scrutiny via OneSchool. Managerial accountability's effect is seen in the simplification of teaching into measurable elements, which has led to a one-size-fits-all approach to teaching. This is highly problematic given that, as this thesis has demonstrated, there is not one view of good teaching, with each teacher holding different beliefs that influence their practice. Additionally, managerial accountability only focuses on one input, the teacher, and ignores the complicated and often messy aspects of teaching: the humanity of teachers and students.

There needs to be a re-evaluation in public policy of the view of teachers as service providers within a managerial framework. Further, questions need to be asked about for what and in what way teachers should be held accountable. The focus on student outcomes based on standardised measures leads to a one-dimensional view of teacher quality, which limits the purpose of education and exacerbates the commodification of schooling. Schooling and teaching are complex phenomena that cannot be reduced by mandates and government policies; improvements will not be brought about through compliance measures, but rather through working with teachers through implementing the intricacies of curriculum and instructional approaches

(Trombly, 2014). Teachers see their purpose as greater than the narrow expectations of standardised outcomes.

Teachers see their purpose as opening doors to knowledge for their students, to help them to be active thinkers (Harriot, Interview 1); ensuring students are safe and happy in the classroom environment (Tina, Interview 1); making a difference to the lives of students (Jessie, Interview 2); and creating relationships (Cassie, Interview 1). The purposes of education for the participating teachers were entwined with the ideas of care, wellbeing and teachers' common interpretation of success. This emphasises the complexity of teaching and teachers' roles, in contrast to the one-dimensional view of teachers and teaching typified by the APSTs.

The homogenising of teaching to a one-dimensional, one-size-fits-all approach has affected teachers' self-efficacy, agency and autonomy. Teachers are limited in their ability to teach in the manner they know best, and as they have been trained. Further, the standardised approach to teaching requires teachers to move students more quickly through their knowledge development than the students may be capable of. Teachers question this policy shift and its implications. The situation is untenable, as teachers' knowledge and practices are viewed in government policy as unreliable and thus not valued, which exacerbates the mistrust that teachers feel, in turn affecting their knowledge and competence. This mistrust in teachers' knowledge and practices has fed into the increase in managerial accountability, which in turn has increased the external imperatives that have decreased teachers' autonomy, wellbeing and value, leading to attrition from teaching. The cycle continues.

Portraying teachers as the problem *is* the problem. There needs to be a shift away from thinking of teachers as the problem. Teachers are critical to the educative process (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Trombly, 2014). However, the participating teachers in this thesis have revealed they do not feel valued and have limited impact on or input into policy decisions that affect the education sector. For change to occur in education, a rethink is needed of the rhetoric of managerial accountability associated with neoliberalism, the cycle of mistrust of teachers needs to be broken, and opportunities are needed for the voices of teachers to contribute to a re-visioning of the purpose of schooling. Without change in how teachers are viewed and positioned by policymakers, education systems and leaders, the cycle of mistrust is likely to continue. This neoliberal agenda is putting Australian students at risk of not meeting their potential. The politicising of education, homogenising of teaching and surveillance of schooling has

led to diminished student outcomes, not the improvement in the quality of teachers and teaching currently being reported in educational reviews and mainstream media.

Educational policies need to reprioritise learners and learning. This entails refocusing on what students need, rather than on what the economy requires, which can only be achieved by eliminating productivity as the focus for educational success. This will require a reconsideration of the government's positioning within the neoliberal agenda around the use of standardised measures such as NAPLAN and PISA to determine the quality of education in Australia. A shift in government policy towards the needs of the learner would have the effect of highlighting the real issues in schooling: the systemic expectations of misaligned funding models, which require measurable outputs for funding inputs. The commodification of education and the market-driven view of success have stymied education and continued the cycle of mistrust of teachers, affecting teachers' autonomy and agency, and inevitably their wellbeing, resilience and attrition.

Teaching practices have been affected by the current era of quality and standardisation. Teachers' knowledge of quality practice is positioned within the ideal image of their teacher self, which directs their actions. While the understanding that teachers hold an ideal image of their teacher self is not new, the implications of this for their teaching practice have not previously been explored. Participant teachers' ideal images were informed by their experiences (both perceived and actual) of quality teaching. These images were developed and refined through their interactions and experiences, including when they were students themselves. However, the importance of these images is not in what they are, but the effect they have on teachers and their practice. Despite the image of 'standardised' quality projected by the APSTs, each teacher held an ideal image of quality teaching that prioritised the care and wellbeing of students.

It was holding to this ideal image that brought hope, resilience and impetus for professional learning and growth for the participant teachers. This strong image of their teacher self also provided teachers with the resilience to persist in the face of the growing number of educational reviews positioning them as the problem. The most recent reviews, including the *Quality Schools, Quality Outcomes* (2016) and *Action Now: Classroom Ready Teachers* (2014) reports, were instrumental in prefacing teachers in the conversation around educational improvement.

Each of the teachers struggled with systemic expectations. This thesis has demonstrated that teacher agency has been diminished in the current era of quality and standardisation. Therefore, it is critical to consider how the expertise, experience and skills of teachers can be used as a critical element in understanding what it is that students need and how learners can be developed. Teachers' voices need to be heard.

This thesis suggests that without consideration of teachers' voices in government policy, no meaningful change can occur. Involving teachers as active participants in education policy would also raise the profile of the teaching profession. However, teachers themselves need to be activists. They need to push back against the perception that they are obedient and subservient to the current agenda. This empowering of teachers requires teachers, unions and school leadership to acknowledge that the market-driven agenda diminishes teachers' professionalism and does not value the individual learning needs of students. However, this requires teachers placing greater value on their own knowledge, experience and judgement, rather than adopting and being directed by standardised approaches, which do not take into account individual differences and learning needs. School leaders need to trust in teachers' capacity to know what is best for their students. This is the irony of the current era of quality and standardisation: teachers, by graduation, have demonstrated capacity against the APSTs, showing they know how students learn, but they are not trusted in this.

This thesis has contributed to the body of literature concerning teacher self and advanced understanding of how teachers' understanding of self develops without boundaries of time and place. Additionally, this thesis has questioned the position of the teacher-as-a-problem in the neoliberal agenda and provided an overview of how this affects education. Finally, this thesis has provided an explanation for the attrition of teachers from the education system and outlined recommendations for change that could address this.

This thesis has given voice to the participating teachers' concerns, contextualised within the era of quality and standardisation which has affected the public profile and perception of teachers. Additionally, this thesis strongly advocates for recognition of the professional capacity of teachers, encapsulated in their individual images of their teacher self. This leads to their empowerment, resilience and ongoing quality practice. The relevance of this thesis to education is in the importance of teachers' images of self in ensuring quality teaching.

Ensuring quality teaching will require further reviews, not into teachers and practices, but into the political agendas and systemic expectations driving current change. Consideration must be given to the underlying intention of these reviews and the relevance to schooling and students' learning. Finally, government and the media need to stop their incessant focus on teacher quality and the evaluation of teachers' effectiveness as reflected in their students' NAPLAN or PISA results'. Teachers can make a difference, but only if their method and content matches the needs of their particular students.

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Appendix A Ethics Approval

Yvonne Salton
Faculty of Education
Springfield Campus, USQ
Email Yvonne.salton@usq.edu.au

CC: Anne Jasman, Margaret Baguley, Supervisors

Dear Yvonne

The Chair of the USQ Fast Track Human Research Ethics Committee (FTHREC) recently reviewed your responses to the FTHREC's conditions placed upon the ethical approval for the below project. Your proposal now meets the requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)* and full ethics approval has been granted.

Project Title	The Shared Self: Reflected images of the Teacher Self
Approval no.	H12REA202
Expiry date	31 December 2015
FTHREC Decision	**Approved**

The standard conditions of this approval are:
   (a) conduct the project strictly in accordance with the proposal submitted and granted ethics approval, including any amendments made to the proposal required by the HREC
   (b) advise (email: ethics@usq.edu.au) immediately of any complaints or other issues in relation to the project which may warrant review of the ethical approval of the project
   (c) make submission for approval of amendments to the approved project before implementing such changes
   (d) provide a 'progress report' for every year of approval
   (e) provide a 'final report' when the project is complete
   (f) advise in writing if the project has been discontinued.

For (c) to (e) forms are available on the USQ ethics website: http://www.usq.edu.au/research/ethicsbio/human For (d) and (e), diarise the applicable dates now.

Please note that failure to comply with the conditions of approval and the *National Statement (2007)* may result in withdrawal of approval for the project.

You may now commence your project. I wish you all the best for the conduct of the project.

Melissa McKain
Office of Research and Higher Degrees

Metropolitan Region

Department of Education,
Training & Employment

Education Queensland

Mrs Yvonne Salton
Lecturer
University of Southern Queensland
Synathamby Blvd
SPRINGFIELD Qld 4300
yvonne.salton@usq.edu.au

Dear Mrs Salton

Thank you for your application seeking approval to conduct research titled *"The Shared Self: Reflected images of the Teacher Self"* in Metropolitan Region. I wish to advise that your application has been approved.

This approval means that you can approach Principals of the schools in the Metropolitan Region nominated in your application and invite them to participate in your research project. As detailed in the department's research guidelines:

- You need to obtain consent from the relevant Principals before your research project can commence.

- Principals have the right to decline participation if they consider that the research will cause undue disruption to educational programs in their schools.

- Principals have the right to monitor any research activities conducted in their facilities and can withdraw their support at any time.

This approval is conditionally granted on your compliance with the department's standard terms and conditions of approval to conduct research, which are available at http://education.qld.gov.au/corporate/research/terms_conditions.doc. I have enclosed a copy for your convenience.

At the conclusion of your study, you are required to provide a summary of your research results and any published paper resulting from this study to this Regional Office and to participating Principals.

Metropolitan Regional Office
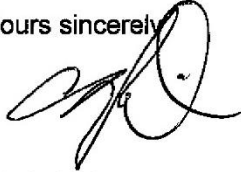PMB 250 Mansfield DC
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Please note that this letter constitutes approval to invite Principals to participate in the research project as outlined in your research application. This approval does not imply official departmental endorsement of any aspect of a research project or support for the general and /or commercial use of an intervention or curriculum program, software program or other enterprise being developed or evaluated as part of your research.

Should you require further information on the research application process, please contact Robert Seiler, Acting Director Regional Services, Metropolitan Region on telephone 3422 8696 or email to robert.seiler@dete.qld.gov.au.

Yours sincerely

Chris Rider
Regional Director
Metropolitan Region

27, 02, 13

Enc. Terms and Conditions of Approval to Conduct Research

Ref: 13/63522

Appendix B Interview Questions

From Ethics application

Phase One: Sample Questions

1. What do you believe these reports/references say about you?
2. How does this influence how you previously saw yourself in the classroom?
3. Did your experiences on practicum influence how you saw yourself in the classroom?
4. Has this changed over time? Why? How?

Phase Two: Sample Questions

1. What does your philosophy say about you as a teacher?
2. Does your philosophy affect how you teach?
3. How does your philosophy influence how you view yourself in the classroom?
4. How does reviewing you philosophy influence how you see yourself?
5. Has your philosophy changed over time? What has influenced this? Has this impacted your view of self or has your view of self impacted your philosophy?

Phase Three: Sample Questions

1. How did you evaluate yourself against the standards?
2. How did you determine which level was the most appropriate?
3. What "evidence" did you use?
4. Has completing this evaluation impacted your image of self?
5. Has completing this evaluation changed what you do in the classroom?

Phase Four: Teacher Participant Sample Questions:

1. Over the last "___" years, what has influenced the way you see yourself in the classroom?
2. Have there been incidents which have brought change to your teacher self-image?
3. What if any has disrupted these image/s of self?

Phase Four: Supervisor Sample Questions:

1. How do you view the "teacher" in the classroom?
2. What has influenced how you view them?
3. Does the "teacher" know how you view them? Why or why not?
4. Has your view of the "teacher" changed over time? How? Why?