AN EXPLORATORY STUDY INTO PRIMARY TEACHERS’ PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY AT A TIME OF EDUCATIONAL REFORM IN CYPRUS

A thesis submitted to The University of Manchester for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in the Faculty of Humanities

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MANCHESTER INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
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ABSTRACT

Christiana P. Karousiou, An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus, Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), The University of Manchester, 12/11/2013.

The research reported in this study is located in a major curriculum reform programme commissioned by the Cypriot government and introduced into all public primary schools in September 2011. The study has a specific focus on teacher professional identity in changing times, not least through examining how teachers engage with an external intervention. The study identifies and deploys conceptual tools to examine how and why teachers have been positioned through this reform, and how there is a need to recognise their role as architects and key agents to curriculum reform policies. This research uses a case study approach and operates on three levels. At the micro level, I report on four primary school teachers’ professional lives utilising multiple sources of evidence. At the meso level, I locate these four teachers into a wider context by reporting on data collected from 308 questionnaires distributed to teachers in 29 schools before the implementation of the reform programme and a year after. Finally, at the macro level I report on the national policy context by looking at documents and interviews with two purposively selected curriculum coordinators.

Research data revealed that teachers’ professional identity and its underpinning constructs such as emotions, job satisfaction and professional commitment, autonomy, and confidence were constantly challenged and negotiated within the changing educational setting. Contextual and professional factors were found to affect to a great extent teachers’ identity. The unfolding of the research findings derived from the three levels of this research and the use of Foucauldian governmentality as a theoretical lens led to the exposition of the power relations embedded in teachers’ professional lives and contributed to the further analysis of teachers’ identity within educational policy. The case is made that the complexity of professional identity needs to be taken into account by reform designers because teachers are the ones who embrace, reinterpret and develop such efforts. The way and degree to which teachers understand, adjust, perceive and enact on reforms are affected by the extent to which these innovations interact with and challenge existing identities.

This research project examines how policy interplays with practice as well as how teachers in a highly centralised system experience and respond to changes in their professional lives, what constitutes, shapes, supports and undermines their practice, thus, making a contribution to the evidence and theory base for the educational policy field. The study enriches the international literature on professional identity and fills in the gaps with respect to teachers’ professional identity at a time of system wide change at a national level in Cyprus. Finally, there is a methodological contribution as it concentrates on primary teachers and utilises methods which are not widely used as the majority of undertaken research is based mainly on surveys and interviews and focuses on secondary teachers.
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To my parents, Petros and Ioanna,
my brother, Constantinos, and sister, Maria
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<td>CoP</td>
<td>Communities of Practice</td>
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<tr>
<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continuing Professional Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>CPI</td>
<td>Cyprus Pedagogical Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
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<td>INSET</td>
<td>In-Service Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>LSB</td>
<td>Local School Boards</td>
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<td>MoEC</td>
<td>Ministry of Education and Culture</td>
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<tr>
<td>PAC</td>
<td>Pedagogical Academy of Cyprus</td>
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<td>UREC</td>
<td>University of Manchester Research Ethics Committee</td>
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1.1 Introduction

The research reported in this thesis investigates the ways in which primary school teachers in a highly centralised and usually conservative education system in the Republic of Cyprus experience changes to their work setting, and the effects of these changes on their professional identity. This setting is an excellent site for examining the relationship between education policy and teachers’ identity, as in 2008 a Curricula Reform Committee was appointed in order to proceed with the development of new curricula in Cyprus; the new curricula were then applied in all public primary schools in September 2011. It was the first reform of its type for over two decades and thus provides an opportunity to examine the way professional identity is developed through teachers’ practice by focusing on how teachers engage with external intervention through a major curriculum reform.

This focus on professional identity is concerned with how teachers see themselves as teachers based on their understanding of their continuous interaction with their work setting. Specifically I will examine this through five constructs: teachers’ professional commitment, confidence, autonomy, job satisfaction and emotions. These constructs are constantly challenged, contested, altered and at stake in the setting of educational innovations, thus the investigation of the factors which affect teachers’ identities and the implications for practice is vital.

Notably I plan to examine the structuring impact of the context in which teachers are working (e.g. workload and training in regarding to the reform changes) and the agency of the teachers in how they interact with this (e.g. the knowledge and experiences that they bring to the reform process as professional resources). Following Foucault, the
oppositional nature of agency and structure is being rejected. It should be noted that Foucault does not deny the notion of agency itself but instead he suggests that it does not appear out of human nature but out of power structures. According to the philosopher, agency is regarded as the product of the interplay between power and resistance and it cannot exist prior to this interplay (Foucault, 1978). Agency therefore, is conceptualised as the result of the procedures of subjugating individuals executed by institutional structures. This implies that the level of agency one has, depends on structures of regulation and control. Similarly, the power of structures of domination and control is contingent on the agencies of all individuals involved. Consequently, power of structure and power of individuals should not be regarded as contraries but instead as totally inter-reliant (Gallagher, 2008).

Fieldwork and conceptual analysis has been undertaken in order to examine the following research questions:

(a) How do primary school teachers describe and understand their sense of professional identity?

(b) How and why has their sense of professional identity been shaped and influenced through the reform of the curriculum?

These questions are important in shaping an enquiry into the wider dimensions of teachers' identities and the ways in which teachers' practices, roles and responsibilities are changing or remaining the same as major reform is taking place. Moreover, they enable the investigation of how teachers experience externally determined change in their work and the ways their professional identity is affected by the reform. Finally, these questions offer the opportunity to examine teachers' actions, reactions and attitudes towards the curriculum reform, as well as the sorts of training they have received with respect to the latter.
These research questions are addressed using a case study methodology. Firstly, I have gathered empirical evidence by undertaking a three-level analysis: (a) at the micro level, I worked with four teachers and recorded their experiences over a year, by interviewing, observing and collecting relevant documents; (b) at the meso level, I gathered the views of a large sample of teachers before and a year after the introduction of the reform with the use of questionnaires; (c) at the macro level, I studied policy documents and interviewed curriculum coordinators. Secondly, I have conceptualised the issues in a further two levels of analysis: (i) I identified and deployed a framework about professional teacher identities, and (ii) I used Foucault’s thinking tool of governmentality as a means of interrelating these identities with notions of the state and policy.

As a result, this study is not a policy science project whereby I am seeking to evaluate the implementation of a reform policy in a mono-dimensional and de-contextualised way. Specifically, it is not a technical evaluation, since it does not aim to examine what Barber (2007) called ‘deliverology’ in the UK and consequently examine the extent to which teachers implement what is delivered to them from the MoEC. The unit of analysis is teachers and their identities and not the actual curriculum reform and the examination of the extent to which the classroom practices of primary teachers in Cyprus comply with the national curriculum prescribed and published by the MoEC. This study deals with the development of an understanding of the relationship between professional identity and teachers’ working context. Educational reforms, especially large scale ones like the development of new national curricula which target altering teachers’ daily practices, are one of the most significant factors impacting teachers’ professional identity. Therefore, the purpose of this project is to explore and examine the ways in which teachers struggle, negotiate and contest changes in their work setting as well as how the structure and impact of a national policy influences the professional identity of teachers in primary schools. I consider the significance of wider contextual relations by acknowledging how the case under investigation can only be conceptualised when located within the complexity of those relations.
In addition to charting the first year of the reform through gathering a unique data set, the primary contribution I am making is conceptual, as I shed some light on teacher professional identity by developing a framework that will arguably be useful for all stakeholders at the level of both policy and practice, such as reform designers, teachers and researchers who are interested in exploring and understanding this complex notion. This conceptual framework will also assist the development of suitable strategies for enhancing teachers’ professional identities in changing times, supporting the process of understanding and explaining the experience of educational reforms. Additionally, this study contributes methodologically by employing a multilevel data gathering process, developing new research instruments for collecting information regarding teachers’ professional identity, using mixed methods, concentrating on primary school teachers and conducting research in a specific time frame, namely before the introduction of the reform and throughout the first year of its enactment.

1.2 Rationale

The reasons why this study is important and necessary are because (a) it complements my professional knowledge and location, and (b) the rapidly changing policy context in Cyprus creates an imperative to conduct research. As a prerequisite of my pre-service training, I have worked as a teacher in primary schools and, as a result, have some understanding of the professional role and experiences of teachers in Cyprus. Therefore, examining how this major curriculum reform will affect teachers’ professional lives will add to my existing knowledge and engage me both on a personal and professional level. Additionally, the objective of gaining an understanding of the notion of teachers’ identity, and the interrelationship between the process of education reforms and teachers’ identities, meant the selection of this particular country at this particular time was essential.

The specific focus on the Republic of Cyprus is also significant, not only because it constitutes a distinct socio-political context, but also because education had not yet been
decentralised in Cyprus, in contrast to the majority of countries. The public education system in Cyprus remains highly centralised and conservative (Pashiardis, 2004). Teachers have been the object of imposed governmental initiatives and their potential active role in school reform is underdeveloped. Additionally, the lack of literature, and gaps both in research and theoretical knowledge, at a national level in relation to the effects of an externally imposed educational agenda on teachers’ identity cemented my decision to proceed with an in-depth understanding of this matter.

The last three decades have witnessed major changes in the education systems in many developed and developing countries in what Levin (1998) has called a ‘policy epidemic’. Governmental reform initiatives, which are highly associated with intensifying political, economic and cultural conditions, brought about by the processes of globalisation, are aimed at raising educational attainment and improving the teaching and learning process. Teachers who have been exposed to numerous transformations have had to deal with changes in the policy and social context of their profession (Gewirtz et al., 2009). Managerialism, intensification, bureaucratisation, accountability and assessment mechanisms are but a few examples of recent changes that have a strong impact upon teachers’ identity and consequently their practices (Day, 2002; Helsby, 2000).

In this context, the concept of identity is an emerging research field receiving much research attention (Akkerman and Meijer, 2011), as it is considered to be linked with the ways in which teachers respond to educational reforms (Day, Flores, and Viana, 2007). However, the ways in which teachers’ experience changes in their work setting and how these changes affect their sense of professional identity has not receive much attention from the educational researchers. Hence, this research study is important as it illustrates the relationship between national policy reform and teachers’ professional identity; namely, how an externally imposed agenda affects their professional lives as well as how teachers read, interpret, develop and react to such policies in their day-to-day practice. The importance of exploring teachers’ professional identity for research on teaching has also been identified by Ball and Goodson (1985), who suggested that ‘the
ways in which teachers achieve, maintain, and develop their identity, their sense of self, in and through a career, are of vital significance in understanding the actions and commitments of teachers in their work’ (p. 18).

Hargreaves (1994) recognises the importance of teachers’ meaningful and productive involvement in the success of innovation efforts by considering them as the key agents of educational reform and school improvement. The argument is made that reform agendas outlined in official documents may seem impressive; however, they are often superficial as they do not target the heart of teachers’ sense of identity. Consequently, the restructuring of educational systems and the development of national curricula are of little value if they do not take the complexity of teacher identity into serious account. Indeed, some researchers assert that teachers do not implement the curriculum – instead, they are the policymakers (Ozga, 2000; Schmidt and Datnow, 2005) of the government reform as they are the ones who delineate, embrace, reinterpret and develop such efforts.

This research study argues that teachers should be the architects of social and educational transformation in today’s knowledge society, and that their role must be acknowledged within these change strategies. Most reform attempts are directed at teachers as objects to be changed and as subjects who need to bring the change about, thus highlighting how critical and crucial their role is in the school reform process. The way and degree to which teachers understand, adjust, and perceive reforms in their classroom is affected by the extent to which these reforms challenge and reconstruct their existing identities. The success of sustained reform movements depends on the level of congruence between teachers’ views and perceptions of their practices, their role as teachers and the demands of these movements. Hence, the main questions raised when change takes place in educational systems, and those this study aims to address, relate to the ways in which teachers’ perceive and experience these changes in their work, and how these changes affect their sense of professional identity.
1.3 Organisational structure of the thesis

The overall structure of the study takes the form of nine chapters. Each chapter systematically illuminates essential information regarding this research. The procedures followed are described and explained fully so that readers will be able to conceptualise the steps leading to the final conclusions.

Chapter one is the introduction, which offers a general overview of the study including the research questions, objectives and the rationale. It explains the importance of this project and provides a synopsis of the research methodology along with its contribution.

Chapter two outlines the background of educational system in Cyprus and examines the challenges facing the education system that led to the development of the reform agenda. Particular attention is given to the reform programme, followed by the antecedents of teachers’ role and identity, and concludes with the issues raised by this educational policy for teachers’ professional identity.

Chapter three presents the main conceptual ideas and relevant literatures regarding the notion of professional identity. The five constructs underpinning professional identity – teachers’ professional commitment, confidence, autonomy, job satisfaction and emotions – are unfolded and elucidated in this chapter, leading to the development of a conceptual framework for gaining a better understanding of the complex notion of identity. Additionally, the link between professional identity and practice is illustrated and thoroughly explained.

Chapter four sets out the methodological approach that has been used for achieving the objectives of this study. The research methodology, design and methods undertaken are presented along with issues of sampling, data collection, and data analysis. Following this, any research integrity issues raised during the research, as well as matters concerning validity, reliability and trustworthiness, are addressed.
Chapter five presents the micro level of the study. The stories of the four teachers are described thoroughly. Drawing out the key themes of these stories, the relevant international literature on teachers’ professional identity is used in order to proceed with their analysis and interpretation. Following this, any factors that emerge from the analysis of the teachers’ accounts and which are found to have an impact upon teachers’ professional identity are also presented in this chapter.

Chapter six presents the meso level of the research study, where the statistical findings extracted from the data analysis are illustrated utilising tables and histograms aiming to depict how teachers’ professional identity has been affected by the major curriculum reform. Additionally, within this chapter I examine how the key outcomes of the micro level fit into the broader population of primary school teachers.

Chapter seven presents the macro level of this study and concentrates on the findings of the two curriculum coordinators’ accounts regarding their views on the curriculum reform, the effects of the reform on teachers’ professional lives, and the training and support offered to the teachers. Furthermore, documentary evidence is used to illustrate how stakeholders understand teachers’ professional lives, and the ways in which they proceed with the policymaking process. Additionally, I present some factors that emerge from the examination of the two curriculum coordinators’ accounts and documentary evidence. Following this, I focus on the lessons learnt from exploring the relationship between national policy and professional practice. In this chapter, literature on education policy is integrated into the data and analysis.

Chapter eight unfolds the micro, meso and macro level and connects the results with Foucault’s thinking tools of governmentality, technologies of self, technologies of power and power relations. Firstly, I offer an overview of the research questions of the study and then use Foucauldian concepts to develop a thorough understanding of teachers’ identity aiming to unveil power relations embedded in the curriculum reform and teachers’ professional lives.
Chapter nine draws upon a summary of the objectives as well as the procedures followed for the conduct of this research. The main results derived from this research are summarised with respect to the research questions posed at the beginning of chapter one. Additionally, this chapter highlights the implications of the research findings, presents the contribution of this research to the field of educational policy and discusses how this research can be taken forward.
CHAPTER TWO

SETTING THE STUDY CONTEXT

2.1 Introduction

Drawing on policy documents, reports and literature related to the educational context of the Republic of Cyprus, I will present the setting in which this research study was conducted with a particular emphasis on the education system and issues concerning primary school teachers. Following this, I will elaborate on the main challenges for the Cyprus Education System (CES) that led to the restructuring of the school system as well as on the major aspects of the educational reform agenda. The background and development of the identity of Greek-Cypriot teachers and the issues raised by this reform agenda for teachers’ professional identities are also addressed.

2.2 The national context of the study

Education in Cyprus, whether public or private, is mandatory until the age of 15. Pre-primary to secondary and some parts of post-secondary education are all under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and Culture (MoEC). Pre-primary education, primary and lower secondary education are mandatory and offered free of charge in the public domain. Pre-primary school is one year’s duration and is followed by six years of primary education for ages 6-12. Secondary education is divided into two cycles: the lower (gymnasium) and the upper high school (lyceum and technical school) (Eurydice, 2007/08). Figure 1 below provides a clear view of how the educational system in Cyprus is structured, how many years are required for each grade, which parts are compulsory and what choices are available for students.
The CES has, until recently, not witnessed any significant reforms since the independence of the island from Britain in 1960. The most recent reforms include a teachers' appraisal system, which was established in 1976, the establishment of a compulsory, nine-year comprehensive school, legislated in 1981, followed by a non-compulsory three-year high school (grades 10-12), a curriculum which was introduced in 1981 and revised in 1992, and textbooks introduced in 2006. These innovations were underpinned by the principle of equality of opportunity and the development of individuals for a modern, democratic culture in Cyprus (Nicolaidou and Georgiou, 2009; Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006).

Policymaking procedures, curriculum and textbook development, and educational administration in Cyprus have always been top-down procedures and remain highly centralised as a result of socio-political conditions. The CES was developed in accordance with the Greek educational system, which was itself affected to a great extent by the socio-political conditions that prevailed in Greece.
extent by the French system with its underpinning epistemological orientations of encyclopaedism, centralisation and uniformity (Persianis, 1998). Indicative of this situation is the fact that the MoEC concentrates all the power and has been assigned by the Government to be the executive body for education and accountable for the administration, regulation and supervision of educational institutions.

The MoEC is responsible for the prescription of textbooks, syllabi and curricula and the enforcement of educational laws. Schools are obliged to function within this framework, following the centrally planned nationwide curriculum without questioning the system and authority. The preparation of educational bills takes place in collaboration between the MoEC and the Office of the Attorney General. Their duty is to table the bills and send them to the House of Representatives for debate and approval. The construction of school buildings is the obligation of the MoEC and their maintenance and equipment is a shared responsibility with local school boards (Pashiardis, 2004). The Council of Ministers is the highest authority for educational policymaking, and any other educational issues rest with the MoEC.

One important feature that reduces the power of the state is the teachers’ trade union, which is very powerful and actively participates in negotiations regarding alterations in pay, conditions and teacher appraisal. Membership in the teachers’ trade union is compulsory for all teachers.

Local School Boards (LSB) (whose role is similar to Local Education Authorities in England and Wales) are comprised of 5-11 voted members of each community or region who hold their post for a period of five years. These committees are under the regulation of the Technical Services Department of the MoEC. Their main responsibility is organising construction, maintenance and provision of equipment for schools, making suggestions about the reallocation of pupils in the districts’ schools and managing each school’s budget in collaboration with the school’s headteacher to achieve the best operational financing for schools (Theodorou, 2006).
The Educational Service Commission, a five-member autonomous body appointed by the President of the Republic of Cyprus for a period of six years (UNESCO, 2010/2011) decides on matters of appointment, disciplinary procedures of teaching personnel, secondments, promotions and transfers of teachers from one school to another on the basis of certain criteria or upon their request. The transfers are based on a credit system. Teachers are awarded with transfer credits for every year they work and for the type of school that they work in. The more transfer credits a teacher has, the more likely they are to be appointed to schools close to their home base (Nicolaidou and Georgiou, 2009). Due to this mobility, it is uncommon for teachers in Cyprus to have long service in a particular school and there is, therefore, an evident lack of staff stability (Karagiorgi, 2012a).

Inspectors are responsible for the successful implementation of the government’s educational policies, for curriculum development, for teachers’ guidance, for the appraisal of teaching personnel and the evaluation of schools (Kyriakides, 1997). The provision of in-service training (INSET) by inspectors has been criticised as having a consulting rather than training character (UNESCO, 1997). Headteachers in the CES are responsible for the smooth functioning of their schools both in the educational and administrative domain. Their main obligations include collaboration with the LSB, class teaching, guidance, appraisal and reporting of teachers’ professional practice, ensuring the next year’s budget addresses the school’s needs, managing the money given by the Board of Parents’ Association and dealing with school paperwork (Euricide, 2007/08).

The promotion of teachers to deputy headteachers and headteachers is based on their teaching experience and on their appraisal by the Inspectorate. Despite the link between teacher appraisal and promotion, all teachers’ performance is reported as ‘outstanding’; therefore, the main criteria for promotion are age and seniority, meaning that many teachers are near the age of retirement by the time they get promoted to a higher administrative post (Theofilides, 2004).
Pre-service training for teachers is provided at tertiary educational level, specifically in universities in Cyprus or abroad, principally in Greece, the United Kingdom and the United States. The official INSET of teachers is primarily provided by the Cyprus Pedagogical Institute (CPI) and secondarily by the Inspectorate. The CPI, which is one of the departments of the MoEC, offers opportunities for continuing professional development (CPD) and organises a series of courses and seminars based on teachers’ needs as identified by the MoEC and CPI every year (Karagiorgi et al., 2008).

Participants in such training and CPD seminars are given certificates of attendance which are not connected to any promotion or salary increase. Thematically, courses offered by the CPI cover intercultural education, social and psychological issues, information technology communication, educational research skills and school matters, which are regarded as the European Union’s (EU) priority issues (CPI, 2009; Karagiorgi and Symeou, 2006). The vast majority of these courses/seminars are optional and are offered in off-site centres in all five districts of Cyprus after school hours. Mandatory courses are offered only to teachers who are promoted to administrative positions. School-based seminars can also be provided and organised based on the topics that interest the teaching personnel of a school or neighbouring schools, after agreement with the CPI.

2.3 Key challenges for the CES

The accession of the Republic of Cyprus to the EU in 2004 was a significant challenge for the CES, as it heralded the start of efforts to restructure the system, re-orientate education policies and develop innovations, measures which were needed to coordinate the CES with wider European education practices whilst ensuring local culture and character were not ignored. The MoEC was required to comply with new regulations and ensure that the CES was capable of embracing European directives, policies and principles to ensure the provision of education based on European standards and the development of active and dynamic European citizens.
The need to contribute to the strategic goal established by the Lisbon European Council to make the EU the most compelling knowledge-based economy in the world (European Commission, 2008) challenged the existing ways of thinking and doing for all stakeholders in the CES. Therefore, in January 2005, in a special meeting where representatives of all parties were invited, the President of the Republic of Cyprus formally inaugurated a lengthy report prepared by seven academics in 2004 (Pashiardis, 2007). This report identified weaknesses in the CES and made recommendations on the areas that needed immediate action. The recommendations concerned the future governance and administration of the education system, the content of education and the restructuring of educational levels from kindergarten to university. Specifically, the restructuring of the MoEC had six objectives: decentralisation to the school level; establishment of horizontal administrative structures; establishment of new permanent posts within the Ministry; possibility of secondment of teachers to the Ministry in order to exercise specific duties for a predetermined period; INSET of administrative staff and the reformation of departments (Committee on Educational Reform, 2004; MoEC, 2008).

The problematic nature of the CES had been addressed before accession to the EU. An extensive and thorough evaluation of the CES was carried out by UNESCO experts in 1997 (UNESCO, 1997), which had also recommended the modernisation of existing curricula and the restructuring of the public education system in Cyprus, but no further action was taken at that time. The UNESCO experts developed a report based on the four basic components of the CES: pedagogical, staff administration, material infrastructure and research/evaluation, and presented the positive and negative elements while providing an agenda of propositions to deal with the problematic areas of the CES. As it was reported, public education was suffering from: (a) the control and power that was exerted over all schools by the MoEC; (b) the gap between the transition from primary to secondary education; (c) the lack of communication and co-ordination between the departments of the MoEC, and (d) the absence of a comprehensive and cohesive approach.
Other challenges facing the CES included the limited use of information communication technology (ICT) in classrooms, the insufficiency of INSET and the current evaluation and promotion system. The role of ICT in education at the time was becoming more and more significant and its importance continues to flourish and develop today. Therefore, reform designers in Cyprus could not neglect the emerging need of introducing ICT to the educational agenda as new digital media and information technologies were promoted and supported in the global setting. Research studies investigating the use of ICT integration in schools (Karagiorgi and Charalambous, 2004; Vrasidas et al., 2010), revealed that, even though the vast majority of teachers acknowledged the benefits of ICT, they resisted integrating technology in their everyday practices due to several parameters, such as lack of time, the problematic design of the school curriculum and the lack of infrastructure and resources to better support teachers and learners. These findings revealed the need for the development of an education policy that would promote and support the real and effective integration of computers in teachers’ practice while respecting and meeting teachers’ needs and expectations.

The inefficiency of the training provision in Cyprus has been debated in a range of studies (Karagiorgi and Symeou, 2008; Karousiou, 2010). INSET is mainly informal and voluntary, and has been criticised for ignoring the central principles of adult education problem-solving, such as building on experience, promoting interaction with colleagues (Charalambous, no date) and enabling in-depth reflection. A further weakness was a focus on the individual rather than cooperative participation (Angelides, 2002; Karagiorgi and Symeou, 2006). The absence of specific prerequisites for professional development, along with the lack of links between participation and promotion, decreased teachers’ interest in engaging in CPD activities (Charalambous, no date).

The failure of training courses’ content and organisational structure to satisfy teachers’ needs, along with their insufficiency and lack of vision, was also identified by the teachers’ union (POED, 2004). In addition to teachers’ union findings, the Committee on Educational Reform (2004) declared that only a small percentage of teachers in Cyprus
were satisfied by the offered INSET opportunities. It was argued that the CES needed to overcome the deficiency of the current training provision to increase ‘the percentage of teachers and trainers in continuous training’, which was identified as one of the benchmarks of the European programme ‘Education and Training 2010’ (European Commission, 2008). Therefore, the necessity of restructuring existing practices and reformation of national policies, and the development of a more effective training scheme within the agenda of continuous professional development, was imperative.

Teachers’ evaluation process has also been identified as highly problematic due to the fact that teaching experience in Cyprus is drawn primarily from age, which is considered to be the main factor for promotion (Pashiardis and Orphanou, 1999). The UNESCO (1997) report confirmed this situation by revealing that in the appointment and promotion of teachers to higher ranks, ‘the principal criterion is age and seniority [...] competence in performing the work is scarcely taken into account [...]’ (pp. 56-58). Practically, teachers were being promoted not because they had the qualifications and skills which were essential for their role, but because they had been working in the system for many years (Nicolaidou and Georgiou, 2009). Therefore, the need for a new evaluation system which will be based on more objective and rational criteria, such as teachers’ professionalism and ability to provide quality education, was more than apparent.

2.4 Educational reform programme

The main objective of the reform programme outlined by the MoEC (2011a) is to fulfil the vision of a better educational system that would serve pupils’ future needs and meet the challenges of society in the 21st century. Great emphasis is given on the development of democratic schools and a student-focused education system which respects all students, regardless of social, racial or ethnic background, gender, mental or physical ability, thus enabling them to maximise their potential and cultivate skills by obtaining the knowledge which will enable them to become active and democratic citizens. Critical thinking; problem-solving; reflective practice; creativity; good, flexible and wise use of ICT; the
ability to transform theory into practice; the ability to work collectively, and eagerness for teamwork are but a few attributes and skills which are considered essential for the 21st century.

Table 1 shows the key events and dates of the education reform agenda, starting from the accession of the Republic of Cyprus to the EU in 2004 which initiated the efforts of reformulation of the CES, to the introduction of new curricula and timetables in all public primary schools in September 2011.

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<th>KEY EVENTS AND DATES</th>
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<td>2004</td>
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<td>Accession to the EU</td>
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<td>Report of the Committee for the Educational Reform</td>
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<td>Start of the Education Reform Programme</td>
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<td>Start of the development of the new national curricula</td>
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<td>2011</td>
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<td>Introduction of new curricula and timetables in all public primary schools</td>
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Table 1: Key events and dates of the education reform

The educational reform agenda included the revision of the curricula of pre-primary, primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education, which was initiated in 2008 after the decision made by the Council of Ministers. The theoretical framework underpinning the development of the new curricula for all school subjects suggested that:

the mission of education in the 21st century is the establishment of a humanistic and democratic school, which will lead to people with a cohesive and sufficient body of knowledge, able to understand and define the world around them, communicate creatively with the people around them and shape their life with the support of the scientific and cultural accomplishments of humanity (MoEC, 2011a, p. 25).
Stakeholders proclaimed that the educational reform should be regarded as a public initiative and not as an issuance of the MoEC (Tsiakalos, 2010); therefore, consultative councils of education were set up (Primary, Secondary and Higher Education Councils) (EUNEC, 2011) to participate in the reform process. Additionally, all interested parties, such as political parties, teachers' union, parents’ associations, academics, associations of students and the Government as represented by the MoEC and the Planning Bureau, were invited to participate in the debate of the education reform plan. Apart from these stakeholders, all Cypriots could engage in the development of the reform by attending meetings, lectures and seminars organised by the Ministry, and sending letters and participating in the electronic discussion set up on the Ministry’s webpage. This public debate on the new curricula officially ended on April 30, 2010 (MoEC, 2011a). All observations and comments on the content of the new curricula were encoded and delivered to both the Committee of curriculum development and the Scientific Committees to be taken into account during the processing and development of the new curricula.

In the school year 2010-2011 both the partial introduction of the new curricula in primary schools and the INSET of teachers took place. The partial introduction of the new curricula gave the opportunity to reassess and recognise any points of the new curricula that needed to be reconsidered and redeveloped. The final form of the curricula was introduced in the system in the school year 2011-2012, during which their gradual implementation commenced.

One of the key objectives of the Education Reform Programme was the fundamental enhancement of the quality of the teaching process through INSET. Within this framework, a comprehensive strategy for INSET for teachers is necessary to meet teachers' needs for staying up-to-date in technological and educational advancements and in the development of knowledge, skills and expertise. In September 2010, primary school teachers participated in mandatory INSET for the new curricula provided by the CPI. Academics, inspectors and teachers who participated in the development of the
new curricula were assigned to train the teachers (MoEC, 2011b). During the training courses teachers had to be informed about the characteristics of the new curricula, their philosophies, aims and objectives, content, methodology, evaluation and how to use them. Moreover, teachers were informed about the innovative features included in each cognitive subject as well as how these features correlated with the theoretical framework of the new curricula. The INSET took place in four main phases (Figure 2) (MoEC, 2010).

![INSET timetable programme](image)

**Figure 2:** INSET timetable programme

An essential part of the government educational policy is the expansion of the ICT programme in all public schools. One of the main aims of the action plan for ICT was to improve the national curricula in terms of objectives and activities in order to enhance ICT use in schools and develop essential software and material to facilitate the use of ICT in the teaching and learning process. The other core objective of the action plan was the provision of INSET for teachers in order to keep up with the latest technological advancements. The INSET programme started in 2003 and lasted until 2010, and focused on teachers’ professional development in the acquisition of ICT skills, with the ultimate goal of becoming more confident in using ICT effectively in the teaching and
learning process. The training opportunities were provided through centralised seminars and workshops, school and classroom-based support, research programmes and through lifelong learning activities.

New timetables have also been fully introduced in the primary domain of education since September 2011. The most important change is the reduction of teaching hours in core subjects. Other changes include the gradual reduction or termination of the provision of additional teaching periods for certain extra-curricular educational programmes, as they have now been integrated into the curriculum, and the introduction of the consolidation period. During this period, pupils, in collaboration with their teacher, have the opportunity to cover any gaps identified and focus on acquisition and consolidation of core knowledge.

Currently, there is also a growing interest in the formulation of a new teacher appraisal system in Cyprus, following the agreement of stakeholders and representatives of the teachers’ union that the existing evaluation system does not offer concrete data about teacher effectiveness. After an extended dialogue between the two parties, a proposal for a new teacher evaluation system was completed and submitted to the Educational Council of Primary and Secondary Education in 2011. The process of modernising and improving the appraisal scheme of teachers into Public Education Service is ongoing.

In summary, the reforms introduced into primary schools from September 2011 were:

- Curricula
  - Revisions in the national curriculum for all subjects

- Pedagogy
  - From traditional pedagogy to critical and creative pedagogy

- Structural Organisation
  - Office for European and International Affairs
  - Autonomous Centre for Educational Research and Evaluation
  - Establishment of advisory councils:
• The Cyprus Education Council  
• The Primary and Secondary Education Council  
• The Higher Education Council  
  o Decrease of the number of pupils per class from 30 to 25  
  o Gradual decentralisation and devolution  
  o Restructuring of INSET scheme  
  ▪ Resources  
    o New course material, multiple resources, audio visual aids, software, technology infrastructure and equipment, a database system, internet service, and other supplementary material.  

Underpinning these changes was a direct intervention into teacher identities and consequently their practices. The government’s intention was to change the ways in which teachers work and think. Specifically, the reform’s designers were trying to shift teachers from being didactic deliverers of curricula towards a more problem-solving based learning approach where children become critical and creative thinkers, active citizens and individual learners who develop and construct their own meanings based on their previous experiences. Thus, teachers are transformed from being deliverers of content to facilitators and developers of learning who use different kinds of approaches and styles of learning.

2.5 Background and developments of teachers’ role and identity

In the following paragraphs I will concentrate on how the position of the Greek-Cypriot teacher has shifted and changed over the time. As I have shown so far, the CES is highly conservative and centralised, and this has implications for teachers’ identities. Thus, any major reform process will impact and overlay the historically-rooted culture and practice of teachers and teaching.
At the time of the reform process, the role of the teacher in Cyprus was mainly technical and managerial, trapped in bureaucratic schooling procedures and governmental demands. They were regarded as solely responsible for the implementation of policies that were designed and developed by external ‘experts’. The reform set out to fundamentally change the curriculum, learning resources and how teachers understand pedagogy, and the profession’s response to this is revealed in the way the role of the teacher is understood.

In order to gain an understanding of the development of Greek-Cypriot teachers’ role and identity, I intend to use Persianis’s (2006) categorisations of (a) the teacher as a priest; (b) the teacher as moral regenerator; (c) the teacher as national apostle and active political agent; (d) the teacher as an economy cornerstone, and (e) the teacher as a professional. These are helpful as they constitute the legacies that still impact on how teachers understand purposes and rationales for their practices, and the language and narratives they use. Additionally, they shed some light on the importance of teachers’ role in education as well as on how teachers have gained status and recognition over time.

In 1570 Cyprus was under Ottoman rule. Until 1878, when the island was ceded by the Sultan to Great Britain, teachers in Cyprus were mainly priests, as they were one of few groups who had some basic reading and writing skills. Their contribution to Greek-Cypriot society was of great importance and has been documented in a range of historical books.

With the initiation of British colonial rule in 1878, the second role of the teacher as a moral regenerator made its appearance. The loss of religious feeling, social disintegration, the lack of moral and ethical values, rise of crime, conditioning of children to live in illiteracy and barbarism as well as the inactive role of schools during the first years of the British rule made imperative the presence of a teacher who would act as a moral and ethical agent and supporter.
The third role of the teacher differed little from the second one. In order to mitigate the problem generated from the aforementioned factors, the teacher was requested not only to educate children in school but also educate adults by preaching the word of God in churches or in evening schools. Over time, teachers also started to promote political speech, thus becoming active and powerful political agents. Greek-Cypriot newspapers asserted that teachers were obliged to support and promote both national ideals and the movement of the Greek-Cypriot population to incorporate the island of Cyprus into Greece. This role brought the Greek Orthodox Church, which established itself as the institution of promoting and strengthening religious, educational and cultural values, into major conflict with the British administration (Persianis, 1978). Teachers were regarded as a powerful and positive weapon and the Church did not want the British administration to exert any control on them as they were afraid that the majority of teachers would resign, or be afraid and stop working for the good of the country.

During the first years of British Colonial rule, both the British administration and educated Greek-Cypriots criticised the ignorance of the people on agricultural issues. They both agreed that teachers should receive adequate knowledge, both theoretical and practical, in order to help rural residents in agricultural activities. Therefore, in this way, teachers contributed significantly to the economic growth of the island.

Persianis's (2006) categorisation of teachers' role does not suggest that one role excludes the other or they cannot co-exist in a specific period. Specifically, teachers’ work was strongly affiliated with the Church until 1940. Until this time, teachers characterised their work as sacred and characterised themselves as missionaries. The role of the teacher as a national apostle and active political agent lasted for more than seventy years and reached its apogee with the sacrifice of teachers during the liberation struggle against British Colonial rule (1955-1959) and the Cyprus dispute between Greek-Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots in 1963-1964.
The fifth role – the teacher as a professional – evolved substantially after World War II despite the fact that certain features of this type of teacher role started to appear since the 1920s. This type was further empowered with the increase in the duration of study required to become a teacher, followed by teachers’ academies reaching university standard and, finally, the professional teacher organisation officially becoming a syndicate (Persianis, 2006). From 1960 to 1993, the Pedagogical Academy of Cyprus (PAC) was responsible for training prospective Greek-Cypriot primary school teachers at a diploma level. The PAC ceased to function in 1993 with the establishment of the University of Cyprus. The fact that primary teachers by that time were not holders of a university degree contributed to them having a lower status than secondary school teachers. This differentiation was apparent in primary teachers’ salaries and the working conditions, which were not equal to secondary standards. Moreover, although both primary and secondary teachers exercised the teaching vocation, the latter were called ‘professors’ to indicate the status gap between the two groups.

The subsequent equalisation of salaries between primary and secondary teachers (Eurydice, 2011/12), the fact that prospective teachers have since 1993 been holders of a university degree and the higher rate of unemployment among secondary teachers has contributed to the gradual empowerment of the prestige of primary teachers. It should also be noted that, up until a decade ago, elementary school teaching was considered a popular choice for high school graduate students and there was stiff competition to secure places. The reasons for this popularity have been outlined in a range of studies, and include the salary, holidays, working schedule and immediate employment (Menon and Christou, 2002; Papanastasiou and Papanastasiou, 1997; Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006).

2.6 Summary

In order to examine the ways in which an externally imposed reform agenda influences teachers’ professional identity and the implications for their practices, it was important in
this chapter to present the setting of this research study with particular focus on the educational reform. It is evident that the current educational reform agenda raised certain issues for teachers’ professional identity and how stakeholders perceive this notion. As demonstrated, the current educational reform agenda sought to intervene in teachers’ identity and shift teachers from technicians and deliverers of content to developers of learning. Moreover, as indicated in the documents related to the reform, teachers are still required to follow austere guidelines and strict requirements as well as being subjected to following INSET programmes which research shows are impractical and developed without acknowledging in advance teachers’ needs. Arguably, these courses are based on political objectives instead of educational and pedagogical reasons.

The fact that teachers do policy work through their everyday practice, and that teaching and learning is a social practice and not about delivery, is highly neglected by stakeholders in the reform. This stakeholders’ stance towards teachers highlights their failure to perceive teachers’ professionalism in terms of their capability to exercise discretionary professional judgements to interpret curriculum reform in their own working setting. By focusing on matters of knowledge and skills in trying to make teachers more efficient, effective, accountable and compliant to externally imposed policy mandates, they fail to consider the complexity of teachers’ professional identity. Therefore, the argument I develop here, which will be unfolded in the next chapters, is built upon an understanding of teachers themselves, what teachers do within a changing context, how they act, what their purposes and reactions are and how they experience change. Before proceeding to this analysis, I consider it important to conceptualise the notion of professional identity in changing times; therefore, the next chapter concentrates on professional identity and based on research literatures I develop a conceptual framework for gaining a better understanding of the complex notion of identity.
CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUALISING PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

3.1 Introduction

Having set the context of this research study, the purpose of this chapter is to explore international research literature about professional identity in order to illustrate the conceptual ideas that will serve as the basis of this study. Firstly, the concept of identity is examined, with particular focus on the five underpinning constructs of identity: emotions, job satisfaction, professional confidence, professional autonomy and professional commitment. Professional identity is linked with the ways in which teachers react to externally-imposed reform mandates. By using these research literatures as my landscape I start developing a conceptual framework which will assist the investigation of the relationship between teachers’ professional identity and the curriculum reform in Cyprus.

3.2 Conceptualising professional identity

The notion of identity is a rising area of study within social sciences, gaining increased research attention (Akkerman and Meijer, 2011). Nevertheless, a thorough investigation of the concept of identity reveals a lack of theorising, as the term itself remains underdeveloped and elusive. An extensive review of 22 research studies regarding the concept of professional identity undertaken by Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004) designated that the concept of identity was defined differently or was not defined at all. The fact that identity has diverse meanings that stem from various disciplines and research angles (Gee, 2000) is arguably the main contributor to its ambiguousness.

In this research study, teachers’ identity is engaged with the idea that it is about how teachers perceive themselves as teachers based on their understanding of their ongoing
interaction with their work environment at a specific time and context. This notion is evidently intertwined with organisational structures and procedures, as it can be formed by school, reform, and political settings (Sachs, 2000) and is also embedded in power relations, ideologies and culture (Zembylas, 2003). Throughout their careers, teachers develop an interpretative scheme which is constantly formed and re-formed through interaction between teachers and the social, structural and cultural conditions of their work setting (van Den Berg, 2002). The interaction between teachers and work setting, and therefore teachers' sense of identity as a result of this interaction, displays itself in emotions, job satisfaction, professional commitment, professional autonomy and professional confidence. Before proceeding with the conceptualisation of these five constructs, it is important to gain an understanding of teachers' professional identity, as it contributes to the awareness of what it means to be a teacher at a time of major reform innovations.

In earlier literature (e.g. Erikson, 1968; Mead, 1934), identity was often ambiguously described in terms of ‘the self’ and conceptualised as a singular, fixed, stable, and de-contextualised attribute that was independent from the external setting. However, these initial perspectives were challenged as they were incapable of justifying the existence of diversity and fluctuations in behaviour contingent on environment.

Nowadays, at a time of rapid change, identity is conceived as a dynamic and continuously evolving notion, which shifts and develops over time ‘through the way we internalise the external environment, negotiate interactions, [...] externalise ourselves to others’ (Hong, 2010, p. 1531), and interpret and make sense of our own experiences and values (Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop, 2004; Flores and Day, 2006). To support the dynamism of identity, Cooper and Olson (1996) have emphasised that this notion is constantly ‘being informed, formed, and reformed as individuals develop over time and through interaction with others’ (p. 78).
Teachers’ professional identity is negotiated by teachers’ experiences in and out of schools as well as their own principles and beliefs of what it means to be a teacher (Sachs, 2001). Wenger (1998) perceives identity in terms of change, while emphasising the co-development of the individual and the social by stating that ‘building an identity consists of negotiating the meanings of our experience of membership in social communities’ (p. 145). The metaphor of ‘building’ an identity is utilised intentionally by Wenger to indicate the active nature of identity development. As Gee (2005) further argues, identity is not ‘once and for all’, rather it is ‘settled provisionally and continuously, in practice, as part and parcel of shared histories and ongoing activities’ (p. 25). The claims of these researchers support the argument that professional identity is neither something which is static, nor a stable entity which can be interpreted as fixed or unitary.

Professional identity is interrelated with the ways in which teachers respond to externally-imposed reform agendas (Day, 2002). The way teachers respond to these initiatives is principally determined by whether teachers perceive their professional identities as being supported or threatened by these reforms. Helsby (1999), in a study of secondary schools, found some evidence for this claim by revealing that teachers’ professional identities, in which their ideologies, values and beliefs were embedded, were challenged by educational reform mandates. However, this relationship between teachers’ professional identity and teachers’ response to change has not been the subject of extensive research. The success of any reform attempt is highly dependent on the extent to which these movements challenge teachers’ existing professional identity; therefore, gaining an understanding of teachers' identity is an important contributor to the successful implementation of an educational reform. It is evident, though, that reform designers often relegate teachers' professional identity during the development of educational reform programmes as a factor related to the enactment and success of the reform, thereby challenging professionalism between teachers (Day, 2002; van Veen, Sleegers and van de Ven, 2005).
3.2.1 Constructs of professional identity

External reform mandates underpinned by neo-liberal ideologies have been criticised for having a profound impact on teachers’ professional identity (Tang, 2011). Therefore, understanding teachers’ professional identity during changing times has implications for all stakeholders because this notion affects both ‘ability and willingness to cope with educational change and to implement innovations in their own teaching practice’ (Beijaard, Verloop and Vermunt, 2000, p. 750).

Five constructs (Figure 3) have been identified through my critical reading of related literature. I performed preliminary Scopus and Web of Science searches, resulting in 1007 hits featuring ‘Professional identity’ and ‘Teacher identity’ in the title within the field of social sciences. In addition, I performed the same keyword search in the library catalogue of the University of Manchester, resulting in 127 hits. After examining the abstracts of this material and their lists of references I collected in total 1221 articles and books. The thorough and critical evaluation of this material led to the identification and development of a list of 505 books and articles pertaining to my topic. Following this process, this list was analysed to define professional identity and the constructs related to this definition. This process enabled me to identify the main themes and create a conceptual schema with respect to the notion of professional identity.

The identified five constructs constitute the indicators of professional identity, which, at a time of reform, are continuously negotiated and challenged. The development of this conceptual framework will contribute to the investigation of my research questions, which refer to the ways in which teachers describe and understand their sense of professional identity as well as the ways in which professional identity is being affected by educational reforms and the implications of their practices.
3.2.1.1 Emotions

The concept of emotions has gained substantial attention in educational research since the mid-1990s (Hargreaves, 1998; Nias, 1996). Emotional reactions are clearly related to professional identity as ‘it is through our subjective emotional world that we develop our personal constructs and meanings of our outer realities and make sense of our relationships and eventually our place in the wider world’ (Day, 2002, p. 685). Even though numerous studies explored teachers’ emotions with respect to their work (van den Berg, 2002), little research has investigated teachers’ emotions in relation to the current educational reforms (O’Connor, 2008; Reio, 2005; Sutton and Wheatley, 2003) and how these emotions are embedded in and formed by reforms, affect teachers’ professional identity and have implications for their practices.

Large-scale reform programmes can be emotionally debilitating, and it is therefore important in this study to examine teachers’ emotions in the light of sense-making about reform as they facilitate or hinder teachers’ efforts to conceptualise the reform agenda, as well as having both positive and negative influences on their professional identity. Especially in changing times, a high level of emotions may have a considerable impact upon teachers’ professional identity (van Veen and Sleegers, 2006). Hargreaves (2004) characterises the relationship between change and emotions as reciprocal by highlighting that ‘there is no human change without emotion and there is no emotion that does not embody a momentary or momentous process of change’ (p. 287). Externally-
imposed reform innovations provoke several emotional reactions, as the reform may not correspond to teachers’ ideologies, values and professional perspectives. These emotional reactions can both be affected and affect teachers’ sense of professional identity (Day, 2002; Kelchtermans, 2005; van Veen, Sleegers and van de Ven, 2005); there are therefore significant implications in the study of emotions for conceptualising teacher identity.

While teachers play a crucial role in the enactment of education policies, teachers’ emotions are frequently neglected and disregarded (Bailey, 2000) during the development of reform programmes. If reformers neglect the emotional side of educational reforms, teachers’ emotions can affect in a detrimental way the entire process. Teachers’ diverse interpretations of policy agendas, particularly those emerging from previous experiences and knowledge, may lead to varied emotions. Schmidt and Datnow’s (2005) work on the emotions of approximately 75 teachers in California and Florida as they experienced various comprehensive school reforms depicted that teachers developed their professional identities by embracing or resisting educational innovations, and that provision of emotional support is important. Teachers’ emotional reactions towards educational innovations affect their risk-taking and identity development when threatened by the uncertainty and ambiguity of change (Reio, 2005).

Lasky (2005), in her longitudinal mixed-method study, perceived vulnerability as a multidimensional and complex emotional reaction ignited by critical incidents which result in teachers’ feeling as if they have ‘no direct control over factors that affect their immediate context, or feel they are being ‘forced’ to act in ways that are inconsistent with their core beliefs and values’ (p. 4).

Emotions reflect teachers’ inherent professional orientations, whereas mandated large-scale reforms are inclined to impose different normative beliefs (Kelchtermans, 2005). Therefore, teachers’ emotional responses to change vary depending on the level of congruence between the imposed reforms and teachers’ values and beliefs. Teachers who experience incongruence will respond more negatively, searching for ‘escape’
routes or seeking ways of safeguarding their professional self as they consider their beliefs and values, professional orientations, background and expertise to be seriously threatened by the rhetoric of change. But those who experience congruence are more likely to react more positively (Bolívar and Domingo, 2006; van Veen and Sleegers, 2006).

School reforms are recognised to be a challenging and demanding process for teachers. Therefore, designers of reform agendas should take into serious consideration teachers’ emotions and underlying professional orientations, as well as providing adequate and meaningful support to teachers as they are the ones who put into practice the policy reforms (Lee and Yin, 2010).

3.2.1.2 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been an area of intense interest for researchers in the educational field as it is closely associated with teachers’ professional identity (Day, 2002; Day et al., 2007; Evans, 2000). Educational reforms, especially those being forwarded in schools without engaging teachers in their development, could unavoidably exert great pressure on teachers to change their teaching practices and thus have a major impact on their satisfaction. Therefore, examining how teacher satisfaction is shaped, displayed and managed is important because it can determine the success of educational reforms in school systems.

The term ‘job satisfaction’ is multi-dimensional and dynamic in nature (Evans, 1997; Karavas, 2010). Its complexity and multiplicity derives from the fact that there is no consensus regarding the definition of this construct. Many researchers have attempted to develop a definition of what constitutes job satisfaction within different perspectives. It has been argued that this construct is related to teachers’ emotional liaison with their teaching role and is regarded as a function of the alleged relationship between what teachers seek from teaching and what they conceptualise that it is offering to them.
In a similar mode, Faragher, Cass and Cooper (2005) conceptualise job satisfaction as the positive emotional response and attitude an individual has towards their occupation. In a broader sense, Dinham and Scott (1998) argue that job satisfaction 'is an indicator of the degree of need fulfilment experienced by an individual' (p. 363) through work. From these definitions, it is generally agreed that the work setting plays the most important role in predicting the overall satisfaction and that teachers' feelings, attitudes, and reactions constitute the main elements of this construct.

Research on teachers' job satisfaction has identified three domains which have an impact upon job satisfaction: the actual teaching practice, the conditions in which they work at the school level and the wider domain of society and the system (Dinham and Scott, 2000). Increased levels of job satisfaction have been found to positively affect the quality of education, commitment, student performance and achievement, and the process of educational reforms. On the other hand, low levels of job satisfaction lead to decreased commitment, inability to meeting pupils' needs and the creation of psychological disarrays such as absenteeism and stress (Day, 2002; Hargreaves, 1994; Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006).

Teachers' job satisfaction is highly related to quality and growth education and it is a crucial aspect of educational policy as it contributes in ‘attracting and retaining well-motivated and capable teachers’ (Cockburn and Haydn, 2004, p. 1). However, this construct has been found to be critically neglected by reform designers during the developments of an educational reform agenda. There is therefore a growing need for this construct to be taken into account by reform Advisers, as teachers are not technical implementers of externally imposed reforms but professionals with complex needs that need to be addressed.
3.2.1.3 Professional commitment

Teachers’ professional commitment has been identified as one of the most crucial factors of identity, and it contributes to the success of educational reform agendas. This construct influences teachers’ ability to react to the reform demands and has a considerable impact upon teachers’ willingness to actively engage in collaborative, reflective and critical practice. It is also closely linked to teachers’ ability to innovate and integrate new ideas into their own teaching practices (Tsui and Cheng, 1999). Teachers who are committed hold firm to the belief that they can make a difference in their pupils’ school lives, through who they are as teachers (professional identity), their skills and teaching strategies (professional knowledge) and the ways they teach (professional ideologies, beliefs and values) (Day, 2008).

The investigation into commitment is important as a means of further conceptualising the connotations of being a teacher (Day and Gu, 2007) in different policy and social contexts at a time of major change. It has also been argued that commitment contributes to the understanding of teachers’ professional identities (Ball and Goodson, 1985; Nias, 1989) as it is linked with the professional characteristics of a teacher (Crosswell, 2006). Teacher commitment is important because it is a crucial factor in quality education, students’ achievement, retention and teachers’ abilities to enact on reform agendas (Day, 2008).

Teachers’ professional commitment often refers to the anticipated attributes of a teacher as well as the conscious and subconscious choices of teachers regarding their willingness to invest in the particular context in which they work. It represents both cognitive and emotional investment; it is neither fixed nor static; it is primarily influenced by teachers’ sense of identity and professional life stage, and is situated in personal moral purposes, professional interests and the micro-political, emotional, social and political setting of work (Crosswell, 2006; Day et al., 2007). Furthermore, this construct is considered as both external and internal, and this is depicted in the literature that links
this construct to school organisations (Tsui and Cheng, 1999), students, the teaching profession, professional knowledge and career continuance (Day, 2000; Nias, 1981; Tyree, 1996) as well as to values, ideologies and beliefs (Crosswell, 2006).

Previous research studies have indicated that teachers’ commitment to their work is reinforced when teachers are able to see the link between their professional identity and the strategies of their school. In a reform context, teachers have been found to experience disappointment, which can diminish commitment to their profession (Little and Bartlett, 2002). However, even during demanding external reforms, some teachers manage to find space to manoeuvre within a highly controlling work setting and find ways to preserve their professional commitment (Day, 2004).

During times of educational reform, teachers are required to invest time and energy into successfully interpreting reform ideas and transforming them into effective practice. Therefore, teachers need adequate and meaningful support for their professional commitment if they are to engage within the intellectual, pedagogical and scholarly demands prescribed in governmental reform agendas (Day, 2008).

3.2.1.4 Professional autonomy

The importance of teacher autonomy in research and practice is recognised by many researchers who argue that autonomy is the key to better teaching (Biesta, 2009) and implementation of reforms (Imants and van Veen, 2010). This construct can act as a prognosticator of the ways in which teachers cope with changes within schools, as well as an indicator of teachers’ willingness to be supportive towards change directives (Common, 1983). Nevertheless, even though professional autonomy is a fundamental aspect of teachers’ lives and an important requirement of quality education, van Veen (2008) highlighted the increasing absence of teacher autonomy as a result of neo-liberal education policies, which have been found to de-professionalise teachers, undermine teachers’ autonomy and inhibit the quality of teaching.
Professional autonomy is a dynamic notion, which is open and sensitive to external and internal pressures, and critical to any initiatives of policy enactment and success. External change mandates influence what it means to be a teacher at a time of change. This change in teachers’ professional identity represents ‘the struggle over the teacher’s soul’ (Ball, 2003, p. 217), which can erode teachers’ autonomy hence having a profound impact on identity (Troman, 2008). In a changing context, the enactment of policy reforms is profoundly mediated by the meaning that teachers search for and attach to these innovations. This search presumes both a certain level of teacher autonomy within the work context (Ballet and Kelchtermans, 2008) as well as an adequate space for teachers to make important decisions about the conduct of their work. Hence, professional autonomy is an inherent part of teachers’ professional lives; however, it has been repeatedly contested and challenged, especially during changing times.

This contestation leads to the relativity of teachers’ autonomy, which has been pointed out by many researchers. When teachers are controlled by external policy mandates, their relative autonomy means that they retain the ability to make a number of choices and even challenge the intentions of the reform designers, yet this autonomy is only relative and their choices are limited and influenced by a range of external structural and cultural factors (Helsby, 1999). The relativeness of teachers’ autonomy was also previously argued for by Hoyle (1974), who wrote that curriculum autonomy of teachers was always relative and that teachers exercised limited control over the context of their work and in their classrooms. More recently, Gewirtz et al. (2009) have tried to explain this relativeness by stating that it seems that ‘autonomy is increasingly only allowed to be exercised within tight limits that are determined by what policymakers believe to be in the interests of narrowly defined notions of educational success’ (p. 7).

During educational restructuring and the development of new policy directives, stakeholders should encourage greater teacher professional autonomy in educational reform and school policy, and promote teacher engagement in decision-making processes. Teachers should have the opportunity to make their own choices regarding
teaching, learning and evaluation processes, opportunities for collegial collaboration and
discussion. Debates on school issues should be promoted along with the development of
necessary structures that will provide an optimal level of support permitting for teacher
voice (Raya, 2007). Moreover, teachers should exercise their professional autonomy to
formulate professional discussions among peers regarding reform policy and determine
best teaching practices.

3.2.1.5 Professional confidence

Professional confidence is another construct influencing professional identity (Day et al.,
2007) and is defined as the belief of teachers in their power and ability to make important
decisions about the way they work. It is considered as a significant construct that
encourages teachers to impose their own interpretations on educational policies (Helsby,
1995) and gives the opportunity to practitioners to balance externally imposed demands
and their professional priorities to take advantage of their ‘remaining’ professional
autonomy (Osgood, 2006).

Professional confidence is an attribute of teachers who feel in control of their work and
have the ability to act as active agents in developing educational policy, becoming
policymakers in action (Croll et al., 1994). Helsby (1999) argues that:

the confident teacher has a sense of being able to manage the tasks
in hand rather than being driven by them. Instead of crisis
management, corner-cutting and ill-considered coping strategies, they
are able to reflect upon, and make conscious choices between,
alternative courses of action and can feel that they are doing ‘a good
job’ (p. 173).

Professional confidence is a key feature in the capacity to deal with change, both in
terms of one’s professional skills and knowledge and more broadly as an individual
(Osborn, 2008). Externally imposed educational reforms have a significant impact upon
the professional confidence of the majority of the teacher population and consequently
on their competence to maintain control in their working settings. Teachers who manage
to overcome the pressures of continuous transformations of curricula are those whose confidence is not only undiminished but in some cases even boosted by these policy reforms. On the contrary, teachers who feel overwhelmed with externally-imposed innovation and consequently experience an erosion of confidence do not manage to cope with the new conditions in the school setting (Osborn et al., 2000).

Teachers respond to central reform policies in various ways, as ‘educational reforms are subject to a complex process of interpretation and reinterpretation by the teachers who implement them’ (Schmidt and Datnow, 2005, p. 952). Bowe, Ball with Gold (1992) argue that the variations of teachers’ responses to reforms depend greatly on whether teachers choose to treat policy texts as instructional manuals with limited scope for creativity or deviance, or as recommended teaching strategies which are open to interpretation and adaptation. A vital factor in teachers’ choices is their level of professional confidence (Helsby, 1995). Transformative educational reform is more likely to occur when teachers respond to these policy agendas in a creatively-mediated way. These creative responses have to be supported by a defensible theory and philosophy of education and guided by professional confidence (Proudford, 1998). Teachers with high levels of professional confidence tend to challenge dominant policy discourses, question them more critically and find spaces in which to exercise appropriate professional judgments instead of reacting passively to the latest externally-imposed policy mandates.

Professional confidence needs adequate time to be developed but it can be easily damaged by government reform policies that are extensive and place great demands upon teachers’ professional lives. A key factor in supporting teachers’ professional confidence and defining the level of proactivity in reacting to externally-imposed reform initiatives is the provision of access to meaningful professional development opportunities. There is an increased awareness that teachers’ confidence can be significantly improved by an effective CPD scheme that improves their knowledge and skills. In this way, teachers’ confidence can be enhanced and teachers will therefore be
able to overcome any structural constraints and become a confident workforce, playing an important role in improving education during changing times (Helsby, 1999).

3.3 Professional identity and practice

Current reforms in the directives of educational systems in Europe generate a powerful policy discourse in which a special focus on the market, managerialism and performativity is applied to regulate teachers’ professional practice and schools’ progress (Ball, 2003; Day and Gu, 2007). The main questions raised when change takes place in educational systems are how teachers respond to changes in their work setting, how teachers change and what makes them change or resist the reform processes.

Acknowledging that teachers are not the technical learners of curriculum content or new techniques of teaching but social learners enables us to give attention not just to their ability to change but also their willingness. The deep understanding of teachers’ yearnings for change offers valuable insights into how educational reform can be developed most efficiently, as well as what should be altered and what should be preserved.

Recent literature on teacher education highlights that professional identity is highly related to how teachers respond to educational reforms (Day, Flores and Viana, 2007), as externally-imposed reform agendas greatly influence teachers’ professional identities and consequently their practices. Day (2002) has argued that the extent to which educational reforms are accepted, enacted, adjusted and sustained highly depends on the extent to which they contest existing identities. Professional identity is formed through the ongoing interaction between teachers and their work setting. How teachers perceive and understand the outcome of this interaction is mirrored in their changing levels of job satisfaction, professional commitment, confidence, emotions and autonomy. When these constructs are negotiated, challenged and contested, teachers are less
likely to actively engage with the reform process, proceed with its enactment and make changes to their existing practices.

As the literature shows, there is a need to understand the complexity and interrelationship between the underpinning constructs of professional identity (Canrinus et al., 2012). I am therefore establishing a conceptual framework around identity which will assist me in shaping an empirical approach to explore the complexities of teachers’ working lives through their accounts, observations, documentary evidence and questionnaires. The ways in which teachers shape their identity are of great importance in conceptualising teachers’ practices (Ball and Goodson, 1985). Consequently, it is necessary to examine the realities of teachers’ professional lives at a time of change, as well as what it means for a teacher to face new curricula, new resources, deal with concerns about training, engage with matters of practice and make decisions on them.

In order to really understand these five constructs as they are lived in reality by teachers, I need to conceptualise the stories they tell, how they understand themselves, what meanings they attach to their practices, how their identities are shaped and contested by structures, and how they deal with tensions, contradictions and conflicts. Holland and Lave (2001) argue that all individuals are historically-related; therefore, it is important to understand how teachers came to this reform through their previous experiences. Drawing on Thomson’s (2002) metaphor for children about virtual school bags, I would like to suggest that teachers bring their own virtual professional bag. Teachers come to conceptualise, interpret and adapt an educational reform agenda through the lens of their pre-existing knowledge, ideas, experiences and practices, while being influenced by the structural conditions of their workplace (Coburn, 2005; Spillane, 1999). Teachers are not naïve implementers of policy messages but instead carry their own histories, experiences, values and ideas, and have a deep interest in the meaning of reform agendas (Bowe, Ball, with Gold, 1992).
In the 1970s, Eric Hoyle (1974) talked about extended and restricted practices whereby a teacher with an ‘extended’ professional identity experiences high levels of job satisfaction, autonomy, confidence, commitment, has positive emotions towards an educational reform and – based on her/his history, experience, knowledge and values – interprets and enacts policy. On the contrary, a teacher with a ‘restricted’ professional identity experiences the exact opposite and distance her/himself from policy interpretation and enactment. These types of practices have received a revival of interest by many researchers, particularly from Evans (1998, 2011), who used the term ‘professionality orientation’ to showcase teachers’ professional position on a restricted and extended continuum. Professionality orientation is another important aspect of teachers’ professional identity and I will explore this concept below so that in chapter five I will be able place the four teachers of the ethnographic case study on this continuum based on my research findings on the underpinning constructs of teachers’ professional identity.

Hoyle’s seminal typology of ‘restricted’ and ‘extended’ professionality represents a continuum of practice and service-oriented professional skills and attitudes. The formulation of this continuum is steered by certain suppositions about the content of teachers’ work and a belief that teachers should exert control over their practices by strengthening the base of professional learning. Broadfoot et al. (1988) conceptualised the importance of investigating teachers’ professionality orientations as the most significant part of defining what teachers do. They claimed that all stakeholders involved in policy changes should investigate teachers’ ideologies and that a failure ‘to take them into account [is likely to result in] widespread resentment, a lowering of morale, and, with it, a reduced effectiveness’ (p. 283).

With the term professionality, Hoyle (1980) echoes a wider concern regarding the impact of external imposition on teachers’ professional practice and the extent to which, within a setting of constraints and limitations, teachers can exercise agency in their working settings. Broadfoot et al. (1988), in their comparative study of primary school teachers in
France and England, suggested a relationship between the working setting and teachers’ professional orientation. As they claimed, the ‘context within which teachers work deeply influences their professional ideology, their perceptions of their professional responsibility, and the way in which they carry out their day to day work’ (p. 265).

In a restricted orientation teachers give emphasis only on the classroom setting and on their immediate responsibilities. Restricted professionals depend on their experience and intuition rather than theory. As Hoyle (1980) asserted, ‘the good restricted professional is sensitive to the development of individual pupils, an inventive teacher, and a skilful class manager. He is unencumbered with theory, is not given to comparing his work with that of others, tends not to perceive his classroom activities in a broader context, and values his classroom autonomy’ (p. 43). In the extended orientation teachers are dedicated at both the micro and macro level of the school setting and actively engage with educational issues and practices. An extended professional shows a genuine interest in theory underpinning pedagogy and current educational developments, reading journal articles and educational books, considers their teaching practice an amendable process on the basis of reflection, exploration and advancement and adopts an intellectual stance with respect to the job.

3.4 Summary

In this chapter I examined the notion of teacher professional identity and its five underpinning constructs. I argued that professional identity develops and changes over time in response to social context, as it is highly dependent upon a number of personal and contextual factors. I will structure and report my fieldwork based on this initial conceptualisation of teachers’ professional identity. In the following chapters, I proceed with an investigation of what is happening with these constructs at a time of major curriculum reform in Cyprus and I identify the factors that have a considerable impact upon them and consequently identity, as well as the implications for teachers’ practices. Following this, the conceptual framework which was set up in this chapter will be
extended in light of my research findings, aiming at enhancing the understanding of the complex notion of professional identity.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

In chapter three I addressed the main conceptual ideas that my research fieldwork is based on. Chapter four is an account of the methodological issues I encountered and procedures I pursued in fulfilling the objectives of this research project. First, I will present the research methodology undertaken to meet my research goals along with the underlying ontological and epistemological perspectives. Following this, the background information about the methods adopted and the strategies employed for the selection of the participants will be provided for each level. A discussion concerning the development of the data collection instruments along with the procedures of data analysis follows. Finally, I will expound upon research integrity issues raised during the research study, as well as matters concerning validity, reliability and trustworthiness.

4.2 Research methodology

This research is a case study on the notion of teachers’ professional identities, which was investigated within real-life settings in schools, utilising multiple sources of evidence (Figure 4) to obtain a thick description of the case (Robson, 2002; Yin, 2003).
The research study is positioned and designed in such way that it draws on the strengths of both interpretivist and positivist traditions. Interpretivism is the chief methodological basis for this study in the sense that it relies on the production of qualitative data through observations, interviews and documents. Drawing on Goodson (1997), who argues that treating the understanding of teachers’ stories and narratives as a form of investigation gives the opportunity to get a deeper insight into teachers’ professional lives and practices, I had chosen to gather the accounts of four teachers and observe them in their professional environment. This was important, as it provided a respected range of perspectives on recent government initiatives to restructure the education system and introduce new policy guidelines, and offered insights which set teachers’ professional lives within the deeply structural setting of schooling (Goodson, 1994).

Nevertheless, I also rely on positivism as I recognise that there is an objective knowledge that is created through the use of survey work. I therefore utilise questionnaires in order to relate the accounts of the four teachers (micro level) to the experiences of a broader population of 308 primary school teachers, which takes the case to the next level (meso level) and obtains information about the attitudes and understandings of a broader group of teachers. Finally, the case is set to a national
context (macro level) by looking at the documents and the curriculum coordinators’ perceptions regarding teachers’ professional lives and the education policy reform.

By adopting this kind of methodology, I was able to collect ‘strong in reality’ data (Adelman, Kemmis and Jenkins, 1980; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007) and provide insights into teachers’ professional identities. More importantly, the case study methodology enabled me to capture to a greater extent the ‘buzz’ of teachers’ real life experiences than any other kind of methodology, and aided the investigation of unexpected and unusual aspects that could otherwise have been excluded in an effort to identify common patterns and themes in the data (Hodkinson and Hodkinson, 2001).

The main reason for employing mixed methods was that the majority of research undertaken into teachers’ professional identities was based mainly on surveys and interviews, and focused on secondary teachers (Appendix 1). In contrast, this study concentrated on primary teachers and utilised methods such as observations and documentary evidence, interviews and questionnaires. I made the decision to take this approach in light of Denzin’s (1988) advice, who stated that, ‘by combining multiple observers, theories, methods, and data sources, [researchers] can hope to overcome the intrinsic bias that comes from single-methods, single-observer, and single theory studies’ (p. 307). I therefore employed mixed methods to offset the limitations of using either method exclusively (Blake, 1989), increase the construct validity of the research project (Yin, 2003) and generate a deeper knowledge which will be useful to any individual who makes policy decisions about education (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989), thus providing a holistic understanding and resulting in the development of better-informed educational policies.

The conducting of this case study was challenging and stimulating. First of all, a vast amount of data was generated during the fieldwork, including interview transcripts, policy documents, observation sheets, circulars, teaching material and statistics. To avoid becoming overwhelmed by the amount of information collected, I was constantly
reviewing my research aims and questions in order to be methodical, effective and efficient, and refrain from researching anything unrelated to the study. Additionally, sufficient preparation in advance played a crucial role in the successful documenting, classifying, organising, storing and retrieving of data for analysis.

As Goodson (1997) has suggested, research data is collected within a specific social context located in a specific time and space; the outcomes of this study were pertinent to the Cypriot educational context. The suitable generalisation of the findings was, therefore, a challenge. However, the wider applicability of the conclusions drawn here to other countries is certainly plausible, especially after careful data analysis and research.

The case study proved to be time-consuming, particularly in the areas of collecting and analysing the data. If attempted on a large scale, the case study could be very expensive, indeed prohibitively so. Therefore, I focused my data collection on schools in the district of Nicosia, the capital of Cyprus. The close proximity of primary schools in Nicosia enabled me to limit the costs of the research study and manage my time effectively.

Furthermore, another challenge facing the study was the potential unpopularity of its findings, either from the perspectives of reform designers or other stakeholders. I acknowledge that this audience are more likely to find reasons to challenge the credibility of the outcomes either by making claims about the sample, researcher bias or the transferability of this study. Therefore, in this thesis I am ensuring I provide adequate and sufficient evidence from the data in order to support the stories of the participants who agreed to participate in this study and make my judgements as transparent as possible with respect to sampling, research methods, research integrity and any other aspect of the research process. In addition to this, in order to enhance the reliability of the investigated case, a range of precautions were taken and are systematically explained throughout this chapter.
4.3 Research design

The research design is explained in this section by presenting the methods used at the micro, meso and macro levels and concentrates on the sampling procedures and events that took place during each level. Figure 5 summarises the aforementioned information:

- Micro:
  - Semi-structured interviews
  - Non-Participant observations
  - Documentary evidence
  - Four primary school teachers
  - Headteacher

- Meso:
  - Questionnaires
  - 308 primary school teachers

- Macro:
  - Semi-structured interviews
  - Documentary evidence
  - Two government officials

Figure 5: Methods and sample used in each level of the research study

The research methods employed in this study were all connected to the five constructs which were set and explained in chapter three. Specifically, the interview questions, the observation schedules and the development of the questionnaires were created based on areas identified in the literature review which both initiated the development of my conceptual framework presented in Figure 3 and enabled the investigation of the notion of professional identity. The aforementioned methods and the collection of documentary evidence will be utilised to examine during changing times the underpinning constructs of professional identity – teachers’ emotions, job satisfaction, professional commitment, professional confidence and professional autonomy – as well as to investigate the ways in which contextual and professional factors influence these constructs and the implications for teachers’ practices.
4.3.1 Micro level

The main purpose of the micro level was to explore four teachers’ real lives, witness what happens in their working lives, listen to what is said, get a feeling of their anxieties, emotions and concerns regarding the new reforms, ask questions regarding teachers’ professional autonomy, job satisfaction, professional commitment and professional confidence as well as gather any necessary documents in order to cast some light on the issues under investigation. The micro level is based on data from in-depth semi-structured interviews and non-participant observations of four teachers from a rural primary school in the district of Nicosia, as well as from documentary evidence. The next sections present the procedures I followed in order to recruit these four teachers with different ages, years of experience, posts and qualifications, as well as the development of the research instruments employed in this level of the research study.

4.3.1.1 Sample

The sampling procedures conducted in micro and meso level are interlinked, as the ethnography school was one of the 29 cluster-randomly selected schools that I was given access to present my research to and recruit research participants from (see meso level sample). When I visited each of the 29 schools, I had ten minutes to give an overall picture of my research to the teachers, explain what contribution I expected from them, as well as how important it was to find a school that would accept my presence for an extended period of time during which I would interview and observe a number of teachers, witness what happens, ask questions regarding the investigated topics and collect any necessary documentation. The headteachers of these 29 schools were given two weeks’ notice to decide whether they wished to accommodate the ethnographic part of the research study as well. After two weeks, I followed up with each of the schools and only one headteacher from a rural primary school in Nicosia, which for the purposes of this study will be called ‘Olive Tree Primary School’, signified her willingness to accommodate the needs of my research study.
In order to find the sub-sample which would be interviewed and observed for four periods over a year, a purposive sampling technique was employed. This kind of strategy involves the selection of units ‘based on a specific purpose rather than randomly’ (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003, p. 713). In order to proceed with the selection of participants, Phaedra, the headteacher of the Olive Tree Primary School, invited all the teaching personnel to the common room, giving me the opportunity to have a discussion with them about the criteria my sub-sample should fulfil.

Teachers in Cyprus move around and there are only a few instances of long service in a particular school; they rarely stay more than six years in a particular school and they never stay more than eight years. It was therefore important to find a number of teachers who would commit to staying in that school during the period May 2011 to June 2012. It was also vital to recruit teachers with different years of teaching experience (early-career, mid-career and late-career), posts (teacher and deputy-headteacher) and degrees (graduate and postgraduate) in order to represent a broader group of cases as closely as possible and to make comparisons among these different types of cases. Teachers’ participation with demographic characteristics gave the opportunity to investigate whether there were any correlations between them and teachers’ responses with respect to the areas under investigation.

Six teachers matched the aforementioned characteristics and four of them (Table 2) volunteered to be observed and interviewed four times over a year. All names, including those of individuals and the school, are pseudonyms. The headteacher of the school also agreed to be interviewed twice, once before the implementation of the reform and once a year after, as it was important to obtain information about the context in which this research study was conducted, as well as her views on teachers and the curriculum reform.
<table>
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<th>Post Held</th>
<th>Years of Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Highest Degree Held</th>
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<td>59</td>
<td>Head</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Table 2: The table depicts the sample of the micro level of the research project

The Olive Tree Primary School is located in the south of Nicosia, the capital city of the Republic of Cyprus, and serves the entire primary age range from six to twelve. Due to ever-increasing numbers of students the school has been extended four times; the school currently operates with twelve classrooms, three laboratories (Home Economics, Design and Technology, Art and Science), a multipurpose hall, a library, a small clinic room, a canteen and storage facilities. There are two fields with premix surfaces (basketball, volleyball and handball) and a large football stadium. Currently, the enrolment is between 170 and 200 students and 20 teachers.

4.3.1.2 Research methods

4.3.1.2.1. Interviews

The main purpose of this research tool was to examine teachers' professional identity during changing times, from the point of view of the interviewees and to conceptualise the ways in which they have developed particular perspectives towards the reform and why. Through this method teachers became more engaged in the research process as they were given a voice and therefore were more motivated. The flexibility of interviews enabled me to follow up issues that emerged during the interview, explore and investigate for supplementary information (Bell, 2005), interact with teachers and discuss
incidents that took place in the past and open up a gate of useful and in-depth information that was not reachable with the use of any other method.

Semi-structured interviews, comprised of open-ended questions, were employed as they offered a greater autonomy in the sequencing of inquiries and in the amount of time that was devoted to different areas of the researched topic (Howitt and Cramer, 2011). Moreover, face to face interviews were preferred in order to be able to capture the interviewees' first instant reaction to the question which revealed what was topmost on their mind (Oppenheim, 1992).

An interview agenda was prepared which was adequately open-ended to permit the themes of discussion to be rearranged and expanded, for new issues to be included and further probing to be utilised. This type of schedule allowed me to change the wording and sequence of the questions and add some probing questions, to examine in more depth interesting themes that emerged during the interview. Moreover, prompts were used to encourage the teachers to elucidate certain topic as well as to indicate my interest and understanding with respect to what the interviewee was saying (Patton, 2002). The interview agendas did not follow the same sequence with every participant. They shared, however, the same structure because they included the topic under investigation, the purpose, possible questions for each area of discussion and a series of prompts and probes (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007).

Interview is a social reciprocal encounter, not merely a data collection method. Therefore, prior the conduct of the interview process I created a comfortable, secure and collaborative environment in which participants felt relaxed and comfy to answer the questions (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007). My values, beliefs and opinions on particular topics were not revealed and I avoided being judgemental. My role as the interviewer was to avert any meaningless rambling without being disrespectful, to ensure that all the issues have been covered thoroughly, make use of an understandable language and encourage participants to share their account by speaking freely and openly (Howitt and
Cramer, 2011). I minimised any possible distractions such as telephone calls or interruptions from other individuals and I avoided sending signs of disagreement or agreement as well as providing the respondent with adequate time to answer my questions.

At the micro level, six schedules were prepared, one for each interview with the four teachers (Appendix 2.5) and two for the headteacher (Appendix 3.5). All interview schedules were piloted to detect and remedy a number of possible problems (Appendix 4.1). Each teacher was invited to be interviewed four times during a year (Appendix 2.1, 2.3). Specifically, in June 2011 before the introduction of the reform in public primary schools, in September 2011 when the reform was introduced in schools, in January 2012 and in June 2012, a year later in order to capture changes in their professional lives. In total eighteen interviews were conducted at the micro level.

Teachers’ interview schedules consisted of the main areas I aimed to cover during the interview process. Specifically, teachers shared accounts about their emotions towards educational reform, professional commitment, job satisfaction, networking, professional confidence, professional autonomy, training with respect to the reform, and participation into decision-making procedures. These areas were examined through four periods of time during my visits at the school aiming at the examination of the ways in which teachers’ professional lives are changing or remaining the same as major curriculum reform is taking place.

The headteacher of the school was invited (Appendix 3.1, 3.3) to be interviewed at the start and at the end of the project in order to gain more information about the context in which this study was conducted. At the first phase, in May 2011, the headteacher was asked questions about the history of the school, the upcoming curriculum reform, the nature of teachers’ practices, teachers’ professional identity and the training and support teachers received. At the final phase, we discussed the same topics as in May 2011, in
order to identify any changes as a result of the introduction of the externally imposed reform.

The interview agenda was modified during the four phases of the research process. After each phase the interviews were transcribed and a preliminary analysis was taken place. This led to the emergence of new elements that needed to be explored and therefore they were included in the next interview schedule. The last schedule which had a reflective character seemed to be more effective as it offered the opportunity to reflect on the issues that we have discussed over a year but also cover issues that have not been mentioned at an earlier phase. Each interview lasted approximately fifty minutes and was conducted within the school during normal school hours, in a reserved room or an empty classroom, which provided privacy and eased the recording process.

Emphasis was given to the meanings of each term used by each participant rather than the etymological comparability (dictionary order of words) of those terms. For example, school-based training terms were used by the participants but two of them gave a different meaning than the others. Therefore, I was aware of the etymological variability and I was trying to conceptualise what the participant meant by what s/he was saying. A technique I used to obtain thorough and detailed account was to indicate unawareness. By expressing that I was not aware of the situation, I encouraged the participants to share their insights into inherent suppositions and beliefs. Another technique used to encourage participants to elaborate more was to ask the interviewees to provide me with an example of the abstract conceptions they were referring to (Willig, 2008). For instance, having heard from the interviewees that they were not treated as professionals, I asked for an example of when they felt this way and how they dealt with it. At the end, I went through the answers in summary to check the accuracy of my understanding of teachers’ views and perceptions on the investigated concepts (White, 2000) and I expressed my gratitude to the interviewees for their participation.
Nonetheless, interviews proved to have some drawbacks. Specifically, the data collection tools used were time consuming to set up: namely interviewing, transcribing, analysing, feedback and reporting. The interviews were recorded and a considerable amount of time was dedicated to transcribe the interview information and to analyse it at a later stage (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). Due to lack of time and resources a relatively small number of individuals, representative of the targeted population, were interviewed. Despite the fact that the interviewing process provided access to situations and events where I was not present, it did not provide access into what teachers actually do (Darlington and Scott, 2002); this is why other methods such as observation and documentary analysis needed to be employed.

Another restraint was the incapability of the analysis of the interview data to be generalised to the larger population as in quantitative research (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). However, this generalisation was addressed with the use of the questionnaires at the meso level of this thesis. The role of interviews in this research was to provide breadth and depth of teachers’ professional identity at an era of educational change. Furthermore, the use of words that I used could have different meanings for the interviewees than they did for me and vice versa (Gall, Borg, and Gall, 1996). The interview agenda was formed in a way so that the questions would have the same meanings for all participants. During the interview process, I made sure that the participants understood each question.

Access was also given to the research protocol and to transcripts and this helped to minimise the threat of misunderstanding and misinterpretation. The issue of invalidity was resolved by comparing observational data, documentary evidence, questionnaire data and field notes or by just comparing the interviews of the participants as they had to face the same situations due to the centrality of the CES. One source of misunderstanding could also stem from the translation of the interviews. Interview schedules were developed in English and then translated into Greek. The translation was checked by another researcher who was bi-lingual and fluent in both Greek and
English. During the interviews, participants’ first language was used as a medium. Following the same process as I did with the questionnaires, the conversations were translated from Greek to English. Again, the translation process was a multi-phased process of checks and reviews with the assistance of the other researcher, who was invited to cross-check the transcripts in Greek and their translation in English in order to discover inconsistencies and errors of grammar, typography and word choice. Based on my discretion and the researcher’s comments and suggestions, the final versions of the interview transcripts were prepared.

4.3.1.2.2 Observations

Non-participant observation was used as part of the multi-method approach adopted in this study, aiming at the development of a stronger research design and more valid and reliable findings through triangulation and increased trustworthiness. During data collection, observations ran concurrently with the other research methods, permitting data from each method to be utilised to validate events, and explore emerging issues. The observation of everyday practices of the four teachers enabled me to record the nature of teachers' practices, their relationships with their colleagues, level of satisfaction, confidence and commitment, their attitudes and apparent emotions towards the change, as well as witness the sorts of training they were invited to attend. Furthermore, issues of professional autonomy and the interplay between agency and structure were also examined along with teachers’ professional practices.

Non-participant observation is commonly being used in case study research and is distinguished in overt and covert observation (Liu and Maitlis, 2010). The overt observation was preferred as I consider that every researcher should inform the participants the reason of her/his presence in the field of study and make them fully conceptualise the observer’s research purposes. The main purpose for utilising non-participant overt observation was to enter the school where the ethnographic study took place. This enabled me to observe events, activities, discussion and interactions in this
social system, aiming to create a holistic picture and gaining a deep understanding of teachers’ professional identity in its natural setting. As a non-participant observer, I adopted a clearly distinct role which deferred from that of school staff members. Specifically, my role was more distant and detached as I did not participate in any of the activities being observed. My observations constituted of three main features: watching what teachers do, listening to what is said and posing clarifying questions (Robson, 2002).

This research tool enabled me to obtain an intimate understanding of underlying meanings that would have been difficult to capture without spending considerable time in the research setting. Secondly, it allowed me to study in-depth the explored case but also gain a dynamic and vibrant picture of the four teachers. Thirdly, it offered unique contextualised insights into the naturally occurring situations and their implications on teachers’ identity. What is more, I was able to capture participants’ dynamic exchanges with their peers, parents, students and the community in general. Additionally, it provided a different type and quality of data than those gathered from questionnaires or interviews which are considered as self-reported methods. Specifically, it offered access into what people actually do and not what they say they do.

The observation process was multi-staged. Specifically, I began with a ‘descriptive observation’ during which I carried out general observation to get an overview of the research setting, the individuals, activities, events and apparent emotions. I then moved to ‘focused observation’, during which I started concentrating on the four teachers and paying attention to their activities. Finally, in the ‘selected observation’ I explored the links between the elements I had selected as being of greater interest than others (Spradley, 1979). During observations I kept a research diary in order to capture in detail what had been observed. The recording of incidents and social situations offered the opportunity to revisit and recall events that I might have forgotten. Before each phase of the study, I was reading through the notes from my previous visit in the school in order to plan more effectively my next observation and my focus. This was a challenging process
as I constantly had to reflect whether I was on board with respect to the aims and research questions and also find ways to move forward and approach the elements of interest.

Each observation included a description of the physical setting, which was the school; the ‘human setting’, which referred to the individuals who were observed; the ‘interactional setting’, which included the interactions that were taking place, including any verbal and non-verbal behaviours, and the ‘programme setting’, which encompassed the resources, their organisation, the curriculum reform, teaching and learning materials (Morrison, 1993).

The educational reform introduced in September 2011 had the intention of making change interventions in the classrooms that would require teachers to make use of ICT, make important decisions about the conduct of their work, and more actively engage the pupils in the teaching and learning process. As a result of this reform I expected to see these kinds of issues in a classroom and only the observation method would have allowed me to do so.

Two semi-structured observation schedules were prepared and piloted (Appendix 4.2). Specifically, I developed an agenda – one for the curriculum meetings (Appendix 5.5) and one for the classroom lesson (Appendix 2.6) – of what would be observed and the ways in which this would be done. The development of both observation schedules were based on the conceptual framework presented in Figure 3. The main purpose of the observations was to witness the ways in which the externally imposed reform influences teachers’ professional confidence, emotions, commitment, autonomy, and job satisfaction as well as how it affects classroom experiences, networking and collegial relationships. The information regarding these issues was collected in a less systematic way. The logic underpinning my choice of this kind of schedule was that a strict and highly structured schedule could exclude important incidents as they could not seem to be fit in any of the fixed categories. Therefore, I preferred to use a more flexible and
open-ended way to observe any contextualised social events by simply indicating the areas of interest and having a probing question for each of them that could inform my observation.

Specifically, I observed six lessons per teacher during each visit to the school. Each classroom observation lasted approximately 45 minutes during which I concentrated on the teaching process, learning environment, resources and materials, teacher and pupil interaction, actions indicating professional commitment, satisfaction, emotions, confidence and autonomy with respect to the educational reform. Furthermore, after making the necessary arrangements (Appendix 5.1, 5.3), I observed four curriculum meetings (one per visit) as it was important to capture the way, and the extent to which, teachers engaged with decision-making procedures and interacted with peers, as well as how they decided to move forward with the introduction of this major reform in their school. Each curriculum meeting observation lasted approximately one hour during which I focused on the agenda of each meeting, its nature and purpose as well as on issues related to reform. In total, 96 classroom observations and four curriculum meetings were conducted. Data sources from lesson and meeting observations using codes (Appendix 10) will be used in various stages to support the arguments that are being made.

As suggested in international literature (e.g. Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007; O'Leary, 2009), during each observation I was recording everything that took place either in the classrooms, in the common areas or in the teachers’ discussion room. I was sitting at the back and avoided any interactions with the research participants throughout each observation and at the end I withdrew from the site without interrupting. At some point I was observing what people say and do thus realising that my presence was not affecting teachers’ practices like it did in the early days of my research.

Non-participant overt observation had a number of restraints. One restraint was the observer effect, where the behaviour and actions of research participants could change
due to my presence. Despite the fact that this effect typically minimises after spending considerable amount of time at the field, it is still an innate risk (Gillham, 2000). It is always challenging to provide an objective illustration of what was observed and develop a report analysis of the social situations which is liberated from any personal values and beliefs. I did not deal with these issues by denying or overlooking them. Instead, I acknowledged the possible effect of my presence on the practices of the teachers’ participants and I fully described my position as a researcher in a previous section. A third problem, addressed by other researchers as well (Liu and Maitlis, 2010) was the problem of selectivity. I realised that it is not possible to study all the events, capture every single interaction of my research participants in a limited time period. Therefore, I aimed at observing teachers’ professional lives in as wide range of situations as possible until the situations that were observed appeared to be offering repeating information, namely, data that have already been gathered.

Another major issue with observations was that they were time-consuming. Observation was a slow process as I needed more time to get to know the research participants than asking them what they actually do. However, this was a small price to pay as these research tools allowed the cross-validation of different sources of evidence, which is a fundamental point to a case study methodology. The information retrieved from the observations was relatively difficult to organise and analyse. To address this issue, after each observation I was spending time to classify the data. Based on my experience as a researcher, memory is tricky and when time passes it tends to simplify and be more selective with respect to the observed events. As a result of this simplification, valuable information can be omitted. Therefore, I preferred to recall the collected data right after the end of this process (Willig, 2008) than do it at a later stage.

4.3.1.2.3 Documentary evidence

Towards enriching my research project with valuable information I decided to draw upon a range of documentary evidence. Documentary analysis refers to the analysis of
documents that include information about the investigated case (Bailey, 1994) and engages the use of texts and documents as resources of data: government publications, books and articles, reports and statistics include infinite written, visual and symbolic sources either in hard copy form or electronic (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) highlighted the significance of documentary sources by stating that they are key elements of the social work which are often overlooked by the researchers.

During my fieldwork, data was gathered from documentary evidence of various kinds such as classroom materials and teaching and learning materials, in order to get a deeper insight into teachers’ professional identity as well as circulars, newspapers and articles related to my investigated areas. It has to be noted that documents offered a large amount of contextualised and naturally occurring useful material when observations or interviews were not possible to be conducted or needed to be supplemented.

The collected documents proved to be important and worthwhile research instruments with a range of advantages. First of all they were easily accessible, cost-effective (Green and Browne, 2005) and offered information that would be difficult to retrieve or require an enormous amount of time or effort. Moreover, documents were contextualised and naturally occurring materials offered stability as, unlike other research methods, my presence did not affect the gathered data in any way. They were rich sources of evidence and useful for this research study as they positioned my investigation in the setting of the explored case and they supported and triangulated data from interviews, observations and questionnaires.

When collecting documents, I was mindful of what Atkinson and Coffey (2004) noted about the use of documents in a research study. Specifically, they argued that ‘documents are ‘social facts’, in that they are produced, shared and used in socially organized ways. They are not, however, transparent representations of organisational
routines, decision-making processes or professional diagnoses. They construct particular kinds of representations using their own conventions. ‘Documentary sources are not surrogates for other kinds of data’ (p. 58). For instance, a circular from the Ministry sent to the teachers regarding the training they should attend with respect to the reform does not provide any information about whether teachers attended this training session and, if they did, whether it was useful to them and in what way. Equally, I could not learn through written records how teachers worked and what their emotions were towards the educational reform. However, this recognition cannot diminish the importance of documentary data. On the contrary, every document was taken seriously and its place in the research setting was examined along with its purposes.

Every collected document served a specific purpose and audience (Yin, 2003), based on particular assumptions; therefore it was crucial to carefully evaluate the source of evidence before accepting it by using quality control criteria such as authenticity, credibility, representativeness and meaning (Scott, 1990). To determine the authenticity of each collected document, I was making sure that the material was genuine and knew who, where, when and why it was created. In order to ensure credibility and representativeness, I checked the accuracy of each document and whether it was typical of its kind respectively. Additionally, each document was checked to ascertain whether it was clear, comprehensible and if it related to my research.

### 4.3.2 Meso Level

The main purpose of the meso level was to examine, through survey, the views and attitudes of 308 teachers towards educational reform, teachers’ identity and, specifically, professional commitment, autonomy, emotions, confidence, job satisfaction, as well as issues of training and support they had received. The next sections present the procedures I followed in order to recruit these 308 teachers as well as the development of the research instrument employed in this level of the research study.
4.3.2.1 Sample

The decision about the numbers of teacher-participants was based on the need for sufficient numbers to generate valid data from a range of individuals and be able to get a sufficient sample to achieve an acceptable outcome from statistical tests within a particular level of confidence. Following Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007, p. 104), when the targeted population is approximately 1400 individuals, (Statistical Service, 2012) approximately 310 individuals should be recruited in order to have a confidence level of 95% with a confidence interval of 5%.

Cluster sampling was used in order to select the schools where the teachers would complete the questionnaire. Cluster sampling is a technique in which the population of interest is divided into groups and then a random sample of these groups is selected (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007; Teddlie and Yu, 2007). Most populations are organised in a certain way according to a number of characteristics. For example, teachers are clustered in schools which in their turn are grouped by region (Oppenheim, 1992). It would have been impractical and impossible to identify every primary school teacher in Nicosia, acknowledging that the Ministry does not print a teachers’ directory. Instead, this sampling technique was selected as it reduces the cost and it could be easily done, especially since the Ministry publishes lists of all schools in Cyprus.

The list of all primary schools in Nicosia (N= 130) provided by the MoEC was imported into Microsoft Excel 2010. A numerical value was then randomly assigned to each entry which acted as indicators to the respective schools. These indicators were then sorted, yielding a randomly arranged list of the schools. Bearing in mind that a typical school in Nicosia has approximately 18 teachers, I decided to select the first 40 schools. I would like to point out that schools in Cyprus have a strong sense of uniformity in terms of the curricula, textbooks and educational laws and because of these characteristics I was able to proceed with a random selection of the schools. However, I have looked at the
characteristics of these schools and checked that there was nothing distinctive about those I selected.

The above process gave me a starting point for opening a conversation with the headteachers in order to gain access to their schools. Specifically, I called the headteachers and I explained to them who I was and what my purposes were. During this call, I pre-arranged a meeting with the headteachers in order to have a discussion about my research study, aiming to obtain their support. Prior to our appointment, a letter was also sent to them in which I explained my project (Appendix 6.1). This gave the headteachers the opportunity to decide whether they wished to grant access to their school and contact me if they changed their mind and wanted to cancel our meeting. The headteachers of 23 schools responded positively and offered access to their school and the opportunity to talk to their teaching personnel about their possible participation in my study. The majority of the headteachers made it clear that it was up to the teachers whether they would participate in the study and they clarified that under no circumstances they would put any kind of pressure on their teaching staff.

When I visited each school and informed potential participants about my research, a two weeks’ notice was given to them to decide whether they wished to engage in the research process or not. After two weeks, I went back to the schools and I asked the teachers to designate their willingness to participate in the study; 256 teachers agreed. Because my target sample was up to 310 teachers I selected ten more schools from the randomised Excel list and followed the aforementioned process again.

Overall, I gained access to 29 schools, and 308 out of 515, which corresponds to a response rate of 59.8%, primary school teachers volunteered to complete the questionnaire that would have been distributed in two phases during a year. This sample represents the 21.4% of the teaching force in Nicosia. This includes teachers and assistant headteachers who have teaching duties and participated in the mandatory training courses offered by the CPI with respect to the curriculum reform. In order to be
able to track the teachers a year later, they were asked to complete their names on the questionnaire. Any teachers’ appointments are published at the website of the Educational Service Commission, thus giving me the opportunity to check where my participants would have been transferred.

Both the demographic characteristics and additional information on the sample are depicted in charts 1-5. The sample was kept the same and therefore no discrepancies can be seen regarding respondents’ sex (Chart 1). Following the fact that the two administrations of the questionnaire were conducted one year apart, it can be observed (Charts 2-5) that some respondents changed age group, got promoted, are more experienced and obtained a higher degree.
During the survey the respondents were asked to indicate the changes they had experienced throughout the year. Table 3 indicates that the biggest change in their lives is the reduction of their salary as a result of government cuts, followed closely by changes in classrooms and pupils’ year groups. As shown in the table below, all teachers had experienced more than one change in their lives. An explanation to this is the fact that teachers in Cyprus are moved around by the MoEC, hence there is no issue of long service in a specific school. Furthermore, teachers can be responsible for the same classroom only for two consecutive years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHANGES THROUGHOUT THE YEAR</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>VALID PERCENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Change classroom and year group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion and changes in salary</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change headteacher, school, classroom, year group changes in salary, changes in personal life</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes in headteacher, classroom, year group, salary and life</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes in headteacher, changes to salary</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes in classroom, year group, salary</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes in headteacher, school, classroom, year group and salary</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes in classroom, year group and salary</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes to salary</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All above</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3:** Table depicting the changes primary school teachers have experiences over a year.
4.3.2.2 Research methods

4.3.2.2.1 Questionnaires

This research method not only offered access to a large number of teachers but an overview of respondents’ positions towards specific questions, thus permitting the collection of a large quantity of structured numerical data in a relatively straightforward way (Mills, Durepos and Wiebe, 2010). It was a less time-consuming valid measure for examining my research questions, obtaining the collaboration of the participants and producing accurate information (Robson, 2002).

The questionnaire distributed in May/June 2011 was divided into six parts, (Appendix 7) while the one distributed a year later in May/June 2012 consisted of seven parts (Appendix 8). Both questionnaires were piloted to identify and remedy a wide range of potential problems (Appendix 4.3).

The introduction of each part was explicit, clear and polite. Additionally, any relevant explanation was given in order to make the questionnaire easy to follow and complete. The statements were numbered and clearly clustered based on their topic (Bell, 2005) and participants were asked to indicate the level of agreement/disagreement or uncertainty with each of the statements. Double-barrelled questions, leading or ambiguous questions and questions including double negatives were avoided (Lewin, 2005). The language used was kept simple to ensure that all statements had the same meaning to all respondents (Oppenheim, 1992).

Most statements were closed except for the last one, thus permitting contrasts among groups of the sample and producing frequencies of response open to statistical treatment and analysis. Structured statements were employed as they permitted the examination of patterns and were easier to manage, analyse and code during the data analysis process (Lewin, 2005; Oppenheim, 1992). Only one open-ended question was included in the questionnaire, as this type of question is demanding in nature and time-
consuming with respect to classification, analysis and management. Most of the time respondents have the tendency to not spend time answering it. Nevertheless, this type of question offered the opportunity to extract useful information about an area of the researched topic, in this case about the INSET offered to the teachers before and during the implementation of the educational reform (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007).

The questionnaire (Appendix 7) administrated during the first phase in May/June 2011 consisted of an open-ended question and 85 high structured items, while the questionnaire (Appendix 8) distributed a year later in May/June 2012 added an extra high structured item (86 in total). As already mentioned, the questionnaires were written in English and translated to Greek. The initial form of the questionnaire (English format) was used for the report of the data and its analysis.

All the items were presented in a Likert-type scale with five response options and participants were asked to choose among these five categories which ranged between strongly disagree and strongly agree (1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Not agree nor disagree, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree). A ‘do not know’ category was also added. This kind of rating scale proved to be a useful mechanism as it constructed a degree of sensitivity and diversity of questions while generating numbers and statistical measurements of teachers’ attitudes and opinions. What is more, it could easily be coded and summed or averaged to provide an indicator of each participant’s overall positive or negative alignment towards a construct.

Nevertheless, the rating scale had a number of restraints. First of all, there was no assumption that the categories had equal intervals between them. Secondly, it could not be checked whether teachers replied truthfully or if they would have preferred to give an alternative answer or add any other comments. Thirdly, a number of participants had the tendency to avoid selecting the extreme answers that may influence the outcomes of the study and select the mid-point of each scale. This research study acknowledged the restraints of choosing this scale but having in mind what Dyer (1995) asserted, namely
'attitude scales do not need to be factually accurate - they simply need to reflect one possible perception of the truth … [respondents] will not be assessing the factual accuracy of each item, but will be responding to the feelings which the statement triggers in them' (p. 131), I decided to use the Likert scale as the rating scale of the questionnaires.

The research instrument was developed based on the systematic and thorough review of relevant literature, which revealed the key areas professional identity is comprised of and, therefore, an explicit set of construct items was developed for each area. A number of statements were included for each construct, wherever applicable, in order to ensure that teachers’ responses were being consistent. As Cohen, Manion and Morrison, (2007) argued, ‘it is important, in the interests of reliability and validity to have several items or questions for each component issue as this does justice to the all-round nature of the topic’ (p. 209).

The first part of the questionnaire consisted of the demographic of the respondents. Demographic characteristics are statistical variables used to describe teachers’ profiles and included sex, age, years of teaching experience, position and highest degree held. The educational qualification of the teacher population in Cyprus is generally divided into four main categories. Teachers either hold a degree from the PAC, which operated until the early 1990s, or a University Degree from the University of Cyprus and other recognised higher Institutions in Cyprus, or foreign universities mainly from Greece, the United Kingdom and the United States of America. Additionally, the majority of graduates engage in CPD by following postgraduate studies aimed at obtaining Master’s and/or PhD degrees.

The demographic characteristics were important to collect in order to be able to determine whether there were any correlations between them and teachers’ responses with respect to the examined areas. It is suggested these types of questions should appear at the end of the questionnaire as a number of participants may not get to the
end of the questionnaire and therefore it is important to have the main areas of the questionnaire unanswered. However, I argue that demographic characteristics are an important part and should appear at the beginning of the questionnaire, as this type of question can be answered quickly and easily, thus motivating the respondent to continue. Moreover, participants filled in the questionnaires at their own pace so they were given an adequate amount of time to complete it.

The second part consisted of 35 highly structured items aimed at examining the nature of teachers' professional practices in primary schools in Cyprus. The review of relevant literature indicated that reform policies have an impact upon teachers' professional identity and consequently their professional practices. Specifically, classroom realities, resources, teachers networking with others, keeping records, conferring with parents, attending CPD and training courses, meeting with the staff, interacting with pupils and planning shared activities are all aspects of teachers' practice identified by other researchers which could be affected by the introduction of reform policies in the schools (Acker, 1999; Campbell and Neill, 1994; Day et al., 2007; Hargreaves, 1994; Müller et al., 2010; Nias, 1989; Osborn, 2006). Therefore, I considered it important to include in the questionnaire items which would examine these issues.

The third part consisted of 17 highly structured items aimed at investigating the underpinning constructs of primary teachers' professional identity. The review of relevant literature indicated that teachers' professional identity is a crucial factor in understanding teachers' professional lives and gaining insights into essential aspects, such as emotions, job satisfaction, confidence, autonomy and commitment (Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop, 2004; Day, Flores and Viana, 2007; Lasky, 2005; Lee and Yin, 2010). These aspects are continuously contested, negotiated and transformed in the setting of educational innovations (Zembylas, 2003; van Veen, Sleegers and van de Ven, 2005), thus the development of constructs investigating those factors which influence teachers' identities and the consequences for practice was vital.
The fourth part consisted of 18 highly structured items aimed at the investigation of teachers' perceptions towards the policy reform. International literature suggests that teachers as practitioners carry their own beliefs, values and perceptions. They attach their own meanings to the policy reform and have their own ideas regarding how reform should go forward and how they will act on it (Bantwini, 2010; Bowe, Ball with Gold, 1992; Flores, 2005; Zembylas, 2003). Thus, it was important to construct items in order to investigate the ways teachers perceive, adapt, resist and realise reforms.

The fifth part consisted of nine highly structured items. The sixth part was an open-ended question. Both parts aimed at investigating teachers' views towards the training they received. Researchers have highlighted the importance of accessing the extent to which INSET courses and seminars were available to teachers and whether these courses responded to teachers' professional needs (Borko, 2004; Little, 1993; Fishman et al., 2003). Therefore, I developed a set of items investigating these issues and I included an open-ended question to obtain more specific information regarding the training teachers attended.

As already mentioned, the questionnaire distributed a year later in May/June 2012 was the same, albeit with an addition of a high structured item. I considered it important to add this item in order to investigate other contextual data within the questionnaire survey such as the variations in teacher responsibilities, changes in professional conditions of service and organisational changes such as a different head teacher or different school.

4.3.3 Macro level

The main purpose of the macro level was to examine through semi-structured interviews the views and perceptions of two curriculum coordinators regarding the curriculum reform process, the effect of the reform policy on teachers' professional lives and the implications for their practices, as well as issues like the training and support they offered to teachers. Additionally, curriculum policy documents and any other relevant
documentary evidence were collected in order to further conceptualise the impact of the externally imposed reform on teachers’ professional lives. The following sections present the procedures I followed in order to recruit the two curriculum coordinators as well as the research instruments employed in this level of the research study.

4.3.3.1 Sample

Two national curriculum coordinators were recruited for this study, as they were individuals who were assigned by the Ministry to participate in the development of the curriculum which was forwarded in all public primary schools in September 2011. It was important to recruit these individuals as they held views about the curriculum reform, teachers’ practice and identity, as well as on issues like the training and support the teachers received.

The national curriculum coordinators who were involved in the curriculum reform development were known to the public through the Ministry’s website, as they were clustered based on their role and involvement in education policymaking pertinent to this project. Then, through a random selection, I selected Rhea and contacted by her email asking her for an appointment. In the email I attached all the information about the research design and personal details (Appendix 9.1, 9.2, 9.3). A week later I received an email confirming her willingness to be interviewed. During my fieldwork I encountered Artemis, a deputy headteacher who is seconded at the Ministry and actively participated in the development of the new curricula. After making the necessary arrangements, this person agreed to participate in the research process and offer her insights regarding the reform process via an interview.
4.3.3.2 Research methods

4.3.3.2.1 Interviews

The experiences of the four teachers participating in the micro level of this research study and the survey data on attitudes would be examined in relation to the perceptions of curriculum coordinators regarding teachers’ professional lives and curriculum reform. Therefore, in order to obtain their views about these issues, I decided to conduct two semi-structured, face-to-face interviews with the two curriculum coordinators. An interview schedule (Appendix 9.5) was prepared, aiming to examine the officials’ perspectives about the curriculum reform, training and support of primary school teachers, teachers’ role towards the new curriculum, barriers to implementation of the reform and their expectations with respect to the new curriculum. Each interview session lasted approximately forty minutes and was conducted during working hours.

4.3.3.2.2 Documentary evidence

Policy documents have also been collected in order to shed some light on the ways in which stakeholders understand teachers’ professional lives and how they are being affected by the educational reform agenda. Government publications, official reports, circulars, newspapers and articles related to my investigated areas were collected throughout the conduct of this research study.

4.4 Data Analysis

As illustrated in the previous sections, the five constructs underpinning teacher identity have been used to design the instruments of this research study. The data collection and analysis will engage with these five, potentially confirm/challenge them and certainly develop them by identifying the factors that affect the constructs of teachers’ professional identity, the implications for their practices and also provide a theoretical
understanding through the use of Foucault’s theory of governmentality and therefore constructing an interplay of theory and fieldwork.

The literatures about teacher identity in changing times in different contexts that I have developed using databases such as Scopus and Web of Science are an integral part of the data analysis. Firstly, I have used the literatures to develop my conceptual framework presented in chapter three, which will be further built and developed in chapters five to eight through the interplay of the data gathered in fieldwork with arguments from the literatures. Secondly, the literatures and my research findings will be presented and integrated, based on the scholarly methods used in education policy studies (e.g. Ball, 1994), in the next chapters as follows: (1) chapter five presents the accounts of the four teachers who I observed and interviewed during the year. Each account is based on an underpinning of one of the five constructs of professional identity, with particular emphasis on four of them as professional autonomy is an issue that covers all of these teachers. Data sources using codes (Appendix 10) and illustrative quotations will be utilised in various stages to support the points that are being made. In this chapter literatures about the constructs of teacher identity will interplay with my research data collected in fieldwork and will be used aiming to conceptualise the impact of education reform policy on these constructs as well as the implications for teachers’ practices; (2) chapter six connects the findings from the four teachers to wider systemic evidence by presenting the findings from questionnaires and describing teachers’ experiences of this system-wide reform before and after a year, examining how their attitudes, experiences, and practices have stayed the same or changed. In this chapter literatures about teachers’ identity, practices, views on curriculum reform as well as training and support will be used to explain my research findings; (3) chapter seven is based on the documents and interviews with two government officials, and examines the emerging issues of the four in-depth stories and the survey data on attitudes in relation to the perceptions of curriculum coordinators regarding teachers’ professional lives and curriculum reform. In this chapter literatures about education policy to present its
complexities will be used as well as literatures relating to training, resources and teachers’ prior knowledge and beliefs will be used and integrated with the data gathered in fieldwork; (4) chapter eight presents Foucault’s concept of governmentality as a means of developing and understanding the emerging issues of this study and connecting teachers’ professional identities with notions of the state and policy. In this chapter literatures about governmentality theory and specifically, technologies of self, technologies of power and power relations will be used to further allow an interplay to take place between theory and my research findings.

4.4.1 Qualitative data analysis

All the qualitative data was transcribed and then translated into English. The generated data was transcribed and a computer software package NVivo8 was used to assist the storage and retrieval of categorised data. For each hour of interview recording, approximately six hours were needed for transcribing, translating and checking for consistency between verbal and written discourse. Each interview was given a label of date, the alias of the interviewee, the demographic characteristics and the purpose of each interview.

The interviews, observations, and documents were analysed in a methodical way and were broken down into segments based on the theme that emerged. The framework recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006) was followed for the thematic analysis and was consisted of five phases. It should be stressed that the coding process was not straightforward, but instead involved a continuous movement among the qualitative data, the coded quotations of the transcripts and the ongoing produced data analysis. A coding scheme was also developed (Appendix 10) in order to show where the data came from to support the points I am making in the next chapters.

The notion of thematic approach follows Miles and Huberman’s (1994) argument that data needs to be reduced through a coding process in order to be presented in an
explicit form for interpretation. A deductive, rather than inductive, analysis was chosen. My opposition to the induction approach is related to the fact that it is difficult to escape from pre-theoretical assumptions, and data coding cannot be freed from epistemological commitments. Thorough examination of literature is an important stage of the deductive approach as it can enhance the analysis by enabling the researcher to be more careful of not so apparent elements of the data. Additionally, it is vital to be reflective and allow the data to challenge any hypothesis emerging from the literature. In this sense, conclusions derived from the data could be contradictory to literature reports; therefore it was necessary to consider other possible explanations for any interpretations of the data.

The first phase of the qualitative analysis involved familiarisation with the collected data. I initially read the whole amount of data in order to conceptualise a general picture and I then re-read the data several times, searching for possible patterns. During this phase, all data was transcribed. Transcription, which is a vital stage of the analysis, enabled me from the very beginning to develop a thorough understanding of the collected data and cultivate my interpretative skills (Lapadat and Lindsay, 1999). After reading the transcripts carefully and methodically, I proceeded with the creation of free nodes. A free node refers to a compilation of references about a specific idea which can ‘stand-alone’. This stage has no clear connection with other nodes as I had not yet developed a node structure.

The second phase involved the generalisation of initial codes. A code refers to ‘the most basic segment, or element, of the raw data or information that can be assessed in a meaningful way regarding the phenomenon’ (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 63). At this phase, I worked through the entire data set and I coded elements which seemed interesting and likely to develop repeated patterns throughout the data set. Consequently, this process resulted in the development of initial codes which were attributed to the corresponding data extracts. It should be noted that sometimes data extracts were coded more than once as it seemed possible to include them in more than one potential pattern.
The third phase involved the organisation of initial codes into potential themes and the collation of all data extracts relevant to each theme. A theme is developed by ‘bringing together components or fragments of ideas or experiences, which often ‘are meaningless when viewed alone’ (Leininger, 1985, p. 60), and plays a crucial role in the analysis as it ‘captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response of meaning within the data set’ (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 82). Bearing in mind the research questions of this study, I methodically sorted the initial codes into overarching themes which then provided the basis for the interpretation of the data and consequently the arguments made with respect to the case study under investigation (Boyatzis, 1998). After the development of the key themes, the codes underpinning each of them were revised and further reorganised into sub-themes. As Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest, sub-themes ‘can be useful for giving structure to a particularly large and complex theme, and also for demonstrating the hierarchy of meaning within the data’ (p. 92). Therefore, each key theme encompassed codes which referred to a range of different aspects. These different aspects were developed into sub-themes in order to offer a clear depiction of the liaison among codes to shape a sub-theme, and sub-themes to shape an overarching theme.

Reviewing themes was the fourth phase of the analysis. This phase included checking the extent to which all the data extracts provided a coherent meaning for each sub-theme and each theme. To achieve this, all the data extracts attached to a sub-theme were examined in order to make sure that they in fact belonged to the existing sub-theme, or a new one had to be developed. This process verified that the sub-themes were suitably assigned to each overarching theme.

The last phase, which was the actual analysis of the data, included the production of definitions of the themes and sub-themes by providing a clear idea of what they refer to and analysing the data within them. To achieve this, I organised the data quotations
pertaining to the initial codes contained within each sub-theme, aiming at the provision of 

a thorough and detailed analysis of each theme accompanied by the matching extracts.

4.4.2 Quantitative data analysis

The collected questionnaires were checked for accuracy and uniformity in fully 

conceptualising the instructions and the questions, for indications of negligence and for 

any deliberated attempts to misinform (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). No 

problems were identified, due to the fact that participants had the opportunity to have a 

look at the questionnaire and contact me regarding any inquiries. For the purposes of 

this study, the data from the questionnaire was managed quantitatively with the 

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 20.

Frequencies for tabulated categorical data (crosstabs) and Spearman’s rho were utilised 

to compare and indicate whether there was a statistically significant difference among 
	two different groups. P Values of less than 0.05 were received as statistically significant, 

meaning that the null hypothesis (no association) could be rejected and an association 

between two factors confirmed. A code number was assigned for each answer of the 

survey questions. Measurement is considered as the process for categorising individuals 

or groups and situating them into previously labelled clusters. Nominal and ordinal 

variables were used as the scales measurement.

Frequency distributions were generated for all the items to make descriptions and 

comparisons. Despite the fact that Likert scale items are ordinal in nature, this study 

follows the tendency of the vast majority of educational studies, which provide means 

and standard deviations over medians and interquartile ranges. Additionally, since I 

provide the means and standard deviations for each item to indicate trends between the 

two administrations of the questionnaire, I also present in charts the frequency of 

teachers who chose each option in order to give the reader the opportunity to select how 

s/he wants to interpret the outcomes at the Likert-item level.
In order to investigate the extent to which demographic characteristics influence teachers’ responses regarding the investigated areas and identify the strength of the relationship of two ordinal variables and its direction, the Spearman’s rho correlation coefficient was used. A lot of questionnaire items were found correlated to the demographic characteristics; however, reports are made only for the correlations with effect sizes modest and above. Table 4 is being used as practical guideline for interpreting the Spearman’s rho correlation coefficient.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SPEARMAN’S RHO CORRELATION COEFFICIENT</th>
<th>INTERPRETATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.9 to 1</td>
<td>Very strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.7 to 0.89</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5 to 0.69</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.3 and 0.4.9</td>
<td>Modest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.16 and 0.29</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 0.16</td>
<td>Too low to be meaningful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Table illustrating the categories of Spearman’s Rho Correlation Coefficient and their interpretations

The Mann-Whitney U test was employed to examine the relationship between the nominal variable ‘sex’ and the ordinal constructs of the questionnaire. Sex differences were found between males and females in relation to a range of questionnaire items. However, the strength of the relationships between sex and these items was found to be weak and therefore will not be reported in chapter six.

4.5 Research integrity

As the researcher of this study it was my responsibility to pledge that I was aware of all legislation and guidelines which concerned this research and to make sure that any other individuals involved in the research were also aware of the legislations and guidelines. Seven ethical principles (Mills, Durepos and Wiebe, 2010) directed this research: (1) establish the scientific quality of the research study; (2) minimise or
mitigate any possible risks; (3) maintain participants’ privacy; (4) potential benefit to research participants; (5) morality and honesty with respect to data collection and reporting; (6) participation is entirely voluntary, and (7) participants are fully informed about the research.

As a precaution to minimise or mitigate any possible risks, the research was conducted on school premises in normal school time with utmost care so that the work of the teachers, the school setting and the pupils would not be impacted in any way. The members of the Curriculum Development Committee were interviewed in their office after a pre-arranged meeting, during working hours. All data collected was dealt with according to British Educational Research Association (2004) guidelines.

Research being carried out in organisations such as schools requires formal approval. Therefore, I was required to obtain permission to perform my overseas project from the School of Education at the University of Manchester and from the University Research Ethics Committee (UREC). The scientific quality of the research had been assessed by the Review Panel for PhD/Professional Doctorate students in the School of Education. An ethics application was filled in and approved by the School Ethics Advisory Committee against a pre-approved UREC template. This research study was compatible with the one I was given permission for with a minor variation to the original proposal. Specifically, in the original submission the plan was to do two interviews with one policymaker from the national ministry in Cyprus, before the implementation of the reform and a year after, but the policymaker confirmed at the first interview that this would not be possible. However, I found out that one of the teachers at the Olive Tree Primary School where I was doing my ethnography work had been directly involved in the policy process and I considered that it would have been interesting to interview that person about the issues under investigation.

The authority to permit research in primary schools in Cyprus is the responsibility of a number of stakeholders in the educational system. Firstly, an application form comprised
of the title, objectives, research questions, methodology, sampling, research instruments and research timetable, all translated in Greek, was submitted electronically to the Centre of Educational Research and Evaluation (CERE), which is a new department of the CPI.

After receiving the approvals from the Head of Primary Education at the MoEC in Cyprus and the University of Manchester, it was necessary to approach the headteachers of the pre-selected schools. This step was crucial because both UREC and the CERE only assessed the scientific and ethical quality of the research; access into the organisations would only be granted upon the headteachers’ decisions to allow me to enter their schools and have a discussion with them and their teaching personnel. Therefore, in order to obtain their authorisation to enter their school premises, a letter (Appendix 6.1) and participation sheet (Appendix 6.2) was sent to them. The letter was accompanied by the Ministry’s approval. By acquiring the consent of the headteachers, I gained access to their schools and an opportunity to talk to the teachers. No undue influence was exerted in order to persuade teachers to take part in the study. All the potential participants were given adequate time to make up their minds as to whether they wanted to participate. Specifically, they had two weeks to decide whether they were willing to participate in the research process. After these two weeks, I returned to the schools and I started the data collection process. The research did not interrupt any normal organisational procedures/activities.

To preserve teachers’ privacy, the names and locations of the schools were not revealed and participants’ identities were replaced by aliases. To promote confidentiality, participants were asked to read the participation sheet (Appendix 2.2, 3.2, 6.2, 7.2, 9.2) and signify their willingness to participate in the study and that they were aware of the aims and nature of the research project, including details of how and when data collected during the study would be used.
It is argued that individuals should consent to being researched and their consent should be obtained without undue coercion, deception, inducement or any kind of force (Atkinson and Hammersley, 2007; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). Informed consent (Appendix 2.4, 3.4, 5.4, 9.4) was sought from all participants and all agreements reached at the phase of data collection were honoured. Participants were made aware that participation was entirely voluntary and that refusal would attract no sanction. Even if participants agreed to participate in the study, it was made clear that they were free to leave the study at any time without being required to give reasons for leaving. No one was made to participate in the study against their will.

The participants were made aware that if they felt uncomfortable in any way at any stage of the process, I would stop the procedure and only proceed once I had regained consent from the participants and when I had ensured that they understood what I was doing and what was expected of them. If the activity still proved to be inconvenient for the participant, I would cancel or rearrange the procedure. Interviewees were given the chance to decline to answer particular sets of questions and were informed that, whenever they wanted, the recorder could be switched off to discuss ‘off the record’ issues they were not comfortable to share in the research project. Only one interviewee, while sharing her accounts on how curriculum coordinators proceeded with the development of the curriculum reform and the extent to which teachers’ views were taken into consideration prior to its development, expressed her concerns about whether I should include what she was saying as this could reveal her identity. The participant was reassured that her identity would be safeguarded and under no circumstances would anyone be able to link the data to any of the participants. The interviewee did not discontinue the recording process. She expressed her concerns, but simultaneously declared that she was confident that I was able to handle any confidentiality and anonymity issues.

Practical issues that had to be dealt with before the initiation of the research process were issues regarding the recording of data. As suggested by Powney and Watts (1987),
audio recording should be introduced at an early stage prior to the conduct of the interview so that participants get familiar with being recorded. Therefore, before each interview process, I sought teachers’ authorisation to record their responses.

Both recording and transcription of the data allowed me to fill in any natural restraints such as memory gaps and go through the discussions as many times as needed. I also had the opportunity to examine thoroughly the content of each conversation in order to limit any bias during the analysis stage (Bryman, 2004). Nevertheless, the recording tool could be an inhibiting factor. First of all, it could restrain participants from being comfortable and sharing all important information. I overcame this barrier by following the suggestion made by an interviewee who asked me to put aside the recorder in an attempt to make her feel more relaxed and avoid the creation of negative feelings such as frustration and concern regarding what she was sharing. Secondly, the audio recording process fails to capture any non-verbal reactions of the interviewees (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007). In order to deal with this issue, a feedback form (Appendix 11) was completed in order to log information that could not be captured on the recorder (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Prior to each interview, I stressed the importance of audio recording the interview process to the participants. Firstly, audio recording was preferred as it enabled me to fully concentrate on what the interviewee were saying, make use of probes, not miss any key elements of the discussion and have eye contact with them, showing them my respect. I also explained to the interviewees that the tool gives me the opportunity to obtain a full and accurate account of what is being said without missing anything important. Thirdly, I was able to be focused without interrupting the flow of the conversation. Instead, if I were keeping notes, I would most likely not have been able to concentrate and would have been trying to spot what was important in order to write it down and therefore be very selective and miss important information (Gillham, 2000).
Participants received full information about the nature of the research project, as they had the right to comprehend what they were agreeing to before consenting to engage in any stage of the research process. Therefore, I thoroughly explained to the potential participants the purpose, procedures and approximate duration of the research. In the case of participants’ withdrawal, any data gathered from that participant would be destroyed automatically. For example, teachers were informed that the questionnaire would be shredded and any recording would be destroyed if they wished to participate no further. Also, they were given the right to dispose of the data themselves. The participants were also informed of the benefits that could arise from this study. I declared that a summary report of the research findings would be written and sent to the research participants and the MoEC.

It was an ethical imperative as well as an obligation to inform participants of the project outcomes (Fernandez et al., 2003). This act indicated that teachers were not being treated as a means to an end. By offering to disseminate the results, I reduced the chance of creating negative feelings in the participants, such as those of manipulation and exploitation. I also enhanced trust and confidence and increased awareness of the impact of this kind of research in the education arena. Furthermore, teachers’ contribution to gaining an understanding of professional identity at a major curriculum reform was emphasised. This research is future-oriented and designed to benefit all educational stakeholders. Hence, by providing reform designers with the project outcomes, they can use the information unveiled during the fieldwork to proceed with improvements of the policy reform. Additionally, the evidence of this study can not only be used to inform policy and practice but can also promote cooperation and discussion among curriculum coordinators and teachers.

During the data analysis procedure, all identifiers were replaced with pseudonyms, which were to break the link between data and identifiable individuals. Where the links needed to be preserved in order to match data sets in a repeated measures design, coding frames including participant identities were kept securely on a data stick in a locked
drawer. Furthermore, all data collected was encrypted using the 7zip software, which was recommended and provided by the University of Manchester.

4.6 Reflexivity

Reflexivity is broadly defined as the engagement in continuous reflection of one’s actions that might have an impact upon a research project (Allen, 2004). Hence, through reflexivity I had the opportunity to reflect on my identity as a researcher and the theoretical stances I had adopted, as well as the ways in which these may have had any influence on the research study. Moreover, I had the opportunity to critique, discover meanings of the social world and link them to specific settings and experiences (Begoray and Banister, 2010; Dowling, 2006). I acknowledge that I was an integral part of the social context I investigated and I did bring my personal identity to the research situation. Therefore, since I was closely engaged in the process and the artefact of the research study, I considered it important to reflect on my decisions and comprehend my role in influencing the research.

The position of the researcher is a challenging issue addressed by educational scholars who are concerned with the ways in which the researcher’s self may have an impact upon both the practice and the outcomes of the study. It has been argued that the identity of a researcher is neither stable nor fixed. Instead, it is continuously changing, depending on the discourses and situations s/he engages in and in relation to liaisons with the research participants (Walshaw, 2010). Following the work of Thomson and Gunter (2011) about the fluidity of researcher identity, I argue that during the conduct of the research study I was neither an insider nor an outsider, but was instead engaging in constantly fluid liaisons with the participants. Firstly, I engaged in the process as an outsider researcher but the very short professional background that I carried had set me on the basis of insider organisational knowledge. What this meant in terms of my identity as a researcher was that I positioned myself as somebody who conceptualised, and understood to a great extent, schooling and teaching but would not participate in any of
these actions. The ways in which I had set up each of the data collection opportunities were also important. Specifically, the pre-principles and strategies adopted during the research study, my interaction and relationship with research participants, the thorough explanation of the purposes of each phase, the depiction of my professionalism and objectivity in terms of the data collection and the ways in which the research integrity process would have given them protection and support were all taken into serious consideration. Over time, I managed to build a relationship with the participants based on mutual trust, respect, care, confidence and understanding.

In achieving reflection, from the beginning of this research journey I kept a research diary on a frequent basis in which I recorded a variety of information. As Spradley (1979) claimed, this diary could contain ‘a record of experiences, ideas, fears, mistakes, confusions, breakthroughs, and problems that arise during the field work’ (p. 76). The research diary is a means that can be utilised to aid reflection in the research process while allowing me to analyse and evaluate my own actions. Specifically, I documented my own personal feelings and involvement, decisions regarding the literature review, methodological and epistemological decisions, ethical issues and my ways of working at the research site. Any personal values and beliefs which might affect the research process, and consequently the findings, were illustrated at the beginning of my research. Additionally, the reflective diary was used to record my prior understandings about the research and then compare it with the collected in order to check for veracity or erroneousness. I have reflected on my duties as a researcher by providing a detailed account regarding my interactions with research participants from initial contact to the end of the data collection process. This offered transparency not only to what information was unveiled during the fieldwork but also how it was unveiled. Furthermore, it empowered the rigour of the study and allowed the reader and the researcher to reassure the validity/trustworthiness of the research outcomes (Begoray and Banister, 2010).
4.7 Validity, reliability and trustworthiness

Validity and reliability are the criteria for evaluating the quality of quantitative research (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007), whereas in qualitative research different terminology is used when determining the rigour of the study. These criteria are generally referred to as ‘trustworthiness’, and encompass transferability, credibility, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In the next paragraphs, the previously mentioned criteria are presented, followed by a description of how they were addressed in this study.

Credibility refers to ‘the methodological procedures and sources used to establish a high level of harmony between the participants’ expressions and the researcher’s interpretations of them’ (Jensen, 2008a, p. 138). The first strategy employed to enhance credibility was the use of well-established research methods. The thorough investigation of the research methodology employed in previous projects on teachers' professional identity enabled me to make important decisions on the methods I would adopt, the reasons why, and how these methods were operational in terms of exploring in an effective way the concepts of interest.

Another strategy employed to promote credibility was methodological triangulation. In this study documents, questionnaires, interviews and observations were employed for collecting and analysing data about teachers' professional identity and in pursuing convergence, validation and exclusion of the integrated biases from utilising one method only, which inevitably will yield limited outcomes.

Another form of triangulation was the involvement of a number of informants in the study, who provided useful data sources. This enabled the verification of individuals’ perspectives and experiences by additional sources. For example, a teacher stated that she received inadequate training with respect to the curriculum reform. Since the training was mandatory for all teachers, I had the opportunity to confirm this piece of information
with other teachers and also through the curriculum coordinators’ testimonials regarding teachers’ training.

The debriefing meetings with my supervisors, which took place on a regular basis, could also enhance credibility. These sessions widened my perspectives with respect to my research and gave me the opportunity to discuss alternative approaches, refine my research design, challenge assumptions and validate my interpretations and developing ideas. Furthermore, my attendance at conferences and seminars enabled me to present my work to other peers and academics and receive valuable feedback that could be used to strengthen my practice as a researcher. Another strategy for enhancing credibility was respondent validation (member-checks), which took place after transcribing the qualitative data and showing participants the transcriptions to ensure they were accurate.

Transferability suggests that ‘the results of the research can be transferred to other contexts and situations beyond the scope of the study context’ (Jensen, 2008b, p. 886). Acknowledging that this study was conducted in a specific social context in a specific space and time, I provided a thick description of the setting, participants and research design to enable other researchers to make a decision about transferability to their setting (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Bassey (1999) is among those who support the importance of transferability by claiming that only if researchers consider that the situations described in this research are related to theirs can they relate the outcomes to their own settings.

Dependability requires that the researcher must keep a record of the research process and ‘supply adequate and relevant methodological information to enable others to replicate the study’ (Jensen, 2008c, p. 209). Prolonged participation in the research setting and extensive interviewing were strategies used to enhance dependability. Specifically, data was collected during different time periods, and audio recordings were made and transcribed, and interviews were repeated over the four phases of this study.
An ‘audit trail’ was developed explaining thoroughly what was decided and why, so other researchers could follow it. Access was also offered to documents used in the study, such as the interview schedule, observation scheme, questionnaire cover page, informant participation sheet and informed consent form. Additionally, a research diary was kept in order to maintain accuracy when explaining the research procedures (Anfara, Brown and Mangione, 2002). Through these techniques, which enable constant reflection, monitoring and explicit description of the research process, it is possible to enhance dependability.

Confirmability, which relates to objectivity (Shenton, 2004), concerns,

providing evidence that the researcher’s interpretations of participants’ constructions are rooted in the participants’ constructions and also that data analysis and the resulting findings and conclusions can be verified as reflective of and grounded in the participants’ perceptions (Jensen, 2008d, p. 112).

The role of certain strategies explained in the previous paragraphs, such as reflexivity, methodological triangulation, respondents’ validation, the creation of an ‘audit trail’ and the provision of large number of data extracts to support my arguments, must again be highlighted as they assisted in promoting confirmability (Anfara, Brown and Mangione, 2002).

Validity and reliability are the most important concepts of any measurement process in quantitative research (Muijs, 2004). Broadly speaking, validity refers to the extent to which the research instrument measures what it claims to measure. Reliability is considered as ‘a synonym for dependability, consistency, and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents’ (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, p. 146). In this sense, reliability refers to the extent to which the questionnaire yields the same results on repeated trials. Continuous efforts were made throughout the research process to ensure that this study was well constructed to maintain content validity, concurrent validity, and reliability.
Content validity refers to the extent to which the instrument shows that 'it fairly and comprehensively covers the domain or items that it purports to cover' (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, p. 137). In order to achieve content validity, a thorough literature review of teachers’ professional identity at a time of change in other education contexts was conducted and consequently informed the development of the conceptual framework used in this study. Once the conceptual framework was established and reviewed, the process for constructing the questionnaire was initiated. This process ensured that the questionnaire was appropriate and pertinent to the study's aims and purposes.

Concurrent validity indicates 'whether scores on your instrument agree with scores on other factors you would expect to be related to it' (Muijs, 2004, p. 67). In order to establish concurrent validity in this study, I performed statistical tests to examine whether there was a relationship between variables using techniques such as the correlation coefficients.

Reliability of the internal consistency of the questionnaire was assessed using the Cronbach alpha index. The internal consistency of the questionnaire administered in 2011 and 2012 has been tested using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which is a widely-used index of test reliability. The closer the score is to +1.00, the higher the reliability. In this research study the Cronbach's alpha for the whole questionnaire during Phase A was 0.888 and during Phase B was 0.901. Cronbach’s alpha was also calculated for each sub-category of the questionnaire. Table 5 below presents the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the sub-categories of the questionnaire. The increased value of alpha indicates that items in the research instruments are correlated to each other. This could be attributed to the fact that more related items testing the same construct were added to the questionnaires. These results confirm the high degree of internal consistency and the fact that the items in each part of the questionnaire measure their specific attributes.
### RELIABILITY STATISTICS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Phase A</th>
<th>Phase B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha</td>
<td>(.888)</td>
<td>(.901)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of teachers’ work (N=35)</td>
<td>0.776</td>
<td>0.759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional identity (N=17)</td>
<td>0.633</td>
<td>0.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Views on curriculum reform (N=18)</td>
<td>0.907</td>
<td>0.879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and support (N=10)</td>
<td>0.751</td>
<td>0.779</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5:** Table illustrating the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the sub-categories of the questionnaire

Additionally, the pilot study of the questionnaire (Appendix 4.3), which sought to answer whether the research tool consistently measures whatever it measures, was another way to establish reliability. Through the pilot study, I was able to safeguard the quality of the items and make sure that only clear and unambiguous items were included in the research instrument which was then distributed to the survey participants.

Statistical generalisability addresses the extent to which research findings and inferences of the study conducted on a subset of a population can be applied across other settings and populations than those participated in the research. At first, I identified the population to which I wanted to generalise my findings. In this case, I was interested in primary schools teachers in Nicosia. A representative sample was selected utilising a multilevel sampling process (cluster and random sampling) which both have a measure of randomness inherent and thus have a degree of generalisability.

I acknowledge that in this study I have tested and eliminated to some extent whether my findings reflect what teachers are generally saying, and revealed new insights that
contribute in the under-theorised field of teacher identity, particularly during times of change. However, the complexities of the way teachers live, experience and think about their identities, and their reactions to changes in their professional lives, require more in depth work, hence more time is required to proceed with a more thorough investigation of these issues and safeguard generalisability.

4.8 Summary

Chapter four has presented the methodological approach used for this study. Specifically, issues concerning the samples, methods and development of the research instruments for each level, the procedures followed for data collection and analysis of the study, and research integrity, validity, reliability and trustworthiness were addressed. Having set up my fieldwork, I proceed with the presentation of my findings. Chapter five presents the micro level of the research study and focuses on analysis and interpretation of the accounts of the four teachers, which are described thoroughly and with the use of the relevant international literature.
CHAPTER FIVE
MICRO LEVEL

5.1 Introduction

Having presented the methodological issues and the fieldwork procedures in chapter four, in this chapter I present the micro level of this research study and concentrate on the accounts of the four teachers who participated in the ethnographic research study that took place in the Olive Tree Primary School. The chapter begins with a brief discussion of teachers’ professional profiles before summarising the four accounts being presented. Following this, I will discuss the five constructs established in chapter three, focusing on them equally with the exception of professional autonomy as it is an issue that covers all of these teachers. In order to get an understanding of each account, I draw on particular aspects of the literature around professional identity, aiming to fully conceptualise the impact of education reform policy on teachers' professional identities and consequently their practices. Examining these five constructs with particular emphasis on four of them has led me to identify and present some contextual and professional factors that were found to have an impact upon them.

5.2 Teachers’ professional profiles

Alcestis is a 44 year-old newly appointed deputy headteacher and has been at the Olive Tree Primary School for six years. She has a Bachelor of Education degree and has been qualified for 23 years. She is married with four children (Alnt1). Alcestis was responsible for Year 1, a class of fourteen six year-olds (ALOa). This grade experienced major changes in terms of new curricula and material. The classroom setting Alcestis and her pupils were working in was full of displays of children’s work and the seating arrangement was an upside-down U shape (ALOa). The teacher had also a small desk which was piled with pupils’ work ready to be assessed and paperwork to be completed.
Alcestis worked closely with Electra, the teaching colleague responsible for the parallel Year 1 class, with whom she planned lessons, shared resources and formulated strategies on how to proceed with respect to the reform (GOb). Her main purposes as a teacher have not changed throughout the year, and these included the creation of a stimulating and happy environment in which all children would feel respected and valued as well as seeing children accomplishing the aims of the curriculum (Alnt1-4). Alcestis considered that a good teacher should engage in continuous development of existing skills and abilities, be flexible with new approaches, integrate new technologies in the teaching and learning process, have influence on pupils, and be a strong, patient, kind and caring presence (Alnt2).

Calypso is a 29 year-old novice teacher with six years of teaching experience, in her second year at the Olive Tree Primary School. She qualified with a four-year Bachelor of Education with Honours Degree and has chosen to continue her studies towards a Master’s in Psychology with a particular orientation in gifted education. Calypso is single and has no children (Clnt1). This novice teacher is responsible for a class of eighteen pupils aged ten. Her classroom environment had been created by both the teacher and the children and was full of intricate displays of pupils’ work and curriculum resources. The children’s desks were arranged into teams to promote collaboration among pupils, while Calypso’s desk was covered with teaching resources, pupils’ work and paperwork (CLOa-d). Her purposes as a teacher were stable throughout the year and were related to fostering a creative learning environment for the children, promoting criticality and respect, always being up-to-date in terms of education issues and participating on a frequent and regular basis in CPD activities (Clnt1-4). According to Calypso, creativity, involvement in developmental activities, subject knowledge, flexibility with the use of ICT, occupational commitment and eagerness constitute the qualities of a good teacher (Clnt2).

Daphne is in her early thirties and is married with, one child. She was in her eleventh year of teaching and has been at the Olive Tree Primary School for four years. Having
completed a Bachelor of Education degree, Daphne continued her studies towards a Master’s Degree in Multiculturalism and Psychology (DInt1). She is responsible for fourteen eleven year-olds. In the classroom environment there was far less evidence of pupils’ work being exhibited than in other classrooms. Children’s desks were arranged in an upside-down U shape. At the front of the classroom there was a table which represented the teachers' desk. It faced the pupils and was free of papers and any other materials (DLOa-d). Meeting the requirements and the aims that every school sets, attending CPD courses and working hard in order to satisfy children’s needs were reported as her main purposes as a teacher (DInt1-4). As for the qualities of a good teacher, Daphne considered that a good teacher should be flexible and be able to adapt to both new conditions the aims of each school, promote critical thinking, be creative and productive (DInt2).

Electra is 38 years old and married, with two children. At the time she was observed and interviewed Electra had been teaching for 16 years and had been at the Olive Tree Primary School for five years. She qualified with a four-year Bachelor of Education with Honours and in December 2011 she decided to continue her studies by enrolling in a part time Master’s Degree towards school leadership and improvement (EInt1,3). Electra was responsible for a class of fourteen six years old and worked closely with Alcestis (GOb). The classroom environment Electra and her pupils were working in was impressive and full of displays of a great variety of her pupils' work, as well as displays of curriculum resources. The desks were arranged in an upside-down U shape and her desk was piled with pupils’ work and paperwork (ELOa). Electra considered herself as a teacher whose main purposes were to promote criticality, cultivate social skills, build a good relationship with the children, parents and staff and manage to reach the goals set at the beginning of each school year (EInt1-4). Electra talked about familiarity with technological advancements, patience, commitment, eagerness for hard work and coping with major changes in the profession when it comes to the qualities a good teacher should have (EInt2).
5.3 Teachers’ accounts

5.3.1 Account one: Alcestis

The research data revealed that, before the implementation of the education reform policy, Alcestis was extremely concerned about the reform process (GOa). She recognised the importance of restructuring the CES towards new directions but she was doubtful that this major reform would bring any substantial changes in the educational system (AInt1, ALOa). As she confessed, ‘at this stage, I don’t know if I’m able to cope with the changes, I have doubts whether the curriculum reform will improve results and whether it will be as effective as the policymakers say it will be’ (AInt1). During lesson observations, it was evident that Alcestis had a powerful personal understanding of how she perceived her professional practice should be and felt stressed, frustrated and uncomfortable when she was coming across new teaching material and resources (ALOb,c). Despite the fact that she had over 20 years of teaching experience and was very confident about her teaching effectiveness, (AInt1) her attitude and confidence changed dramatically with the introduction of the reform policy (ALOb). In my research diary I noted that with the gradual implementation of the curriculum reform she felt helpless and perplexed about how to make good use of the new teaching strategies and approaches, and a continuous conflict between her previous practices and new ones was apparent (ALOb,c). Her frustration and anxiety towards the curriculum reform was intensified because of the ineffective support and guidance teachers received (AInt2, ALOc). As she stated, ‘I am very frustrated and stressed when it comes to the new material. We are on our own; training sessions are theoretical and are not related to our needs or our children’s needs’ (AInt4). Teachers’ strikes as a response to government cuts increased her despair (AInt2), as the union decided its members should not participate in any extracurricular activities; this stopped Alcestis attending INSET sessions on the reform which was taking place after school hours (POED, 2011). This situation put Alcestis in a difficult position and, as she admitted,
without any guidance I feel that I do not have a holistic idea of what the reform is all about, what is changing in the educational context, what is going to follow and how change will affect the teachers and the children (Alnt3).

Alcestis was extremely disappointed in the educational reform process and what the changes led to. Her expectations were not met, as she was expecting a well-structured process that would run smoothly with only limited problems (Alnt4). Her frustration and disappointment were increased when she realised that ‘the demands of the new curriculum and the abilities of the pupils, as well as between the INSET and the needs of the teachers with respect to the reform, do not match’ (Alnt4).

5.3.1.1 Emotions as a construct of professional identity

Drawing on the content of Alcestis’ vignette, it is evident that emotions constitute a fundamental aspect in a teacher’s life, particularly in changing times. The educational reform in the CES has been an ambitious and complex change, which was very demanding for Alcestis and created negative emotions. Teachers are the policymakers (Ozga, 2000) of the government reform and their voices, views, and feelings should not be ignored or marginalised. I argue that emotions influence teachers’ efforts to make meaning of reforms and analysis of these feelings is vital to obtain a deeper understanding into the ways teachers experience educational reform in their professional lives and the way their identity is affected by change. The complexity of teachers’ emotional responses to a reform and the implications of reforms for the everyday practices of teachers can be revealed through the investigation of teachers’ perceptions of the implementation of an educational reform.

The way teachers respond to reform agendas is principally determined by the extent to which teachers perceive their professional identities as being supported or threatened by externally prescriptive policy interventions. When teachers feel engaged and feel a sense of psychological ownership or possession toward the change process, the reform agenda acquires existential significance and the reforms have a better chance of
succeeding. Emotional confrontation can disrupt the whole reform initiative and the creation of negative emotions tends to challenge existing professional identities and have adverse consequences on teachers’ motivation and knowledge.

Teachers have repeatedly expressed their emotions towards the educational reform programme and I therefore consider it important to explore the concept of emotions, as they were found to affect teachers’ professional lives. In the following section, I use evidence and conceptual ideas about emotions from literature and research which has taken place in both developed and developing countries to achieve an understanding of Alcestis’ case and better understand why reforms are accepted or rejected by teachers.

Emotions are at the epicentre of teachers’ work and play a key role in the development of identity as they can operate as a ‘channel’ through which educational reforms are filtered and accepted or rejected. As Alcestis asserted:

I’m frustrated and anxious and I really do not know what is going to follow (Alnt1). For 23 years I was working in a specific way and now I am required to work in a completely different way and this frightens me a lot. I am very dissatisfied from the training we have received so far as it was informative rather than practical (Alnt2). As for the new timetables, the teaching hours in specific subjects have been reduced but the material remains the same, which has as a result increased the intensification of our work (Alnt3). I am extremely disappointed about the educational reform process and how things turned out to be, because I really believed and I still believe that this change can lead to successful school system reform (Alnt4).

Teachers who innovation in their work setting could find their effectiveness enhanced or inversed when their professional lives are characterised by change and conflict (Schmidt, 2000). As shown in Alcestis’ testimonies, negative reactions can be invoked. van Veen and Sleegers (2006) highlight the danger of the development of negative emotional reactions, even in those teachers who ideologically pledge to the reform policy, when conflicting demands and pressures are caused by the innovations. Alcestis’s testimony indicates that the role of emotions should not be underestimated or neglected while investigating the process of a policy reform agenda. The reciprocal relationship of both the educational reform and emotions implies that these concepts go
side-by-side. The hazard of considering reform initiatives mainly as external, logical and procedural will undervalue the emotional complexity, uncertainty and ambiguity involved. This could lead to unsuccessful reform strategies because of the negative emotional culture they create (Hargreaves, 2004).

Alcestis’s emotions expressed in the above quote indicate how she perceived the imposed reform and changes in her professional life. This leads to the definition given by O’Connor (2008), who regards emotions as ‘the means through which teachers personally interpret the demands placed upon them’ (p. 118). Based on a social-psychological cognitivist theory, emotions constitute a complex organised system encompassing teachers’ beliefs, perceptions, purposes, psychological conditions and subjective body experiences (Lazarus, 1999). Alcestis’s negative emotions were developed in the interactions between herself and her working setting, and can be articulated as the artefact of the evaluation of those surrounding incidents that are distinguished as most pertinent to the individual’s objectives (Oatley, 2000). van Veen and Sleegers (2006) provide a similar view on how emotions are created by claiming that they are produced by the appraisal of the relations among an individual’s concerns or goals and incidents perceived as influencing these concerns. Incidents, such as the provision of inadequate support and training, created anxiety and frustration to Alcestis and increased her concerns regarding the extent to which she would be able to keep up with changes in her working setting.

Another issue raised by the above quote is the power of habit, which has been identified by researchers as one of the main reasons why educational reforms fail (Greenberg and Baron, 2000). The power of habit, like in the case of Alcestis, prevents teachers from developing and adopting new teaching strategies and approaches, as they prefer to stick to the methods they have become used to utilising. The vast majority of teachers are comfortable with the way things are in the educational system and they do not develop a positive attitude towards educational innovations. In addition, the safety that stems from the use of well-known methods of teaching, and fear of the unknown, makes teachers
resist change. Other reasons identified in the literature for teachers’ opposition to reform include the vulnerable sense of identity (Lasky, 2005), lack of resources (Churchill, Williamson and Grady, 1997) and increased workload (van Veen, Sleegers and van de Ven, 2005). These factors were also mentioned by Phaedra, the headteacher of the school:

The educational reform is very demanding. It is expected that it will create mixed emotions among teachers. I expect that it will be much more difficult for older teachers to change their practices. They are used to working in a specific way and now they are asked to change everything. This will be very difficult as the support and the resources are inadequate for this major reform and nothing is clear. But, I believe in my team and together we will manage to overcome the difficulties (Plnt1).

The educational reforms denote an affiliation of interests or, in other words, an expression of individuals’ values, political perceptions and beliefs within a specific power framework at a particular time (Goodson, 2001). The majority of reform programmes are externally imposed, aiming at controlling the educational systems within a national context. Teachers are asked to move out of their comfort zone and embrace the directives of a reform agenda. Large-scale educational reforms are multifaceted and often comprised of contradictory expectations about how teachers’ professional practices should be. The following quote from Alcestis aptly demonstrates this situation:

Stakeholders sent new material to schools and guidelines regarding the ways in which we have to teach from now on. Taking into consideration what is expected from us, it seems that they believe that we work in an ideal setting, with adequate resources and perfect teaching and learning conditions. If they knew what is actually going on in schools and classrooms then I am sure their propositions and expectations would have been different (AInt2). Their suggestions contradict my beliefs regarding the ways in which I am supposed to teach specific units (AInt3).

As is evident, education reform in Cyprus carries certain expectations regarding teachers’ work, but on many occasions these expectations do not tally with the views of teachers about their practice, thus leading to strong emotional reactions. Alcestis often identified a mismatch between the new curricula and pupils’ needs (ALOcc). Findings
from both the PACE and the ENCOMPASS projects have also revealed that some externally imposed reforms created a tension between governmental requirements and pupils’ needs as identified by teachers (McNess, Broadfoot and Osborn, 2003).

Alcestis’s major concern was what Nias (1998) called ‘the preservation of a stable sense of personal and professional identity’ (p. 1258) as she experienced her professional identity being threatened by external interventions. Teachers who find consistency between their professional ideologies and the current changes in their working lives will respond more positively and find their professional identities supported, while teachers who experience incongruence between their views and the rhetoric of the change, like in the case of Alcestis, will respond more negatively (Schmidt and Datnow, 2005). Hence, educational reforms have a better chance of succeeding in the implementation process when teachers’ values, emotions and orientations are supported and their policy interpretations fit with their prior beliefs and values (Spillane, Reiser and Reimer, 2002).

Despite the fact she is an experienced teacher, the data revealed that Alcestis felt she could not respond to the demands of the national curriculum. In a similar vein, senior secondary teachers in China could not familiarise themselves with interdisciplinary approaches. They had major difficulties in using the new textbooks and dealing with the problematic nature of the reform and consequently lost control over teaching, emotionally resisting the change as it was a stressful and tiring process (Lee and Yin, 2010).

Teachers try to make sense of reform strategies by using their previous knowledge, practices and experiences. Any unfamiliar process causes great discomfort, and teachers tend to persist in what is convenient to them and refuse to abandon their commitments to prior practice (Spillane, Reiser and Reimer, 2002). As Nias (1989) argued:

modifications in professional practice often require individuals to alter deep-rooted, self-defining attitudes, values and beliefs; the personal
redefinition which this involves is likely to be slow, stressful and sometimes traumatic (p. 62).

As I have observed, Alcestis was feeling disengaged from the reform process as she could not find a common ground between her familiar teaching practices and the new approaches (ALOc,d). Cohen (1990) emphasised the significance of the ways in which teachers conceptualise new curricular policies through the lens of previous curricular policies. As he asserted, no matter how many innovations the new curricula embrace, the teacher will always carry previous experiences, beliefs and ideologies.

Taking into consideration the following quotes from Alcestis, another important issue in successful reform is the importance of emotional support during changing times:

"This curriculum reform is too demanding. We are required to build our material and I am not comfortable with the ideas of preparing projects as all these years I was relying on the books provided by the Ministry. Projects need time and having necessary skills to investigate, explore and find suitable material for the kids. This stresses me a lot and I don’t know if I can handle all this pressure. If it wasn’t for Electra to support me both emotionally and practically by helping me with the material, I would have been lost. Her help is very much appreciated and I am grateful that I have her as my peer (AInt3)."

The provision of emotional support to Alcestis was very important. On many occasions, she was observed feeling worried about the reform process, and felt more relaxed when she was working in collaboration with Electra to build up the new material (GOb). In my research diary I noted that Electra was continuously pushing her to try new approaches in her teaching process and was frequently giving Alcestis help and support (GOb,c,d). Teachers develop their professional identities by embracing or resisting educational innovations and that provision of emotional support is important throughout the reform process (Schmidt and Datnow, 2005). The rhetoric of educational change is emotionally charged, and only by maintaining emotional welfare can successful reform happen and encourage teachers to take risks in ambivalent situations (Harris, 2004). Echoing Harris (2004), van Veen and Sleegers (2009) note that ‘the main challenge for all those involved in innovations is to understand these emotions and organize teachers’ work and
reforms in a way that will make positive use of those emotions, dedication, and motivation’ (p. 247).

Alcestis, who was the teacher with the most years of experience and in a higher post than the other teachers, had a different emotional reaction than the younger teachers. This finding correlates with Hargreaves’ (2005) qualitative study regarding the emotional reactions of 50 teachers in a range of elementary and secondary schools in Canada. It was evident that demographic characteristics such as age and career stage played a significant role on teachers’ emotional reaction. Specifically, those teachers with 20 or more years of experience were more likely to react negatively to change, whereas those with less than six years of experience were most likely to express their willingness to embrace change and take risks to implement reforms that involved learning new skills or changing their core values and beliefs.

The disorganisation of the reform process in Cyprus, unpreparedness in terms of infrastructure and lack of support and guidance (GOa-d) intensified Alcestis’ negative feelings and consequently preventing her from taking any risks.

Despite the promises and commitments that the schools will be ready to embrace the educational reform, none of them were fulfilled. The material was not ready, the books were not sent to schools on time and the training was impractical. They promised reduction of teaching material. The material remained the same and instead they reduced the teaching hours in core subjects. So basically, I have less time to teach the same content. I am extremely disappointed about the educational reform process and how things turned out to be. We were expecting a well-structured process that would have run smoothly, but unfortunately this is not the case. I feel disengaged from the whole process, although in the beginning I was excited about it (AInt4).

Changes in teachers’ working settings have a profound impact on teaching and learning procedures and in turn have a major influence on their emotions. When professional identity is at stake, teachers tend to search for ‘escape’ routes, such as anxiety, stress and resistance (Bolívar and Domingo, 2006, p. 344; van Veen and Sleegers, 2006). Jeffrey and Woods (1996) came across the ignition of negative emotions (professional uncertainty, anxiety, confusion, frustration and dissatisfaction) when they explored
primary school teachers’ reactions towards the implementation of the de-professionalised change imposed by the government.

Prior to the introduction of the reform, Alcestis, the deputy headteacher, was pleased with the suggestions of the reform programme (GOa). However, the introduction of the new curricula was accompanied by many problems, which created incongruence between her expectations and what the reform actually turned out to be. van Veen, Sleegers and van de Ven (2005) also explored reform’s implications for teachers’ professional and personal identity in the Netherlands. David, an enthusiastic language and literature teacher, initially embraced the reform agenda, yet when the required conditions in which he was supposed to implement the reform paralysed and no longer corresponded to his beliefs and ideas, his willingness to change and take risks decreased. This situation created emotions of anger and frustration and his identity was challenged significantly as he succumbed to time constraints, loss of self-esteem and strong negative experiences.

The investigation of teachers’ emotions during changing times provided an understanding of Alcestis’s emotional dimension of identity at a time of curriculum reform in Cyprus as ‘it is through our subjective emotional world that we develop our personal constructs and meanings of our outer realities and make sense of our relationships and eventually our place in the wider world’ (Day, 2002, p. 685). Emotions guide teachers’ professional practices and decisions; therefore, it is imperative to investigate this concept in order to gain useful insights into how reform efforts influence teachers’ professional practice and experiences.

5.3.2 Account two: Calypso

As I repeatedly observed during my fieldwork, Calypso seemed to be very passionate about her work. Specifically, she was both emotionally and intellectually engaged in teaching, which resulted in a continuing willingness to reflect upon practice to improve
learning opportunities (CLOb,d). She demonstrated a genuine care for her pupils and she did not hesitate to invest personal resources in an effort to improve the learning conditions of her pupils (GOc, CLOc). As the novice teacher stated, ‘I place great value in preparing the children for the exploration into knowledge and cultivation of core skills as well as passing on certain values and beliefs that are valuable for them’ (CInt3). In my research diary, I recorded that a considerable amount of Calypso’s personal time was spent not only on marking, planning, organising and preparing suitable material but on working during her breaks with students who needed extra help (GOb,c). Her passion for teaching was a motivating factor in overcoming everyday difficulties such as unworkable software, unsuitable material that did not match with students’ age group or teaching hours, and insufficient resources. Instead of quitting, she adjusted the material, found her own resources and proceeded with teaching that new material (CLOd).

Calypso was the first teacher coming in to the school and the last to leave (Goa-d). In order to competently fulfil the demanding role of a teacher, especially in changing times, her work extended beyond the school day. As she stated in her interviews, ‘my continuous participation in CPD courses help to improve professional knowledge and cultivate my skills even further. Keeping up with the latest technological advancements and trends in education is one of my main goals’ (CInt1-4). Within the current climate of reform, she did not hesitate to share her personal knowledge and expertise with her colleagues. Specifically, she was observed to support her peers to maximise their skills (GOd) as she believed that ‘the only way to make this educational reform work is through meaningful collaboration’ (CInt4). Calypso was also involved in a range of activities outside of her classroom. This involvement included taking on responsibilities for the smooth integration of curriculum reform in the school (GOb,c,d). Despite the lack of support, the intensification of teachers’ role and the pace of the current reform agenda, the research findings indicate that this novice teacher was positively challenged by its complexity and worked towards finding ways to be a creative mediator of the education policy (GOd, CLOb,c,d). As she declared:
I try to protect my pupils from what I consider as the worst aspects of the reform. I consult with the curriculum and I interpret it based on my understanding of what is best for my children and I do my best to work within a creative discourse without neglecting the externally imposed initiatives (CInt4).

5.3.2.1 Commitment as a construct of professional identity

Drawing on the content of Calypso’s vignette, it is evident that teacher commitment is a construct of professional identity and a critical factor in influencing teaching and learning practices, as it is firmly attached to the teaching profession. My argument is that teachers’ commitment plays a key role in the success of education reform agendas as it has an impact on teachers’ willingness to participate in a joint, insightful and critical practice.

The rigorous and demanding changes as well as the ways and extent to which reform agendas are received, embraced, adapted and sustained, seem to have a considerable impact upon teachers’ commitment to their work (Day and Kington, 2008). Even within a demanding climate of education reform, some teachers, in this case Calypso, maintain their commitment by creating spaces in which they mediate change.

Teacher commitment is an important contributing factor to attaining quality teaching and good student performance and learning outcomes. Commitment can also affect whether teacher turnout or burnout occurs, the ‘healthiness’ of a school and the ability of teachers to both mediate change and adapt the daunting demands of changing teachers’ work for the ‘knowledge society’ and beyond (Day, 2004; Firestone and Rosenblum, 1988; Tsui and Cheng, 1999). As Calypso stated:

I give my whole heart to my work because I want to make a difference to children’s lives (CInt1). I spend many hours working and preparing, attending seminars and training courses. I spend half of my life in schools and I devote extra time in order to improve myself (CInt3). Teaching is not just my job, it's a part of who I am (CInt2). It holds a very important place in my life and despite the fact we encounter many problems within the CES such as lack of autonomy, external mandates, inadequate resources, I am working hard to overcome them and provide the best education to the children because this is what I am devoted to do (CInt4).
Calypso’s strong bond with her profession leads us to the definition of commitment as proposed by Kanter (1974), who defined it as ‘a process of binding actors into social systems’ (p. 145), and a process through which teachers are eager to offer their devotion and energy to a particular social setting that is ‘expressing the needs and nature of the person’ (p. 127). Mowday et al. (1979) suggested that commitment emerges when the two concepts of an organisation’s systemic needs and individual experiences overlap, thus perceiving commitment as concurrently social/behavioural and psychological/attitudinal and inherently attached to the specific social structure. Having said this, teachers’ commitment should not be equated solely to organisational commitment. Teacher commitment is a complex and multidimensional notion and it cannot be regarded simply as organisational commitment or, as other educational researchers have claimed (Day, 2004; Nias, 1981; Tyree, 1996), as commitment to contextual factors such as a group of students, professional learning, the teaching profession or career continuance. Instead, as it is identified in Calypso’s quotes, it should also be regarded as an emotional and intellectual engagement.

The words ‘commitment’ and ‘devotion’ appeared in all four interviews conducted with Calypso. In addition to this, during observations in and outside of the classroom, I was able to witness her bonding with her students through her work. In a similar mode, Nias (1989), in her earlier research study that lasted over a 20-year period with 54 primary school teachers, noted that the word ‘commitment’ appeared in almost every interview. This term was utilised to distinguish those teachers who were ‘caring’, ‘dedicated’ and who ‘take the job seriously’ from those who ‘put their own interests first’ (p. 29). Additionally, teachers in both Australia and England utilised phrases in interviews such as ‘commitment is part of you’ to indicate its relationship with their whole identity (Day, Elliot and Kington, 2005). These studies indicate that commitment is not situated exclusively within a conceptual framework of understanding professional practice but can be related to many teachers’ genuine desire to work with children and to make a difference in young people’s lives.
Working in a collaborative and friendly environment makes me stay motivated and committed. I cannot stress enough how important it is to feel good with the people you work with. Due to the bad relationship I had with my previous headteacher and the continuous conflicts I had with her, I was very disappointed and I wanted to stop working and do something else. I couldn’t do my job, she wanted her teachers to work in the teacher-centred tradition way and this was just wrong. I felt that I couldn’t offer anything to my students as my values and ideologies were not in congruence with those of the headteacher. It was a bad and stressful period for me (CInt3).

Sustained commitment is regarded as the key expression of the dynamic interplay among identity, agency and setting; it is socially constructed and a product of both personal and professional moral purposes and values (Day et al., 2007). Calypso’s testimony also indicated that commitment is neither fixed nor static; it is primarily influenced by the micro-political, emotional, social and political setting of teachers’ work and their sense of identity, and is situated in personal moral purposes and professional interests. Ebmeier’s and Nicklaus’s (1999) term of teachers’ commitment relates commitment with the concept of emotions by identifying commitment as part of a teacher’s affective reaction to their experience in a school environment and part of the process of decisions regarding the level of personal investment in a specific school or group of students. This relationship is central to conceptualising teachers’ perceptions of their practices, peers and school administration and the interaction among these and teachers’ professional life.

In the organisational commitment literature, there is a wide range of views regarding the relationship of one's commitment and an administrator's leadership style (Yu, 2002). Nevertheless, despite the fact that most studies indicate that leadership style impacts commitment and engagement, a study in Canada concluded that headteachers’ leadership style has limited influence on teachers’ level of commitment, and principals only had an impact when there was a level of congruence between their value orientations and with that of teachers (Sun, 2004). Similarly to this Canadian study, Calypso’s commitment was influenced only when there was a commonality between her professional orientation and the headteacher’s leadership.
Calypso’s testimony indicates that school environment plays a key role in sustaining teacher commitment, as the inherent cultures can have an impact on teachers’ behaviour. Commitment occurs when teachers identify to a great extent with the philosophy, values and vision of the school. Teachers who are committed to the school’s goals are more likely to engage in collaborative and cooperative activities with their other stakeholders and explore ways to support the school and professional practices (Ebmeier and Nicklaus, 1999).

Teacher commitment was higher in contexts where guidelines were understandable, clearly communicated, and functional (Sun, 2004). In the Olive Tree Primary School, every week the teachers and the headteacher were meeting in order to set the agenda and goals for the next week (MO2,3,4). Phaedra, the headteacher of the school, clarified that setting goals and adopting strategies made the introduction of the major reform in the school as smooth as possible and kept most teachers committed and motivated. Having a clear, persistent set of moral purposes and ideologies which inform professional practice regardless of social setting, as well as a clear set of standards, has been found to develop and boost teachers’ commitment (Day, Elliot and Kington, 2005). Phaedra’s account below suggests that when the vision of the proposed agenda is integrated within the decisions and actions of the school, the reform process is promising (Schwahn and Spady, 1998).

The introduction of the new curriculum reform in the school was relatively smooth because during weekly meetings we had discussions on certain aspects of the reform that interested us and we were willing to work on them. We did not regard the reform as a whole but as a lot of pieces. Every time we were taking a piece and working on it. After selecting the part of the reform which interested us, we were setting targets which had to be accomplished within two weeks or a month, depending on the difficulties we had to encounter and how challenging it was. It was the only way to survive from this maze. By giving clear instructions and setting up a specific framework, the majority of teachers were willing to reach the goals and stay committed throughout the process (Plnt2).

A school headteacher’s role in policy enactment should not be neglected, as it influences how teachers react to change. The school leader of the Olive Tree Primary School,
Phaedra, affected the ways in which teachers conceptualised and enacted policy documents by nurturing conditions for teacher development, by designing opportunities for teachers to find out more about new practices and by ‘influencing the social process by which teachers constructed their understandings of reading policy’ (Coburn, 2005, p. 484). Particularly, she was encouraging teachers' participation in CPD activities to improve their skills and become more able to cope with major changes in their professional lives. Furthermore, she invited external experts to assist teachers with any issues they encountered and encouraged them to read the new material in order to familiarise themselves with the new techniques. What is more, in order to facilitate the process of change every week, in collaboration with teachers they were setting a specific goal of the educational reform which was either long term or short term and complied with the existing vision of the school. With this technique, the headteacher turned attention to specific aspects of the reform process by setting technical parameters within which teachers' sense-making could be unfolded (Coburn, 2005).

As discussed above, there seems to be a consensus among researchers regarding the factors that tend to influence teachers' commitment to their profession. Additionally, positive working relationships and having control and ownership are also believed to support commitment. On the contrary, contexts in which uncertainty is embedded, lack of professional support and resources, and negative working relationships with the headteacher, peers, parents and students diminish teachers' commitment. Day, Elliot and Kington (2005), in a qualitative study on a group of Australian and English teachers, revealed that offering and receiving support from peers, positive feedback from colleagues and shared educational moral purposes with the school organisation can sustain teachers' commitment, like in the case of Calypso. On the other hand, factors such as the imposition of external educational innovations, the reduction of professional autonomy and sense of agency, inadequate instructional resources and increased bureaucratisation can negatively influence teachers' commitment.
The system environment, particularly externally imposed reform agendas, limited funding and resourcing, and lack of support for teachers to familiarise themselves with the new approaches were identified as the factors negatively affecting teachers’ commitment within the system context. However, there are certain factors, such as increased autonomy in teachers’ work, active engagement in decision-making and control and impact over the reform, which sustain teachers’ commitment (Firestone and Pennell, 1993). The lack of autonomy as a result of the CES’s powerful, hierarchically top-down structure leaves no space for teachers to take action outside of the classroom. Despite the fact that teachers’ professional autonomy was one of the aims of the reform programme, the situation in schools is unchanged and teachers’ autonomy is restricted to the micro level of the school, their classroom (CLOb,c,d). As Calypso stated:

In an attempt to show us that we are treated as professionals and that we have the opportunity to participate in decision-making procedures, teachers were invited to participate in the development of the new curricula. The Ministry said that all comments and suggestions would be utilised during the development of the new curricula. But who knows the extent to which those comments and ideas were really taken into serious account? I don’t think the Ministry would be comfortable in offering much power to teachers as they afraid of losing control. Furthermore, 360 teachers were involved in the planning process; most of them were seconded to the Ministry, had never taught in schools and had no idea about what is really going on in the classrooms or the problems we face every day. So I strongly believe that we are still asked to accommodate changes as decided and imposed by the Ministry and this only indicates that we are just pawns in the game of reform (Clnt1).

In Chapter two, I presented MoEC’s efforts as they were described in official documents, with respect to the distribution of power and how they have given the chance to teachers to participate in the reform process. In addition, stakeholders established the advisory councils of education (Primary, Secondary and Higher Education Councils) to minimise the gap between Ministry officials and teachers. However, based on Calypso’s account it is evident that the allocation of responsibilities to the local level does not automatically mean that teachers were having their voices heard. This situation caused great dissatisfaction to Calypso, but her commitment was unaffected as she recognised that in her classroom she had the autonomy and power to proceed and work as she considered
appropriately. This novice teacher also considered that professional autonomy is not only limited but also creates the feeling of minimal appreciation and little recognition of professional practices (Ballet and Kelchtermans, 2008).

Calypso reported many times the lack of meaningful resources and support. Also, during observations inside and outside of the classroom (GOd), I witnessed her struggle to find appropriate teaching material and workable software to use during teaching as well as contact the individuals who participated in the development of the curricula (CLOd). As she admitted in her interview,

Instead of being facilitated and encouraged to use the new material and teaching methods, we continuously have to face many problems. I am extremely disappointed because I spend so much time on the design of the lesson plans for the new teaching units and in the end I come to realise that the resources like software are not working properly. I tried to contact reform coordinators but I got no response. But I am not giving up. I said to myself that will do my best to design the teaching units based on the new philosophy and offer the best education I can for my children (CInt4).

Prior to the introduction of the education reform, research data collected at the micro level indicated that parental participation in certain occasions was not restricted to school events and parent–teacher meetings (Symeou, 2002) during which the teacher was sharing her/his accounts about the child’s performance and the parent was just listening (Georgiou, 1996); instead, it moved from marginal involvement to group effort and collaboration where all stakeholders engaged in school activities and educational procedures. In order to reinforce their relationships with parents, teachers of the Olive Tree Primary School invited them to a series of activities throughout the year. Specifically, parents were invited to observe lessons and actively participate in the teaching process and collaborate with teachers (GOa). This kind of activity enjoyed great acceptance by parents, who were not passive receivers of school plans but, on the contrary, were given the chance to actively participate in their children’s learning and get access to their school life. Nevertheless, among the parents there was a range of engagement, so while some parents became active participants in the school, there
were some who kept their distance (Phtiaka, 1996). Calypso raised this issue, but also referred to the fact that the parents who teachers want the most to meet and discuss their children with are usually the ones who never attend meetings or any other school activities (Clnt1).

After the introduction of the reform agenda, teacher-parent relationships were challenged upon teachers’ decision to go on strikes and not participate in any extra-curricular activities in order to show their dissatisfaction over governmental cuts (GOb). This decision was challenged by many parents as they were concerned it would affect their children’s performance and well-being to a great extent. In many cases during that period, the president of the teachers’ union was coming into conflict with the president of the Parents’ Association. This situation is illustrated in the following newspaper extracts:

The president of the parents’ association reported that the financial cuts in education have created quite a few problems in the system. The biggest fear among parents is the strike measures that have been announced by the teacher union, as these will affect the smooth functioning of the schools (Penintaex, 2011).

Despite parents’ nudges towards teachers to cancel their announced measures, the teachers’ union does not draw back and insists on planned protests against the set of measures to restructure the economy. As reported by the president of the teachers’ union, ‘under no circumstances can parents interfere with their decisions’ (Sigmalive, 2011).

Parents did not hesitate to ask for the intervention of the Minister of Education:

Parents asked the Minister of Education to obstruct teachers’ measures. Moreover, they reported that they would not hesitate to go to court as they considered teachers’ actions to affect in a negative way the children and their rights. In response to this, the president of the teachers’ union stressed that the union does not accept threats from anyone as their decision is clear and they will proceed as decided (Sigmalive, 2011).

The majority of teachers, including Calypso, expressed their disappointment with the absence of support from parents. Parental demands have been found to have negative
effects upon teachers’ energy and enthusiasm (Helsby, 1999) and this is evident from Calypso’s testimony below as well:

Parents are important individuals and we desperately want their collaboration and their active involvement in the school; that is why we have started arranging activities in the schools that make their contribution essential. However, I am disappointed with the fact that they did not stand by our side during the strikes and they demanded their discontinuation. I witnessed an incident that made me furious. I attended a ceremony organised by the parents’ association of another school and the president of the association during his speech started to mock and deride teachers for their decision to go on strike. Where is the mutual understanding and respect? They should have known better that we wouldn’t have done anything to hurt children. Sometimes I wonder if it is worth to commit to this extent when suddenly your contribution is forgotten immediately (CInt3).

With respect to the professional context, researchers (Day, 2004; Nias, 1981) draw a strong connection between teachers’ engagement in on-going professional learning and their commitment. Teachers who are committed to professional knowledge are more likely to attend CPD courses and engage in a constant reflection of their professional practices. In her study, Crosswell (2006) found that teachers who considered professional learning as their obligation seemed to be more open to educational reforms and new approaches as well as more eager to explore the innovations, critically analyse them and examine how they might fit in their current work.

Calypso had also asserted the importance of teachers’ engagement in CPD courses, especially in changing times:

I participate in a wide range of CPD activities because I want to be up to date with respect to new trends in education but also to cultivate necessary skills especially now with this major curriculum reform. The INSET with respect to the reform was insufficient and irrelevant to our needs; therefore, I considered it important to seek help and guidance from other sources such as these CPD courses (CInt4).

Calypso’s enduring willingness to reflect upon experience and the setting in which practice takes place, and to be adaptable and engage both intellectual and affective engagement, are factors that have been related to teachers’ commitment. Australian and English teachers linked teachers’ commitment with professional learning and they
utilised phrases such as ‘improving practice’ to signal that being committed to teaching meant continuing engagement in learning (Day, Elliot and Kington, 2005).

As Day (1999) advocated, teachers’ engagement in CPD activities allows teachers to:

- review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives (p. 4).

Calypso’s personal context has been influential on her teacher commitment. As it was observed, this novice teacher was more motivated than her older peers in her work (CLOb,c,d). A number of studies have also indicated that demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, qualification, marital status, professional position and training affect commitment to a great extent (Tsui and Cheng, 1999).

In a study of 78 elementary schools and 1,213 teachers in Tennessee, Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) investigated the extent to which the level of teacher commitment varied between newly qualified teachers (1-5 years), midcareer teachers (6-10 years), and veteran teachers (10+ years) and found a moderate change throughout the teaching career, which rises and falls after five years and to some extent returns in the last stage. Despite the fact that Riehl and Sipple (1996) found no correlation between years of experience and commitment, the researchers seem to agree with Rosenholtz and Simpson's (1990) outcome that teachers who hold more advanced degrees than others have a higher level of commitment than those who do not.

By investigating teachers’ commitment in times of change, it was evident that commitment is greatly affected by policy developments. If reform agendas pose too much burden, teachers may distance themselves from their work. Nevertheless, the relationship between external innovations, teachers’ commitment and identity has not been the subject of much research, nor is it evident in the policies of those who believe that they can control everyday practices from the centre. It is clear that teacher
commitment to reform policies is crucial and needs to be addressed, otherwise reform is more likely to be unsuccessful in the longer term (Day, 2002). Therefore, to maintain teachers' commitment, which is a sense of professional identity, schools need to become settings that support professional development and promote teachers’ engagement in intellectual professional practices (Nieto, 2003).

5.3.3 Account three: Daphne

Daphne considered teaching a profession which gave her the opportunity to be creative, meet new people, change her working environment and not be entangled in rigorous and on-going routine (DInt3,4). The research findings indicated that the benefits that this profession is associated with, such as salary, hours and holidays, were significant sources of her satisfaction (DInt2). Working with children and building good relationships with them were also emotional rewards for Daphne (DInt3). She was observed to spend most of her time in her classroom, even during breaks, and this led to keeping limited contact with peers and an absence from any kind of conversations regarding the major reform policy or any other school issues (GOb,c,d). As she confessed, ‘I feel that I am accountable for a wide range of activities, which are not related to my work (DInt3). This situation not only distracts me from my main duties and teaching process, but it also causes a lot of stress and pressure’ (DInt4). She considered that teachers are hard-working individuals who do not receive the respect and the credit they deserve (DInt4). Daphne stated that ‘teachers are subjugated on an everyday basis and are considered pawns ready to implement any externally imposed agendas or to execute whatever the Ministry wants’ (DInt4). She felt that ‘teachers’ work is being underestimated especially this year during which a major reform is taking place in schools’ (DInt3).

In her attempt to work on a project following the philosophy of the educational reform, lesson observation revealed that Daphne encountered many difficulties in terms of finding suitable material to use with her pupils. During the teaching and learning process, she was insecure, worried and less confident. As it was recorded, Daphne was clearly
out of her comfort zone, and looking forward to returning to the use of prescribed textbooks which she perceived offered her security and support (DLOd). The 33 year-old teacher did not hesitate to share her dissatisfaction with the current evaluation system as ‘all teachers are assigned the same points depending on their years of experience and position, and they do not receive meaningful feedback or praise for good performance’ (DInt1). For her, the system cultivates a culture of distrust and competitiveness among teachers who engage in a constant struggle to fill in their portfolio with evidence in order to impress their supervisors during the inspection period (DInt1,4).

5.3.3.1 Job satisfaction as a construct of professional identity

Drawing on the content of Daphne’s vignette, it is evident that job satisfaction is a significant concept which plays an important role in teachers’ work and lives. I argue that job satisfaction is an essential component of professional identity, which symbolises the outcome of the interplay between the teacher and their context. Therefore, any factors that increase or inhibit job satisfaction are also very likely to support or challenge teachers’ professional identity respectively.

Teachers’ job satisfaction has been the focus of a range of studies over the past decade. A qualitative research study undertaken by Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004) revealed a congruency between research studies in developed countries about teacher job satisfaction with those in developing countries. The findings indicated that the main sources of teacher job satisfaction matched those stated by the majority of researchers in developed countries. However, there is a lack of consensus regarding what job satisfaction means. The complexity and ambiguity of the term has been neglected by many researchers, as most of them fail to define the concept, assuming that everyone is familiar with it. Daphne’s quotes below suggest that the degree of job satisfaction felt by teachers is the artefact of a match among the needs of the individuals and what the job offers, and that job satisfaction is linked to both extrinsic and intrinsic factors. On the one hand, extrinsic satisfaction derives from rewards, such as salary and job security (Lawler
and Porter, 1967), as well as personal influences; for example, students' selection of the teaching profession because of the pressure of their families (Papanastasiou and Papanastasiou, 1997). On the other hand, intrinsic satisfaction derives from teachers' work with children, love for children, social relations, and having the opportunity for professional development (Lortie, 1975; Latham, 1998). As Daphne stated:

Being a teacher in Cyprus means very good salary, three months holidays, attractive working schedule. Frankly, these were the main reasons why I selected to follow this career after graduating high school as well as because my parents encouraged me to do so (DInt2). However, I love working with children, being creative, meeting new people. Every year is different. There is no routine like in other professions and in addition there are opportunities to develop professionally (DInt4).

Status, respect and recognition are conceived as important factors of job satisfaction. Cockburn (2000) highlighted that teachers were satisfied when they were receiving a positive impression of their performance from staff and pupils. Teachers may be motivated by recognition, interest, praise and reassurance and 'it is very important for teachers to be told how well or not they are working and how valued or not are their ideas and contributions' (Dunham, 1980, p. 18). In a similar mode, Bogler and Somech (2004) argued that when teachers feel that they are respected (status), they are committed to their work, are satisfied and perform at a high level.

Teachers in Cyprus have benefited from considerable public respect, but in the last decade they have seen their status decline. The research findings reveal that their work is continuously being criticised by the media, parents and the Ministry. Daphne ventured her view that values and morals have decayed over the past years in Cypriot society. The CES is linked to these social problems as each school is a microcosm of the society. The condemnation of teachers' strikes by other stakeholders and the media, along with the ongoing public criticisms of teachers and the increasing pressure on them, reinforced Daphne's opinion that teachers are no longer appreciated or respected; many teachers have thus seen their professional confidence start to erode. Daphne expressed her dissatisfaction towards the lack of respect and recognition of teachers in the CES:
I feel that our work is being underestimated, especially this year with this major reform. Our strikes, as a response to financial measures taken by the government, were heavily criticised by the media, parents and the Ministry (DInt2). Teachers are hard-working individuals who do not receive the respect and the credit they deserve. The media hammers us. I feel like they criticise every move we do. If you look at the newspapers’ headings or the news during the period of our strikes you would see resentment (DInt3). I ask myself, why bother? Why shall I continue to devote my time? For what purpose? Individuals outside of this profession think that our job is easy and very relaxing with many privileges. Some children also think the same and this is terrible as we are losing their respect (DInt1).

Daphne’s quotes indicate that the factors that have an impact upon teacher satisfaction are no longer narrowed to the micro level of the school setting. While earlier models of teacher job satisfaction highlighted the two-dimensional nature of job satisfaction (Appendix 12) by assuming that there are factors that create satisfaction (satisfiers) whilst there are other elements which may lead to dissatisfaction (dissatisfiers), Dinham and Scott (2000) suggested the existence of a third dimension that has a major importance in determining how individuals feel about their work. The researchers of the International Teacher 2000 Project – an international study on teacher satisfaction, motivation and health – argued that this third dimension encompasses factors such as the system level, as well as wider social forces, for example externally imposed reformed agendas, teachers’ status and their portrayal in the media. Dinham and Scott (2000) highlighted that the social context seems to be a powerful predictor of teacher satisfaction. As Garrett (1999) noted, the social setting, teachers’ attitudes and their working conditions are closely related in a very complex way, and it is important to conceptualise them more thoroughly. An example that justifies the existence of the ‘third domain’ as suggested by Dinham and Scott (2000) can be found in a qualitative study conducted in Cyprus by Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004), who concluded that the interlinking of teachers’ inherent motivation to teach in order to make a difference in education and power relationships at the national level have a significant impact on teachers’ work.
In Daphne’s case, working with children was one of her main sources of satisfaction (DInt3). However, her involvement in various extra-curricular tasks resulted in great dissatisfaction and excessive absenteeism (GOd). Her lack of time to work with peers had clear implications for the extent to which she was able to work collaboratively with other teachers. As I noted in my research diary, Daphne was isolated and was absent from any collaborative procedures or discussions about the educational reform, or any other educational matters (GOd). Non-contact time can lead either to isolation, like in Daphne’s case, or ‘balkanization’ – where teachers are not isolated but instead working in smaller subgroups or year groups within the school, rather than embracing a whole school perspective (Hargreaves, 1994). As Daphne confessed:

> I feel that I am responsible for one million things which unfortunately have nothing to do with my classroom and my students. Doing all the paperwork by myself and being in charge of many extra-curricular activities (ICT coordinator, webpage developer, technician) distracted me from teaching and limited my interaction with the kids. On top of this, I don’t feel that my peers appreciate any of my efforts. This year with these extra responsibilities I did not give any emphasis on the reform as I didn’t have the time to do so. In terms of my work now, I am only doing the basics just to fulfil the requisites of the school and the headteacher. I don’t have the time to participate in any developmental activities or do anything else (DInt4).

As shown in Daphne’s account, the increase in responsibilities, stress and workload resulted in emotional fatigue, overwhelming negativity towards the profession and consequently burnout. As Huberman (1995) suggested in his study regarding the career trajectories of Swiss secondary teachers who ‘had been heavily involved in schoolwide or districtwide projects throughout their careers’ (p. 205), these teachers were less likely to feel satisfaction with respect to their profession than their peers. A statistically significant relationship has been identified in a study of 545 teachers in Maltese secondary schools between teacher stress and satisfaction in teaching (Borg and Riding, 1991). Work intensification, bureaucratisation, increased forms of managerialism and greater accountability (Campbell and Neill, 1994; Helsby, 1999; Ozga, 1995) are but a few examples that decrease teachers’ job satisfaction and sense of professionalism. Hargreaves (1994) and Nias (1996) indicated a number of factors that undermine
teachers’ sense of job satisfaction, which are related to the monotony of daily routines, lack of support and appreciation from peers and administration.

In a similar pattern, Shann (1998) identified factors that contribute to increased teacher dissatisfaction, listing administrative routines, increased paperwork, problems related to workload and expectations. Depression, frustration, cynicism, detachment from colleagues, depersonalisation, irritability, low competence, provision of low quality teaching experiences and performance at a minimum level are symptoms of teacher burnout (Friedman, 1993; Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2011) which Daphne started to show. This is despite the fact that working with children, having opportunities to try new teaching and learning ideas, participating in reform efforts, developing social relations with peers and having opportunities for personal and professional development are factors that boost teachers’ satisfaction (Cockburn, 2000).

Research on teacher satisfaction has also indicated the relationship between leadership styles and teacher satisfaction. Successful headteachers provide high-quality leadership and supervision, offer support, encourage teachers, foster teacher motivation and autonomy and take into serious consideration the availability of necessary teaching resources (Sargent and Hannum, 2005). As Schmoker (1997) highlighted, ‘unless the administrator expresses pride and interest in the success of the project, unless the teacher leader is carefully selected and given support and encouragement, the effort will probably die’ (p. 145). Phaedra, the headteacher, acknowledged how important the provision of support was both emotionally and in terms of resources, especially in changing times:

I believe that when teachers need me I am by their side. My door is always open. Any time we can discuss whatever troubles them. I frequently offer my advice to them as a senior teacher. I encourage them to participate in INSET, do some co-teaching, to upload material to the website so everyone can have the opportunity to access this material (PInt2).
An important determinant of job satisfaction is the control of teachers’ work. Having autonomy, independence and participating in decision making were found to support job satisfaction (Cockburn, 2000). The lack of autonomy as a result of the high centrality of the education system in Cyprus was among the leading causes of dissatisfaction among teachers. van den Berg (2002) also reported the lack of participation in decision making, as well as lack of trust in teachers’ expertise, as reducers of teacher job satisfaction. The reform programme has proposed allocation of responsibilities to the local level influenced by international trends towards decentralisation of educational systems. Nevertheless, teachers’ participation in important decisions remains limited. It was apparent from both the observations and interviews that the headteacher was the dominant figure in the school, diminishing even more the levels of autonomy for teachers. During the observations of weekly meetings, teachers had the opportunity to share their concerns, thoughts and make propositions; however, the final decisions were made by the headteacher (MO1-4). Daphne’s interview extract below reflects the existing condition in the school:

We do not have the power to change anything or take any initiatives outside of our classrooms (DInt1). Since increasing teachers’ professional autonomy was one of the aims of the reform programme, we hoped that things will change but this is not the case. We are still required to implement the ministerial circulars arriving in schools on a daily basis and our autonomy is still restricted to the micro level of the school, our classroom. Only if the headteacher is willing to give up some power then the teachers will be able to make decisions on their own and have their voice being heard regarding important issues (DInt4).

The investigation of literature on job satisfaction offered a useful insight regarding factors which contribute to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. While teachers’ professional life is a key element of effective policy making, teachers’ job satisfaction is most of the time a critically ignored factor in educational policy-making (Hargreaves, 1994), and the Cyprus case is no exception. In order to engage teachers in such a demanding process as a major change in their educational lives, it is important they are motivated and satisfied to a great extent. Research is clear on this matter; keeping teachers satisfied is
a key component of effective policy-making as it is assumed that increased levels of satisfaction can benefit teachers themselves and their pupils as well.

5.3.4 Account four: Electra

Electra was an experienced teacher with a strong belief in her abilities, skills and power to make important decisions about the conduct of her work at the micro level of her classroom (ELOa). As it was recorded in my research diary, prior to the introduction of the reform, Electra was in control of her work with a sense of being able to manage excessive work demands instead of being overwhelmed by them. She was able to identify her mistakes in terms of teaching and proceed with changes in order to improve the teaching and learning procedures (ELOb). With the introduction of the new national curriculum, she was stressed and anxious about the effect of the reform on her children and consequently on her work (GOb, ELOb,c). As she admitted:

During the first months of the implementation I was self-doubtful about the extent to which the material I was selecting was suitable for my children, whether the aims of the new curriculum would be achieved, whether I was doing enough, doing as much as others, or as well as others (Elnt3).

The 38 year-old teacher was working under many constraints, such as lack of support, training and limited resources (GOa-d). Specifically, ‘the disorganisation with respect to the distribution of new books and material caused confusion and as a result I did not have a holistic idea of the time framework for each unit and how to proceed with the material’ (Elnt2). Electra was observed to work hard to integrate the new demands into what she considered as good practice for her children. Even in times when the material was not suitable for the children, she was managing to manoeuvre and find solutions to emerging problems so that children would not suffer because of this problematic aspect of the reform (ELOc,d). Before proceeding with teaching a new unit, she was making sure that she was well aware of the subject. Research data indicated that Electra was continuously researching suitable resources and material, integrating technology and
promoting the development of creativity and critical thinking, and she did not hesitate to try new ideas and see how things worked with her pupils (Goa-d). By the end of the year, she was able to interpret the education policy based on her own understanding, take control of educational changes and respond to them in a creative way (ELOd). The strong collaborative relationship Electra had with Alcestis was an important factor for her and, as she confessed, ‘I was encouraged to make my own decisions about how to move forward and how to handle the whole process without letting the reform affect me in a way that would prevent me from offering quality teaching to children’ (EInt4).

5.3.4.1 Professional confidence as a construct of professional identity

Drawing on the content of Electra’s vignette, it is evident that having control over changes in working settings requires confidence in order to develop, negotiate and use knowledge, which implies a strong sense of professionalism. Electra’s confidence was affected in a negative way during the first three months of the reform introduction in the school. The following extract illustrates her concerns about the possible impact of low confidence in terms of her teaching practices:

When it comes to the new material I have no confidence on how to teach it and how to move forward (EInt2). For the first time after 16 years as a teacher I encounter this kind of problem. We haven’t received any guidance or support. We are on our own. I don’t know where to seek for some help because my peers are also confused. The last thing I want is my pupils to sense that I can’t control the situation and that I am frustrated about the whole process. I need to find a way to get control (EInt3).

Electra felt insecure and doubted her abilities to act on the policy reform agenda (GOb) during the first period of implementation. This lack of confidence, caused by teachers’ uncertainty in their competence to cover the national curriculum, may result in a loss of the fulfilment and enjoyment felt by some teachers (Osborn et al., 2000). Hargreaves (1994) asserted the role of reforms in weakening certainty. In a study of 78 public elementary schools in Tennessee, Rosenholtz (1989) concluded that uncertainty emerged in school contexts where teachers did not have the confidence to proceed with
experimentations and take risks to improve. Moreover, a study by Troman and Woods (2001) demonstrated that teachers saw their confidence being undermined and their expertise being challenged, and consequently felt de-professionalised when shock, self-doubt, feelings of inadequacy and negative emotions prevailed.

The wide-scale survey study conducted by Helsby and Saunders during the period 1991-93 regarding Change and Influence in the 14-19 Curriculum and specifically teachers’ views of, and responses to, recent curriculum changes provided a further insight into the effects of these changes in teachers’ lives. The plethora of governmental initiatives in education caused loss of confidence because of the growing intensification of teachers’ work and the heavy workloads in the school setting. Evidence indicated that some teachers felt an erosion of professional confidence and morale, not only because of the changes but because of the fact they were forced to implement these reforms without being actively involved in their design, introduction and content. The lack of time to adjust and consolidate the new development created chaos, disorganisation and feelings of pressure and uncertainty, both of teachers’ competence to cope and their right to make important curriculum decisions (Helsby and McCulloch, 1996; Saunders, 2000). This was evident during the first months of reform implementation in the Olive Tree Primary School. The increased workload, a wide range of external demands and the limited time to become familiar with these changes decreased Electra’s confidence with respect to her professional practice (ELOb).

During the fourth visit to the school, it was apparent through both general and lesson observations that Electra took control over her work and became a creative mediator of the reform policy. She managed to maintain those teaching practices she considered the best, aiming to protect her pupils from what she regarded to be the worst effects of the reform strategies (GOd). Her continuous struggle to find out more information about the reform process and the way in which teachers’ roles were changing was recorded on many occasions (GOc,d). Teachers are more likely to adopt new classroom strategies if they are confident that they have the ability to articulate and communicate ideas, control
their classrooms and influence pupils’ learning (Scribner, 1999). Professional and emotional support, feedback and acknowledgement boost one’s confidence in one’s own capabilities. Teachers in changing times can be capable, confident and active professionals who play a critical and active role in contesting, resisting and adapting reform initiatives (Helsby, 2000).

As recorded in my research diary, Electra had the confidence to actively and productively reconcile policy reform and in certain cases to adjust, amend or sabotage parts of it. However, despite the fact that her levels of confidence were increased significantly, on certain occasions she was concerned whether her material and choices with respect to teaching were as good as those of other teachers (ELOd). The extract below pictures how her confidence level changed throughout the year:

For the sake of my students I decided that I would not become a passive victim of this educational reform policy. I realised that we are not going to receive any support from anyone so I had to react to the whole process immediately, because it would not have been fair for the kids to suffer because of this ambivalent situation. So I spent an enormous time, I put all my energy in order to organise everything. I consulted the curriculum, I examine it and I decided what is suitable or not and I adjusted it to my students’ needs. I am not saying that I interpret the reform in the right way. But I am satisfied with the quality of teaching and learning process. However, always in the back of my head, I feel a bit insecure because I don't know if my interpretation corresponds to the interpretations of other teachers (Elnt3).

Electra’s testimony leads to the definition of teachers’ confidence as ‘a belief both in one’s authority and in one's capacity to make important decisions about the conduct of one's work’ (Helsby, 1995, p. 324) and ‘the feeling of coping with the work in hand and being in control’ (Helsby, 1995, p. 325). Helsby (1999) related these two concepts and emphasised that levels of professional confidence could be linked to teachers’ competence in maintaining an active role in terms of managing policy directives. Therefore, when teachers impose their own professional interpretations in government policies their confidence is high, and vice versa.
The level of teachers’ confidence is significant in determining the way in which teachers respond to excessive work demands and policy reforms. Teachers are policymakers, as they are being involved in the policy in a range of levels and have a strong impact upon its interpretation. They are trained and experienced and do not come to the education policy as ‘naïve readers’. They carry their own:

...histories, with experience, with values and purposes of their own; they have vested interests in the meaning of policy. Policies will be interpreted differently as the histories, experiences, values, purposes and interests which make up any arena differ. The simple point is that policy writers cannot control the meanings of their texts. Parts of texts will be rejected, selected out, ignored, deliberately misunderstood, responses may be frivolous, etc. (Bowe, Ball and with Gold, 1992, p.22).

Drawing upon the work of Roland Barthes, Bowe, Ball, with Gold (1992) attempted to explain teachers’ interpretations of the policy texts of a curriculum reform. Some teachers choose to treat the curriculum policy reform as ‘readerly’ texts where the reader has minimum opportunity for creativity, and some as ‘writerly’ texts where the reader adopts a creative interpretative role and contributes or even co-authors and co-produces the text. A readerly policy text is a controlling text which encompasses clear and explicit instructions that are not open to question. Consequently, interpretations are more reactive and passive; it is also being assumed that the reader has little to offer in terms of an alternative interpretation. The national curriculum as a readerly text is regarded as a technical and how-to-do-it manual rather than a professional document. In contrast, a writerly text does not aim to control the reader but instead expects the reader to interpret it and make her/his own connections. The interpretation of a writerly text is proactive, critical and self-confident and holds a strong and engaging role for teachers. It invites the reader to get engaged in the process of ‘translating’ the new ideas, filling in any existing gaps and ‘write’ while reading. The national curriculum as a writerly text is regarded as a professional document open to meaningful interpretations that fit and is linked to teachers’ particular experiences, existing ideas, practices and contexts.
Professional confidence and professional interpretation are interrelated concepts. The successful mediation of policy reform requires teachers to be adequately confident in their expertise, knowledge, skills and abilities. The creative mediation of externally imposed reform which emerges from teachers' professional confidence can increase teachers' engagement and commitment in their work and consequently contribute to the improvement of the teaching and learning process (Osborn et al., 2000). Creative mediation, a useful strategy employed by Electra, can have a system-wide effect on reform agenda as long as teachers are adequately confident to familiarise themselves and develop practices that are consistent to their values and working conditions. There are teachers who develop defence mechanisms and employ various strategies ranging from ‘incorporation’ to ‘resistance’ to ‘retreatism’ and ‘creative mediation’ of the reform policy. Teachers who act as ‘creative mediators’ are able to take control of the educational reforms and put them into practice by filtering them through their own values and selecting those aspects of the reform which are in congruence with their beliefs and ideologies and dealing with them creatively (Osborn et al., 2000).

Despite the fluctuations of the levels of professional confidence, observational data revealed that not only did Electra choose not to be isolated in her classroom, but she increased collaboration with other peers, especially Alcestis (GOb,c,d). The quality and degree of professional support available to teachers and the weight of their workload were found to have an impact upon teachers' professional confidence (Helsby, 1999). As Helsby and McCulloch (1996) assert, low levels of professional confidence increase isolation or stress and lead the majority of teachers to follow the path of resistance and adopt a passive standpoint towards changing requirements. Furthermore, the extent to which teachers adopt this stance depends on the professional work and context within which they operate. Particularly, the high levels of collegiality and commitment to the core values and principles of the group they belong to make it more likely that teachers will resist externally imposed agendas and be active in formulating their own interpretations of educational practice. As Electra confessed:
The amount of work has dramatically increased. The only way to cope with changes in our work is to collaborate. I have a wonderful relationship with Alcestis; we exchange resources, we collaborate in the creation of new material. We communicate everyday on how to move forward and we support each other with respect to the new reform and other school issues. And this does not happen only with Alcestis but with other teachers as well. I know when I need something a teacher will come and offer her help (EInt2).

Research suggests that the existence of a supportive climate and a collaborative culture in a school setting reinforces teachers’ professional confidence to use their own interpretations of policy agenda and become creative mediators of the national curriculum (Helsby and McCulloch, 1997). Teacher confidence flourishes in collaborative cultures where peers reveal and confess their concerns, doubts, unveil their selves and become friends and, when problems in the community emerge, colleagues provide help and support to each other. Meaningful collegial relationships and support not only boost confidence but can also encourage teachers to experiment, take risks, engage in continuous development, adopt, postpone or resist centrally prescribed initiatives as well as diminish the effects of intensification and workload. However, most teachers do not work in a collaborative environment and in such conditions, where problems cannot be shared or discussed, teachers can be trapped in the vicious cycle of perfectionism (Hargreaves, 1994).

An educational reform policy requires teachers to broaden horizons, embrace new ideas and new approaches and proceed with modifications of their current practices in areas in which they have been considered to having control, authority and expertise. The investigation of teachers’ identity during education restructuring indicates that professional confidence is a vital variable in the capacity to cope with change. Therefore, within an imposed framework, it is important to take into serious consideration teachers’ agency and the spaces in which teachers have the ability to apply their professionalism in the curriculum area. Teacher agency suggests that teachers manage to take the initiative and state a professional interpretation of their role and be proactive. Like in Electra’s case, structural issues were regarded as problems to overcome or even in
some cases be neglected rather than being impenetrable obstacles. Despite the
difficulties and the negative effect of imposed change on her confidence, Electra found
ways to manoeuvre and take control by making choices and decisions regarding her
work based on her own interests and motivations in a way that corresponded to her
personal values and beliefs.

5.4 Emerging factors

The investigation of the constructs underpinning professional identity, has led me to
identification of certain contextual and professional factors that were found to have an
impact upon them. The following paragraphs present these factors (Figure 6) that
emerged from the micro level of this research study and its various implications for
teachers’ professional identity and consequently for their practices. Great emphasis is
given on contextual factors such as inadequate support, insufficient INSET,
intensification of teachers’ work as a result of the introduction of new roles and
responsibilities for teachers, and collaboration with peers. From this study, it was
apparent that during the development of the new curricula, certain crucial professional
factors were neglected, such as teachers’ previous knowledge, experiences, expertise,
ideologies, values and beliefs. In addition, the lack of status, recognition and respect was
cited as one of the causes that negatively affected teachers’ involvement in policy
enactment.
Figure 6: Illustration of the teacher professional identity framework highlighting the emerging factors
5.4.1 Contextual Factors

5.4.1.1 Work intensification

The intensification of teachers’ work and the unwelcomed shift in the emphasis of the fundamental features of their work are the main effects that have been identified by the research participants. The intensification of work is a reality underpinning their professional lives, which was caused mainly by the cuts in resources and salaries, the compacted timelines and the expansion of the range of roles teachers are expected to play. Larson (1980) describes intensification as:

one of the most tangible ways in which the work privileges of educated workers are eroded. Its symptoms go from the trivial—‘no time at all’ for lunch—to the more serious—no time at all to keep up with one’s field, to retool one’s skills. The most common source of intensification in mental labour is *chronic work overload* [emphasis in original], which takes many forms and has different consequences in different work settings (p. 166).

This definition is articulated from the general theories of the work process and suggests that intensification is consistent with theoretical understandings about the proletarianisation of teachers’ professional practice. Apple and Jungck (1992) have also referred to intensification as a ‘chronic sense of overload’ (pp. 25-26) and concluded that increased workload, reduced time for preparation, isolation from others, and personal guilt and anxiety are the main four issues related to intensification. All these definitions relate to Daphne, who, due to the increased extra-curricular responsibilities, had neither time for having lunch during breaks nor keeping up with the changes in the working system (GOd). As she stated:

I deal with many chores during the day. I am not only responsible for my classroom but I am also responsible for two big projects our school participates in. Also, I am responsible for the website of our school. I am spending breaks in my classroom isolated from everyone as I need to finish with what I was assigned to do. I haven’t got any time to prepare for teaching and learning process and I feel bad because I didn’t focus or spend time dealing with the education reform. I didn’t
give emphasis on the weekly planning. I didn’t bother at all. At this point, I would like to thank the teacher who is responsible for the other fifth grade as she was giving me her weekly planning and I was copying it to save some time (DInt4).

Researchers investigating the effects of reforms on teachers’ professionalism over the past twenty years witnessed a massive work overload caused by the restructured work and roles, which consequently resulted in loss of spontaneity, stress and an increase in bureaucracy and reduction of their opportunities for professionalism (Bushnell, 2003; Campbell, Chew and Scrathley, 1991; Osborn and Broadfoot, 1992). Most importantly, work intensification narrows the space and opportunities for critical reflection upon their professional practices (Møller, 2000). Work intensification has been also identified as a factor influencing teachers to leave their job (Smithers and Robinson, 2003).

Apple (1986) associated intensification with deskilling. As he claimed, intensification of teachers’ working life results in performing a task by taking shortcuts, abolishing any social relations and relocating goals from offering quality service to getting something done. The intensification has adverse effects on teachers’ professionalism as increased paperwork and other bureaucratic demands drain teachers’ energy and subsequently abstract them from teaching, their main professional task. When the values, perceptions and attitudes acquired by teachers and cultivated throughout their careers seem to diminishing, then the process of de-skilling and de-professionalisation takes place. Nevertheless, there are researchers who appear to challenge this finding. In a study investigating primary teachers’ work at a time of rapid change, Campbell and Neill (1994) concluded that the reform policy was leading towards an enhanced professionalism instead of de-skilling. However the overall tendency based on the research evidence during the same period, in the 90s, was in the direction of de-professionalisation in the guise of re-professionalisation.

Hargreaves (1994) designated the ways in which work intensification occurs. He asserts that intensification leads to lack of time for professional growth, reduced preparation and improvement, the dissolution of long-lasting scheduling, limited personal freedom of
choice and reliance on externally produced resources and expertise. These results have been regarded not only as the indicators of intensification but also as the main contributors to the diminishing of quality teaching provision.

Despite the fact that intensification can make many teachers feel deskill ed and become disconnected and demoralised with their work, there are teachers who seem to thrive on new strategies, regardless of the increased workload. Furthermore, the impact of intensification tends to change over time. While in the early phases of the introduction of a reform teachers feel extensive pressure, after a period of time teachers appear increasingly familiarised to both coping with its structure and managing the change (Helsby, 1999). This concurs with Calypso, who managed, despite the difficulties she encountered and the pressure she felt at the first period, to enact on policy and engage in creative mediation (CLOc,d).

The first months were very difficult. I was not prepared for this major change. I had many questions, I didn’t know what to do and how to implement what was requested. Then I realised that in order to cope with these changes I needed to take control in my hands, so I found as much information as possible, collected material, attended CPD courses to cultivate and improve my skills because it was the only way to stop feeling overwhelmed with the reform agenda (CInt4).

Hargreaves (1994) regarded work intensification as a result of complex large-scale reform strategies and the redefinition of teacher role expectations. Multi-phased imposed reforms tend to cause additional stress to teachers due to the new set of demands placed upon them. Campbell and Neill (1994) highlighted that the introduction of new roles and accountabilities, a more comprehensive curriculum, new evaluation tasks and the necessity for reskilling have all contributed to the intensification of teachers’ work. Consequently, intensification may cause long-lasting and persistent work overload, can reduce the quality of work, limit time for recreation and re-skilling, and abstract the conceptualisation from the implementation of responsibilities (Day et al., 2007). Electra’s experience not only showed the link between workload and the introduction of new roles
and responsibilities but also unveiled that there was no consensus among the new curricula and the new timetables, which resulted in work intensification.

The introduction of new roles and responsibilities as a result of the new curriculum has contributed to increased workload. However, our biggest problem with this reform is the fact that reform designers reduced the teaching hours in specific subjects and the material remained the same. Therefore, the workload is more increased now rather than decreased as promised (EInt4).

Intensification plays a significant role at the early stages of reform implementation. At this phase, teachers feel that they have to perform too many tasks, causing them to feel burdened and exhausted (Huberman and Miles, 1984). The intensification in teachers’ work can create negative emotions towards their work. Ballet, Kelchtermans and Loughran (2006) asserted that negative emotions, such as lack of confidence, pressure, stress and guilt, can be a result of a heavy workload.

Another factor that is assumed to be increasing workload is mind awareness; this means that teachers tend to engage in a continuous thinking about the way they could have performed better (Nolan and Meister, 2000). Research participants regarded that imposed mandates ignore how much pressure is caused by external demands to integrate changes within their existing practices and routines. The pressing demands and intensification absorb most of teachers’ time, leaving them with limited time for creative work and for developing caring relationships with pupils, which for the teachers in the Olive Tree Primary School was their main purpose (Hargreaves, 1994). As Calypso stated:

One of the aims of the new curricula was the enhancement of creativity along with the promotion of child-centred approaches and cross-curricularity. In order to do so, teachers need time and now time is limited because of hours reductions without a substantial reduction of the teaching material. However, I am obliged to cover all the proposed teaching material and I am struggling to find ways to prepare creative work which best suits my children’s needs (CInt3).
5.4.1.2 Training and resources

Resources are important means through which teachers have the opportunity to perform their tasks and experience intrinsic rewards (Firestone and Pennell, 1993). Support in terms of training courses and classroom resources is essential when new curricula are to be implemented. The inadequacy in terms of resources, lack of support and absence of meaningful training during the first year of the initiation of the reform agenda was stressed by all four teachers. The lack of resources had a negative impact on all the constructs of teachers’ professional identity. The lack of resources which resulted from reductions in education spending did not comply with the implementation of reform expectations, and feelings of resentment are created among the teachers (Churchill, Williamson and Grady, 1997) as this insufficiency inhibits the development and improvement of pedagogy.

I consider that the technological equipment in my classroom is adequate, but unfortunately I haven’t received any meaningful support on how to use this equipment. The technology integration in teaching practices, which is an important feature in the new curriculum, frustrates me a lot as I do not have the necessary skills to do so. We desperately need more support from ICT coordinators and more effective training with respect to the new curriculum (AInt1).

They sent to schools a wide range of software but most of them do not work properly and this is very frustrating because instead of receiving help, we have to deal with problems caused by problematic equipment (CInt3).

Teachers have been critical of the national policies and the ways in which they have been put forward in schools. As participants claimed:

The introduction of the reform policy in the school prior to offering meaningful support was a big mistake. I am not well prepared for this major reform. I believe that we definitely need more guidance, sufficient and adequate guidance from the Ministry. Reading the slides is not considered proper training. We want training courses that will be based on examples that represent what is taking place in our classrooms (EInt2).

The general training was too informative and less practical. In addition I believe that the Ministry people rushed to forward the reform in the
schools. Teachers whose subjects were affected to a greater extent than others were definitely not ready for this reform (DInt2).

The findings of the research studies investigating the effects of national policies in teachers’ professional development and work have important implications for policy and practice, as they stress the need for reform designers and school leaders to support teachers and provide them with adequate resources to ensure they are familiar with the reform agenda; have the knowledge and the tools to implement the reform; understand how the educational reform differs from their current professional practice, and are able to interpret the policy documentation. As Schmidt and Datnow (2005) highlighted, teachers receiving adequate training or informed dialogue experience satisfaction accompanied by feelings of enthusiasm, comfort, trust, confidence, corroboration, contentment and affirmation.

Despite of the cumulative demands and expectations placed upon teachers, the support allocated to teachers in Cyprus did not correspond to their needs. The scale of the curriculum reform in Cyprus was major; however, formal training was limited and mostly targeted at an indicative number of teachers who were supposed to transfer their learning to their peers (MO2, GOb). Teachers’ training courses are insufficient and far from being responsive to the changing nature of their professional practice (MO3). Teachers’ roles are changing and now they are called on to perform tasks and work in a different way than they used to. The changing role of teachers requires them to be proactive, take initiatives and be critical in order to cope with the uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity that prevails in an educational system in times of major reforms (Flores, 2005).

Even a year after the introduction of the reform in the primary schools in Cyprus, nothing changed with respect to the provision of meaningful training that would satisfy teachers’ needs (MO4, GOd). According to a circular sent from the Ministry, the CPI continues to deliver seminars (MoEC, 2012) as training courses despite the fact that teachers expressed their dissatisfaction towards this kind of training.
Research evidence in this case study revealed the inadequacy of support, information and resources. These findings reflect those emerging from a study conducted by Day et al. (2003) that explored the effects of educational change on secondary school teachers in England, Wales and Portugal. Data revealed that both English and Portuguese teachers claimed that they lacked the resources, training and adequate information in order to fulfil their new roles and responsibilities. Additionally, as in the case of teachers in Cyprus, English teachers perceived that INSET opportunities did not meet their personal needs. In a similar mode, research findings from the ENCOMPASS project, a cross-cultural study focused on the work of secondary teachers in England, France and Denmark, depicted that French teachers, like the Greek-Cypriot teachers, have identified a range of practical inhibiting factors towards change, such as lack of appropriate resources, lack of training and establishments (Osborn et al., 2003). The longitudinal study of Helsby and McCulloch (1996) reported that few teachers felt that they had received adequate training in terms of the curriculum. The majority of the teachers, as in other research studies, felt that they had received insufficient support and limited opportunities for personal professional growth.

A wide range of research studies revealed that reform policy failure is caused by not considering the inadequacy in resources and teachers’ training (Verspoor, 1989). Nevertheless, the provision of adequate support by the government is not always regarded in a positive way by teachers. Despite the fact that resources are of great importance to the process of reform policies, the evidence suggests that the provision of sufficient resources can create negative feelings because their application and utilisation requires more effort, work and burden on behalf of teachers (Chan, 2010).

Limited resources during school reform have a negative impact on teachers’ main purposes (Lasky, 2005). Teachers become abstracted and demoralised when there is inadequate infrastructure in the school setting (Firestone and Pennell, 1993). Poorly maintained desks and no window blinds were reported by Calypso (CInt2) as the main
problems related to physical conditions that restrained the teaching process to a great extent and resulted in frustration and complaints.

Teachers are at the epicentre of educational reform and are called to restructure existing practices, to stay up-to-date with current developments (Torff, Sessions and Byrnes, 2005) and discard practices and theories that have led their work and actions the previous years of their career. The provision of suitable resources and training is considered a catalyst to achieve meaningful education reforms (Fishman et al., 2003) and should be a core component of every research agenda for improving teaching and learning (Guskey, 2002).

Schools are more likely to improve and students are more likely to be provided with quality teaching when teachers have access to necessary resources and training. The lack of instructional resources, such as inadequate textbooks, science materials and computers, creates frustration among teachers and loss of commitment and job satisfaction (Firestone and Pennell, 1993). This inadequacy interferes negatively with their work and increases the pressure in figuring out how to improvise, find sufficient resources and get any necessary supplies.

5.4.1.3 Relationship with peers

Research participants have indicated the importance of strong collegial relationships and administrative support for teaching and the success of educational reforms (GOb,c,d). Data also revealed that collaborative cultures can be a venue for teachers’ engagement in a dialogical process through which they can cope with uncertainty, complexity, develop a stronger sense of competence, participate in ongoing professional development and learning, take risks for improvement and respond effectively to rapid education reforms (GOd, ELOd, CLOc,d).

However, the key concept of collaboration has been extensively questioned, suggesting that meaningful collaboration is a utopia encompassing ‘different forms that have
different consequences and serve different purposes’ (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 189). Hargreaves (1994) favoured the term collaborative culture, referring to collaboration which is ‘spontaneous, voluntary, development-orientated, pervasive across time and space and unpredictable’ (p. 192) and leads to reciprocal support, exercise of discretion, increased competence, reduced workload and improved working setting. Contrived collegiality is the opposing concept of collaborative culture, which is administratively ‘regulated’, ‘compulsory’, ‘implementation-orientated’, ‘fixed in time and space’ and ‘predictable’ (pp. 195-196), and leads to inflexibility, inadequacy and meaningless meetings which creates frustration and drains teachers’ energies. When collaboration takes the form of contrived collegiality, teachers are brought together by administrators for a specific period of time to execute pre-specified tasks which could result in ‘a lack of ownership in the planned work’ (Pollard et al., 1994, p. 93) or in disempowering ‘groupthink’ (Fullan, 1997). The view is supported by other researchers who consider collaboration as the interpersonal relationships between teachers (Nias, 1989) which is arising, voluntaristic and connected to particular educational challenges (Hoyle and John, 1995).

Contrived collegiality exists as a state in opposition to a culture of collaboration and comprises of managerially-forced interactions between teachers where they meet and work to implement the curriculum and policy instructional strategies developed and forwarded in the schools by external individuals. Mutual collaboration, on the other hand, is considered a valuable source of both personal and professional support in an educational setting which is characterised by low self-esteem for educators within the teaching force. Examples of contrived collegiality constitute the mandatory peer coaching or complex procedures of school development planning (Hargreaves, 1994), exchanging of resources rather than exploring practice together (Little, 1990) as well as the regular planning meetings with staff to ensure administrative support rather than offer the meaningful support for teachers that emerges from an authentic collaborative culture.
Research data indicated that teachers including Calypso, Electra and Alcestis engaged in genuine collaborative practices. They shared the same vision, engagement and goals, thus building a strong relationship within the community (GOb). They were observed to spend time sharing ideas, expertise and resources and motivating each other in order to overcome the daily problems they were facing as a result of the major reform (GOb,c,d). The main reason of this collaboration was the fact that they wanted to offer the best education possible to their children. Calypso highly appreciated professional collaboration and she was engaged in cross-curricular activities in the school. She considered collaboration important and for this reason was cooperating with her peers to carry out teaching tasks in an efficient way. In terms of classroom practices, she was making sure that they were adjusted to the new pedagogical theories and recent social developments. Electra’s and Alcestis’s close collaboration extended beyond school as they had regular meetings during the afternoon to organise their weekly planning (EInt2, Alnt2).

In collaborative working environments, teachers have the potential to create the collective capacity for initiating and sustaining ongoing improvement in their professional practice so each student they serve can receive the highest quality of education (Pugach and Johnson, 2002, p. 6).

Nevertheless, it should be noted that collaboration did not yield the same outcomes for both teachers and this is not an uncommon occurrence. Researchers investigating collaboration concluded that teachers who engage in collaborative practices may still have difficulties changing their practices and may also benefit in different ways to their peers. It was clear that Electra and Calypso were more empowered and benefited from teacher interaction to a greater extent than Alcestis. Specifically, both teachers were observed to enact education policy, as well as embrace and sustain effective innovations for their pupils (CLOc,d, ELOd). On the contrary, Alcestis was observed to struggle more and had difficulties in mediating policy and engaging in the use of new techniques and strategies (ALOd). This indicates that teachers do not learn and benefit in the same way when they are working together. Two reasons why collaboration did not yield the same
results despite both teachers working in the same setting could be the differences in their personalities and teaching styles (Klingner, 2004).

It was clear from the research data that Daphne was disconnected from her peers. Therefore, in her case collegiality became contrived (Hargreaves, 1994) as her collegial relationships were limited and took place when it was demanded and enforced. Moreover, any interaction with peers was not spontaneous and was taking place during prearranged meetings. Phaedra, the headteacher, considered that all teachers should have some input into the school and collaborate for the development of projects that would enhance the status of the school. This indicates the administrative controlling and predictable nature of teachers’ interactions. Teachers’ strong sense of moral and professional responsibilities to the pupils are being threatened by managerially imposed collegiality, specifically constant meetings and the proliferation of paperwork and administrative tasks (Hargreaves, 1994; Woods et al., 1997).

In the English context there are examples of collaboration cultures in primary schools. Nias, Southworth and Yeomans (1989) described in their study that teachers had strong collaboration and saw themselves as team members who respected both the group and the individual. These cultures were underpinned by meetings, dialogue, humour and gatherings that recapped school principles. In an ethnographic study of an English primary school conducted prior to the implementation of the 1988 Education Reform Act, Acker (1995) described an environment in which, while conflicts and tensions were not entirely excluded, day-to-day interactions were characterised by collaboration, community and understanding.

The importance of collaboration has been stated by PACE teachers, who considered collaboration with peers a core part of their work and a major support in dealing with the consequences of reform strategies (Osborn et al., 2000). Day’s (1999) seminal study of primary schools in England emphasised the virtues of collaborative cultures in terms of collegial relationships, curriculum planning and teaching and learning procedures.
Nevertheless, Fullan (1997) expressed his concerns over increased collaboration. Moving towards greater collaboration can result in uncritical conformism, inconsiderate acceptance of the latest solution and suppression of individual discordance. Individualism is essential to education reform as innovative ideas often come from those marginal to the teachers’ community. Personal reflection and being in touch with inner voice are important features during changing conditions.

In a summative book on the PACE project findings, Osborn et al. (2000) claimed that teaching had changed drastically due to recent reforms. To name but a few changes, English teachers were expected to attend frequent meetings to discuss reform policies relating to evaluation, special needs and school inspection, were required to collaborate and plan together and distribute ideas across schools or associations within one local authority area. As argued by the researchers, when collaboration among peers was genuine and ‘bottom-up’, or democratically developed and genuinely concerned with teaching improvement, it could create real benefits for the teachers. On the contrary, when collaboration was ‘top-down’, administratively imposed and more concerned with the production of paperwork and documentation, it was more likely to be ‘contrived’. Whereas collaborative cultures enhance teacher and curriculum development, contrived collegiality cultures foster administrative control. This administrative control is perceived by teachers to be a threat to effective teaching and learning procedures, taking them away from preparation time and from the development of good relationships with children.

5.4.2 Professional factors

5.4.2.1 Previous knowledge, experiences, ideologies, values and beliefs

It is evident from this research study that policy enactment highly depends on teachers’ professional knowledge and experiences as well as on teachers’ ideologies, values and perceptions. Moreover, it is apparent that teachers position themselves in different ways
with respect to policy dependent on their career stage, aspirations, abilities and experiences. A growing body of literature on policy enactment has elaborated the ways in which the aforementioned professional factors influence teacher interpretation and adaptation of reform policy guidelines and advocated the crucial role they play in how teachers come to conceptualise and interpret externally imposed education reform initiatives (Ball et al., 2011b; Coburn, 2005; Cohen, 1990; Spillane, 1999; Spillane, Reiser and Reimer, 2002).

Calypso’s sense-making, energy, creativity, existing commitments, professional values and perspectives differed from other teachers. Calypso, despite the difficulties, was an enthusiast and a translator of education policy reform; through her practice, policy reform was negotiated, translated and enacted (CLOc,d). As noted in my research diary, the novice teacher was inviting other teachers to engage in the enactment and was trying to turn it into a joint process (GOc,d). The quote below echoes Coburn’s (2005) and Spillane’s (1999) arguments that policy interpretation is interrelated to pre-existing working knowledge and practices and is affected by social interaction with peers. As Calypso stated:

The educational reform is a very challenging process with many problematic aspects. I try to overcome these difficulties and move forward. What I basically do, is that I use my previous knowledge and already established skills and then read and try to understand the policy reform documents. Based on my understanding, I adapt these policy guidelines to the needs of my children and I remove anything that I consider that is not suitable for them. However, dealing and conceptualising policy messages is not an individual task but a collaborative one. I consider it important all teachers should exchange our ideas, beliefs and perceptions because by communicating and sharing the reform process can run more smoothly (CInt4).

Calypso engaged in a creative mediation and exhibited high levels of commitment and confidence to maintain a proactive role in managing the policy demands made upon her. The young teacher was able to impose her own interpretation of the new curriculum regulations, to line up governmental demands with other professional priorities and to exploit to the maximum her professional autonomy (CLOd). In collaboration with her
pupils, Calypso was organising projects and had the confidence to abandon the outdated material that did not correspond to children's needs. At the end of each project she was actively engaging in a reflective practice (CLOc,d). Her strong commitment to her respective goals powered her with the professional confidence. Calypso did not hesitate to experiment and welcome new ideas and approaches in her teaching. She was very flexible and open to challenges (CLOd). As an 'extended' professional, Calypso was seeking to increase and extend her knowledge and skills further by participating in an impressive number of CPD activities (GOa-d). Her skills derived from the interplay between experience and theory and her perspective extended beyond the micro level of the classroom (GOd). Teachers' engagement in CPD is a key characteristic of extended professionality. Stenhouse (1975) considered that an essential quality,

of the extended professional is a capacity for autonomous professional self-development through systematic self-study, through the study of the work of other teachers and through the testing of ideas by classroom research procedures (p. 144).

The analysis of the data, collected at different times over a year, indicated that on many occasions Electra had a sense of powerlessness as a result of the demands made on her. Especially during the first three months of the reform implementation, her skills derived from her experience and not through a meditation between theory and experience. She valued professional collaboration, and classroom events were perceived in relation to school goals. Nevertheless, an apparent transition from 'restricted' towards more 'extended' professionality was identified during the third and fourth visit to the Olive Tree Primary School. Electra started to regain her professional confidence, imposing her own interpretation on the reform policy and taking control of her own work in order to deal with the changes in the education system (ELOc,d). As she confessed:

I have sixteen years of teaching experience and I feel very confident when I teach as throughout these years I managed to build a strong base of knowledge and improve my skills. However, with the launching of the educational reform, my confidence levels were decreased to a great extent. The first months I was lost. The guidelines were
confusing, the material was not ready, the training was insufficient. When I realised that these problems will not disappear, I asked for help, I found my own resources and I started interpreting the policy messages based on my understanding and existing knowledge (EInt4).

The above quotes indicate that teachers like Calypso and Electra tended to be involved to a greater extent than others in the reform process and engage more actively in policy enactment. On the other hand, Alcestis and Daphne are regarded as receivers of education policy as they were depending ‘heavily on ‘interpretations of interpretations’ and [were] attentive consumers of translation work’, looking for guidance rather than employing creativity and energy for sense-making (Ball et al., 2011b, p.632).

44 year-old Alcestis relied heavily on the ideas and practices that Electra recommended without wider evaluation (GOb,c,d). She was using intuition and her practical experience as the guiding principles for the new curriculum (ALOb,c). Especially in the beginning of the introduction of the education reform, she avoided any changes in her practices and she was hesitating to take any risks (ALOb). Alcestis, as a restricted professional, rarely involved herself in non-teaching professional activities, attending CPD courses or reading professional literature, and she only participated in the INSET mandatory courses (GOb,c,d). She had a more classroom-focussed conception of her role which positioned primarily on what she regarded as her responsibility for pupils’ academic achievement. Alcestis, who belonged to an older age group, was more disengaged from the process of educational change than other teachers. For successful enactment, teachers should question their established and deep-rooted practices, skills and understanding of how teaching and learning should be; however, being in the system for more than twenty years, having worked in a specific way and being used to one concept of work makes it even harder to proceed with changes in working lives and adjust to a new approach of teaching. As Alcestis confessed,

I am not a risk-taker and I am comfortable with what I already know. I acknowledge that the system needs to change but for me and other teachers who have put so much effort to build specific material all these years, it’s hard to toss it away and start from the beginning and
adopt new practices. However, I am glad I have Electra by my side who guides me and helps me throughout this process, sharing her understating of the reform. This gives me the opportunity to slowly start adapting to the new conditions (Alnt3).

Daphne can also be characterised as a restricted professional. She was introspective with regards to methods and not motivated to mediate educational innovations (GOb). Additionally, she was not keen to see her role as a teacher change and adjust her classroom practices to the recent developments. She had an indifferent, restricted orientation as she depicted an indifferent attitude towards emerging school issues. Classroom events for Daphne were perceived in isolation (DLOb,c,d). Daphne shared her attempts to enact on policy reform thus:

I made an attempt to implement a new teaching unit based on the guidelines of the Ministry, but nothing seemed to work out. I didn't know where to start or how to continue, where to seek information for guidance, or search for good and suitable material. I was lost and I quit (DInt4).

5.4.2.2 Status, respect and recognition

Unlike many other Western countries, in Cyprus the teaching profession, especially elementary teaching, was up until recently a popular choice for high school graduates. The job benefits, and particularly the high status of this profession, were identified by researchers as the main reasons for its popularity (Menon and Christou, 2002).

However, the research findings of this study revealed a rising tendency of lack of status, respect and recognition of teachers, which consequently affected in a negative way teachers' job satisfaction, emotions, confidence and commitment. Teachers who participated in this study did not hesitate to share their emotions of disappointment for the lack of respect and recognition they felt they received.

You do not get recognition for your work. I neglect my family many times, in order to deal with school issues and no one seems to appreciate it. We are not treated as professionals and we surely do not receive any credit for what we are doing. My opinion is that we are just the means to implement the changes that the Ministry wants (DInt3).
The Ministry was always asserting boastfully that teachers had actively participated in the formation of the reform policy. This was not the case. The educational reform was designed based on comments of curriculum developers who have limited knowledge of what is going on in the classroom context and have rarely taught children. Instead of respecting and recognising how valuable teachers’ perceptions and ideas are during the development of a reform, and treating them as professionals, they borrowed or even copied ideas from other contexts and tried to implement them in our context. Consequently, the idealistic objectives of reform designers do not fit well during the teaching and learning process and teachers do not have any sense of ownership of the policy (AInt3).

Not only teachers but also the headteacher shared her account about the decrease in the status of teaching and the absence of respect and recognition. As Phaedra commented:

Teachers, do not receive the recognition and respect they deserve. I consider that reform designers regard teachers more as implementers; they are asked to implement policies that other individuals have decided for them. Frankly, only when teachers and their professional opinions are respected can they be held responsible for their performance and their conduct as educators. Treating teachers as professionals will help to inspire them to enact on policy in a creative way, whereas treating them as pawns will discourage teachers from excelling and actively participating in the reform process (PInt2).

These findings seem to comply with Skaalvik and Skaalvik’s (2011) and Dinham and Scott’s (2000) outcomes regarding the third domain in teachers’ job satisfaction, which is related to the declining status of the teaching profession and the absence of respect and recognition from society. Dean (1993) advocated that ‘teachers may be motivated by recognition, interest, praise and encouragement (p. 139) otherwise the diminution of teaching status can lead to low morale, dissatisfaction (Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2005) and low professional commitment (Bogler and Somech, 2004).

5.5 Summary

Each of the four stories was underpinned by a particular theme which functioned as a construct of teacher professional identity. In order to get a deep understanding of each story I used empirical evidence of international studies to fully conceptualise professional
identity in times of educational reform and the implications for teachers’ practices. Research outcomes revealed that the examined constructs underpinning teachers’ professional identity are not only interrelated but also appear to share contextual and professional factors. As indicated in this study, the inadequate training and resources, increased workload, relationship with peers, teachers’ previous knowledge, experiences, ideologies, values and beliefs, lack of respect, status and recognition affect to a great extent the concepts underpinning teachers’ professional identity. In the next chapter I present the meso level of this research study and I concentrate on the survey I conducted in order to obtain the views and attitudes of 308 teachers before and after the implementation of the educational reform. This will give me the opportunity to relate the stories of the four teachers (micro level) to the experiences of a broader population of primary school teachers (meso level).
CHAPTER SIX

MESO LEVEL

6.1 Introduction

The accounts of the four teachers who participated in the micro level of this research study, which were thoroughly presented in chapter five, are linked in this chapter to the experiences of 308 primary school teachers of the reform. Specifically, this chapter focuses on the data analysis and reporting of findings for the meso level of this research study and draws on the wider systemic evidence based on the questionnaires, depicting teachers’ experiences of this system-wide reform before and a year after its implementation, the impact of reform on teachers' identities, as well as the sorts and ways their attitudes, experiences and practices stayed the same or changed.

6.2 Professional practice

Externally-imposed reform initiatives have an impact upon teachers’ professional identity and, consequently, their practices. Therefore, during the survey the participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with a number of statements concerning the nature of teachers’ practice in primary schools in Cyprus, in order to identify the implications of this curriculum reform for teachers' practices. A five-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' was utilised. The results obtained from the preliminary analysis of this part of the questionnaire indicate that the changes in means are small. For this reason, I concentrate on the items with the lowest and highest differences in means, however how small. Further comparisons and correlations will follow, including the effect of demographics on these items, when applicable.
6.2.1 Statistical overview of questionnaire items regarding professional practice

First of all, I aim to present an overall statistical view of the research items. Chart 6 presents the questionnaire items with the lowest differences of means between the two administrations of the questionnaire, whereas Chart 7 presents the lowest differences in means and standard deviations between the two administrations. Items depicted in Chart 6 are those the educational reform did not appear to have a major overall effect on. Chart 7 adds a latent dimension to the information illustrated in Chart 6; the small difference of means is depicted alongside the difference of standard deviations of the items. This process clarifies the results, as it provides indications on whether the concentrations of the responses changed between the two tests. The maximum difference of means was ~3.4%, whereas the maximum difference of SDs was ~3.3%. These differences are small but expected, since Chart 7 groups the items with the smallest differences in means. The item with the smallest means difference was ‘I have the opportunity to discuss with other peers about teaching and learning issues’ whereas the item with the largest means difference was ‘I maintain a sense of partnership with parents through regular communication’. The item with the smallest SDs difference was ‘I spend time on marking pupils’ assessments’ whereas the item with the largest SDs difference was ‘I maintain a sense of partnership with parents through regular communication’.
Chart 6: Histogram illustrating the items with the lowest differences of means between the two administrations of the questionnaire.

Chart 7: Histogram depicting the differences in means and standard deviations between the two administrations of the questionnaire. The items depicted here are the ones with the lowest differences of means and standard deviations.
Chart 8 presents the questionnaire items with the highest differences of means between the two administrations of the questionnaire, whereas Chapter 9 presents the highest differences in both means and standard deviations between the two administrations. Chart 8 suggests that the introduction of the externally-imposed reform had the highest impact upon these items. Chart 9 provides more information about the questionnaire items and suggests that the spread of the responses around the mean have changed between the two periods of the questionnaire administration. The maximum difference of means was ~13% whereas the maximum difference of SDs was ~12%. The item with the smallest means and SDs difference was ‘There are adequate resources to carry out my work’ whereas the item with the largest means and SDs difference was ‘I teach lessons in collaboration with other peers’.

Chart 8: Histogram illustrating the items with the highest differences of means between the two administrations of the questionnaire
Following this overall statistical illustration of the questionnaire items, I will shortly proceed with the presentation of the research findings in relation to this issue. In order to do so, I have categorised professional practice into six sub-themes.

6.2.2 Professional practice sub-themes

The six subthemes which are presented in the next sections are: relationship with parents, relationship with peers, resources, quality in teachers’ professional life, leadership and management, and teaching and assessment. In addition, I relate the research findings of these sub-themes to the findings of the micro level in order to identify the extent to which they are correlated.

6.2.2.1. Relationship with parents

Data revealed that teachers maintain a sense of partnership with parents, and their relationships are materialised by meetings, regular communication and the provision of
feedback on pupils’ progress (Charts 10 and 11). These items, as indicated in Charts 6 and 7, experienced small variations between the two periods of questionnaire administration. These statistical outcomes are similar to Symeou's (2002) findings regarding parental involvement in Cyprus, which claimed that the most common procedure being followed, and which expresses a relation among family and school, is the optional parent–teacher meeting that takes place once a week. In these kinds of meetings, teachers provide parents with information about the progress and behaviour of their children and often give them advice on how to help them perform better in school.

Drawing upon the comments of two teachers who filled in the open-ended section of the questionnaire, it was clear that teacher-parent relationships were being challenged constantly, especially during the period in which this study was conducted. A recent example that escalated the tension between the two sides, which started in late September 2011, was teachers’ decision to refrain from participating in any extracurricular activities as a response to government cuts. Since this time, relationships have continuously alternated. As two respondents commented:

Unfortunately, the relationship with the parents is going under a rough patch and I am referring to parents’ reactions towards our strikes. Personally, I am disappointed with their stance. It is our prerogative to defend our rights and after all our decisions are driven based on what we believe is best for the pupils (Female teacher, 22-29 years old).

Teachers nowadays do not enjoy the same respect they used to enjoy in the past. Parents do not seem to appreciate our work and they transfer this depreciation in our face to their children. They consider that teachers have a cushy job. Never mind the endless hours preparing lesson plans and teaching material, marking assignments, neglecting the difficulties to get through to children... (Female teacher, 38-45 years old).

These findings reflect those presented in chapter four, where the micro level was unfolded. Each time teachers decided to go on strike, parents reacted and disputed with them in both formal and informal ways. When teachers decided to stop striking, their relationship with parents was re-established (GOb). This not only created tensions between them but also, as illustrated in Chapter five, reinforced teachers' beliefs that
their work is not respected or recognised by parent (Clnt3, DInt2). This finding confirms figure 6 presented in the micro level of this research study, where it was illustrated that the declining status of teachers and the lack of respect and recognition from parents were among the emerging factors that were found to negatively influence the constructs of teachers' professional identity.

**Chart 10:** Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the first section of the 2011 questionnaire (relationship with parents)
6.2.2.2 Relationship with peers

The externally-imposed agenda introduced in 2012 in the CES did not affect the already existing relationships of teachers with their peers, in contrast to a number of other studies when education reform was forwarded in schools (Hargreaves, 1994; Park and Sung, 2013). As illustrated in Charts 12 and 13, teachers in Cyprus participated in staff meetings where they discussed teaching and learning issues and held frequent discussions with respect to the new curriculum. Data also depicted that teachers collaborated in order to organise and coordinate work, plan school activities and exchange teaching materials. In general, their working relationships are characterised by collectivism during changing times.

These outcomes reflect those collected in a research study conducted in 2010 where I investigated teachers’ participation in CPD activities. In a similar pattern, findings indicated that it is a common practice for teachers to participate in staff meetings (as it is obligatory to do so once a week), exchange resources and collaborate closely with other
teachers, especially those who are responsible for the parallel grade, and discuss teaching and learning issues (Karousiou, 2010). This was also witnessed at the micro level where the close relationship between Alcestis and Electra was reported (GOd). Therefore, questionnaire data confirms figure 6 presented in chapter five where it was illustrated that meaningful relationship with peers is of great importance and, as Park et al. (2007) suggested, it ‘greatly influences the development of individual teachers’ knowledge of teaching’ (p. 370) and can be considered as a means towards teachers’ professional growth (Bell, 1998).

These findings challenge the claim that educational reform agendas can play an important role in teachers’ isolation (Hargreaves, 1994). Both questionnaire data and ethnographic data indicated that teachers’ relationship with their peers remained high during the reform. Micro level data also provided a richer insight on this matter, as it was revealed that after the major curriculum reform the vast majority of teachers were not only not isolated, but collaborated to a greater extent than before to overcome difficulties and provide support to each other both emotionally and practically (GOb,c,d). The importance of collaboration was also reported in the PACE study, where teachers considered that collaboration with peers was a core part of their work and a major support in dealing with the consequences of reform strategies (Osborn et al., 2000).

Despite the increase of teachers collaborating with their peers in co-teaching procedures (Item ‘I teach lessons in collaboration with other peers’, Charts 8 and 9), the vast majority of teachers still do not engage in such procedures. Furthermore, the views of the respondents regarding observing other peers’ teaching were neutral and remained that way throughout, as illustrated in the 2012 questionnaire. A modest negative relationship was also identified between the variables ‘age’ ($\rho_S = -0.441$) and ‘years of experience’ ($\rho_S = -0.409$) and the questionnaire item ‘I spend time observing other peers’ lessons’. Although the effect size dropped a category, as indicated in the findings of Phase B, this outcome illustrates that older teachers with more years of experience tend not to spend time observing other peers’ lessons.
As also documented in the research study of teachers’ participation in CPD activities, peer observation was among the activities that teachers participated in the least (Karousiou, 2010). Based on observations that took place in the Olive Tree Primary School, peer observation in the CES was not performed in the same way (ELOa) as documented in the international literature, which described peer observation as the way a teacher offers feedback to her/his peer regarding instructional materials, teaching and learning procedures (Conley, Bas-Isaac and Scull, 1995; Richards and Farrell, 2005). On the contrary, peer observation was ‘superficial’ and it referred to a teacher’s physical presence in a peer’s class, failing to actively engage in a critical reflection on practices or in the investigation of the meanings attached (Karagiorgi, 2012b).

**Chart 12:** Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the first section of the 2011 questionnaire (relationship with peers)
6.2.2.3 Resources

The examination of the results regarding resources indicated that, a year after the introduction of the reform, participants still did not have access to any instructional materials and equipment when they needed them, and the teaching and learning materials were inadequate to support their instructional objectives or carry out their work (Charts 14-15). This inadequacy in terms of resources was intensified in 2012, as indicated by the changes of means and standard deviations (Charts 8-9). This finding verifies figure 6 presented in the micro level of this research study, where it was illustrated that inadequate resources have a negative impact on the constructs of teachers’ professional identity and consequently for their practices.
Chart 14: Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the first section of the 2011 questionnaire (resources)

Chart 15: Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the first section of the 2012 questionnaire (resources)
In terms of resources, the research outcomes retrieved from the first distribution of the questionnaire signified a modest positive and statistically significant relationship between the variables ‘age’, ‘years of teaching experience’ and the items related to this area of teachers’ work (Table 6). Findings attained from the 2012 questionnaire revealed a difference between the effect size and the questionnaire items related to resources and the demographic variables. Specifically, all the effect sizes had fallen a category. These findings illustrate that it is more likely older teachers will be satisfied with the existing resources than their younger colleagues. This is confirmed by both observational and interview data about Calypso, the novice teacher, who was more demanding in terms of resources and technological equipment than the other teachers (Clnt4, GoD).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CORRELATIONS</th>
<th>I have access to any instructional materials and equipment when I need them</th>
<th>Teaching and leaning materials are adequate to support my instructional objectives</th>
<th>There are adequate resources to carry out my work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2011 / 2012</td>
<td>2011 / 2012</td>
<td>2011 / 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>Age Correlation Coefficients</td>
<td>.556 / .339</td>
<td>.624 / .365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Years of teaching experience Correlation Coefficients</td>
<td>.535 / .291</td>
<td>.604 / .326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6**: Depiction of the relationship between the demographic characteristics and the items related to resources

A male teacher who participated in the questionnaire survey shared his dissatisfaction with this inadequacy. As he commented:

We are being requested to implement a curriculum reform which is very complex without any means of support. Due to the economic crisis, government reduced the resources. If an educational reform is introduced in school and you want to guarantee its success then this is definitely not the way to do it. We need support and sufficient resources in order to carry on with our new responsibilities (Male, 27-32 years old).
Data collected at the micro level of this research supports these outcomes with respect to the inadequacy of resources. Teachers stressed repeatedly the limited resources they had, and expressed their frustration about this matter because one of the aims of the educational reform agenda was the integration of ICT in teaching practices. These findings reflect those emerging from a cross-cultural study conducted by Day et al. (2003), who explored the effects of educational change between secondary school teachers in England and Wales and Portugal. Data revealed that both English and Portuguese teachers claimed that they lacked the resources and adequate information in order to fulfil their new roles and responsibilities.

Support in terms of classroom resources is essential when new curricula are to be implemented. The above comment chimes with what Churchill, Williamson and Grady (1997) have suggested; namely, that lack of resources resulting from reductions in education spending does not comply with the implementation of reform expectations, thus creating feelings of resentment among teachers as this insufficiency inhibits the development and improvement of pedagogy.

6.2.2.4 Quality in teachers’ professional life

In terms of quality in teachers’ professional life, data disclosed that teachers’ work is intensified and, as the transitions in means indicated (Charts 8-9), teachers tended to agree that their work was overloaded in 2012 (Charts 16-17). This research finding supports figure 6, illustrated in chapter five, where it was presented that work intensification was among the contextual factors that had negative impact on teachers’ professional identity and their practices.

Results revealed that teachers’ professional life has undergone profound and drastic changes as a result of the major curriculum reform. Existing literature on teachers’ work suggests that intensification is linked to the extended demands of reform agendas (Hargreaves, 1994) and increased tasks such as routine duties, paperwork and
managerial responsibilities (Day, Flores, and Viana, 2007). Evidence from both the PACE and ENCOMPASS projects investigating the impact of policy on teachers’ work are but a few research studies that reflect the findings of this study, and suggest that externally-imposed mandates increased teachers’ workload (McNess, Broadfoot and Osborn, 2003). The increase in workload as a result of the reform was also reported by a female questionnaire respondent to this study, who stated:

> The reduction of the teaching material is insignificant and teachers have to teach the same material in less time due to the changes in the timetables. We were promised reduction of our workload, but not only is this not the case, our work now is even more intensified (Female, 39-44 years old).

The accounts of the four teachers offer a richer insight on this matter, as all teachers commented that time and space were increasingly squeezed with the educational reform. Further, they admitted that their workload had been increased due to the fact that they are now obliged to teach the same amount of material in less time (AInt2, CInt3, DInt2, EInt4). The issue of time leads to Acker’s (1999) findings, who defined intensification as the pressure to perform the same tasks in the same amount of time previously assigned, and to Hargreaves (1994), who claimed that the panacea to the problems caused by work intensification is the provision of adequate time.

As indicated in Charts 16 and 17, teachers expressed their overall satisfaction towards their work but made it clear that they enjoyed their work less than they did a year ago, before the reform agenda was introduced in schools. This dissatisfaction could also be caused not only because of the major reform in their working lives but also because of reduction of their salaries due to governmental cuts.

The more demanding types of inspection, along with the general intensification of teachers’ working life, have been identified by Helsby (2000) as the impediments influencing teaching procedures in a negative way. Findings from a comparative study in England and Portugal conducted by Day, Flores and Viana (2007) indicated that greater
control was placed upon teachers. In contrast to the introduction of surveillance mechanisms to schools in other European countries when educational reforms are introduced (Flores, 2011), in the CES there is no such monitoring, as indicated in both survey and ethnographic data. Specifically, up until the completion of this research study, no mechanism has been developed that investigates the process of reform implementation in schools; an issue which was also highlighted by Phaedra, the headteacher of the Olive Tree Primary School (PInt2).

Government-imposed reform initiatives have been criticised for diminishing teachers’ sense of identity and restricting their areas for discretionary judgement (Helsby, 2000). Limited opportunities to make discretionary judgments using their existing skills and knowledge in the interest of pupils could restrict teachers’ professionalism (Hargreaves, 1994). The lack of trust in teachers’ knowledge skills and expertise was also considered a factor that diminished teacher dissatisfaction (van den Berg, 2002). In the case of Cyprus, research participants held a neutral stance in 2012, as opposed to 2011, about the extent to which opportunities are given to make full use of existing skills and knowledge.

Findings also revealed teachers’ neutral position in 2012 regarding the extent to which there is a sense of congruence between their personal goals and the school goals. Commitment to school vision and the alignment of teachers’ practices to the vision are essential components of the education reform process. A coherent vision developed through a collaborative activity among all stakeholders such as teachers, students, parents and the principal can inform policy and practice within the school (Stolp, 1994). When the level of congruence between teachers’ value orientations and the school goals is ambivalent, teachers may adopt a negative or passive stance in school procedures, like in this case. This was also documented at the micro level with Daphne, the 33 year-old teacher who had a passive role in the school as the philosophy and the vision of the school differed with her personal goals and, as she confessed, had to compromise and adapt to the working environment (DInt2, GOb).
Evidence indicated that, despite the fact teachers spend most of the time on teaching and learning procedures instead of administrative work, routine duties and paperwork do interfere with their practices. In terms of quality of professional life, research outcomes in 2011 depicted a moderate positive highly-significant relationship between the variable ‘post held’ and the item ‘I spend most of the time on administrative work than on teaching and learning’ ($\rho_2 = 0.508, p = 0.000$). In 2012 the strength of the effect size dropped a category and the correlation went from moderate to moderate-low. The relationship between the two variables illustrates that, the higher the position, the less time is being spent on teaching and learning procedures, and this can be explained by the fact that teachers in Cyprus when they get promoted are assigned less hours of teaching and have to spend more time on administrative tasks.

The paperwork load has been also documented in a report regarding teachers’ workload in primary schools, as a matter which puts a lot of pressure on teachers (Galton et al., 2002). In this project, teachers have also expressed their dissatisfaction with the time they spend on paperwork. The increased amount of paperwork not only created negative emotions such as exhaustion and stress, but also had an effect on their classroom practices and personal life as they had to spend most weekends dealing with the paperwork. Like in the case of Cyprus, teachers in English schools perceived paperwork as inessential, deflating and devaluing.
6.2.2.5 Leadership and management

Results revealed that, despite the changes in means (Charts 8-9) on items regarding leadership and management, respondents’ participation in decision-making processes or administrative and management tasks remained limited (Charts 18-19). The majority of
teachers are not responsible for coordinating an area or areas of the curriculum, thus indicating that teachers are not specialised in one area of the curriculum and instead are obliged to teach all the units of the curriculum (Charts 18-19). As a national report (MoEC, 2001) clarifies, teachers in Cyprus are ‘allocated by class; therefore, they are not trained to become subject specialists’ (p. 9).

Prior to the introduction of the educational reform, findings illustrated a strong positive and highly-significant relationship between the variables ‘age’ ($\rho_S = 0.790, p = 0.000$) and ‘years of teaching experience’ and the item ‘I participate in decision-making processes’ ($\rho_S = 0.767, p = 0.000$). Additionally, a moderate positive highly-significant relationship was identified between this questionnaire item and the variable ‘post held’ ($\rho_S = 0.577, p = 0.000$). Statistical relationships were also revealed between the item ‘I participate in administrative and management tasks’ and demographic characteristics. Specifically, a positive moderate and highly-statistical relationship was identified between the variables ‘age’ ($\rho_S = 0.603, p = 0.000$), ‘post held’ ($\rho_S = 0.648, p = 0.000$), ‘years of teaching experience’ ($\rho_S = 0.575, p = 0.000$) and the questionnaire item. In 2012, a discrepancy was identified in terms of the effect size between the aforementioned questionnaire items and the demographic variables. Specifically, all the effect sizes dropped a category.

These outcomes could be explained by the fact that for teachers in Cyprus, years of teaching experience and post held are interrelated with their age. Nearly all primary school teachers in Cyprus begin their teaching career before they reach their 30s, since their placement in schools takes place usually six years after the completion of their bachelor degree. Additionally, the more teaching experience teachers have, the more likely it is to hold a higher post, since the majority of teachers in Cyprus are advanced to a higher position based on their years of experience. Therefore, the older the teachers get, the higher the position they hold and the more teaching experience they have. They are therefore more likely to consider they participate in the decision-making process and administrative and management tasks.
Power is vested in the hands of government, which restricts to a great extent teachers’ participation in leadership and management. The reform agenda suggested allocation of responsibilities to the local level, influenced by international trends towards decentralisation of educational systems (Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou, 2010). Nevertheless, teachers’ participation in important decisions remains limited, while the implementation of the suggestion regarding decentralisation is still questionable. Survey findings reflect those collected at the micro level, where the low participation in leadership and management was very evident.

The benefits of distributed leadership have been advocated in a range of educational studies. As Harris (2005) points out, active teacher engagement in school organisational and administration procedures can contribute to school effectiveness. Specifically, the teacher-school relationship is strengthened, giving the message to teachers that they are recognised as professionals, thus making them more committed to work out school issues and find solutions. This allows the whole school to become more effective in pursuing goals and a shared vision.

Despite numerous proposals for deviation from traditional models of leadership and management to models that involve increased amounts of teacher participation in decision-making, the situation in the CES remains the same. Teachers are not in a position to deviate from the conservative norm (Nicolaidou and Georgiou, 2009) and are obliged to be restricted to the micro level of the school, their classrooms. Lack of participation in decision-making procedures could increase the degree of teachers’ dissatisfaction in their work (van den Berg, 2002) and opposition towards the educational reform (Hargreaves, 2004).
Chart 18: Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the first section of the 2011 questionnaire (leadership and management)
6.2.2.6 Teaching and assessment

Teachers indicated a tendency to move from the middle option of the Likert scale and indicate their agreement towards the item ‘I personalise teaching according to the needs of individual children’ (Charts 20-21). Findings also revealed a strong relationship between the variables ‘age’, ‘years of teaching experience’ and the item ‘I personalise teaching according to the needs of individual children’. The Spearman’s Rho correlation was modest for both the variables ($\rho_s = -0.417$) and ($\rho_s = -0.401$) respectively. This means that older teachers with more years of experience than others tend not to adjust teaching based on individual pupils’ needs. In 2012, the effect size went from the modest category to the weak category. As is evident, teachers, especially the younger ones, seem to start realising how important it is to plan lessons according to individuals’ needs. This was evident to the ethnographic school, as based on the observational data there was a shift to take into account individual pupils’ needs and characteristics and organise
a learning environment which engaged all students (CLOc, ELOd). It is clear that the personalisation of teaching and learning puts pupils at the centre of the process, which has also been regarded as a significant element of effective and continuous learning (Fisher, 2005). Additionally, personalised learning seems to be closely linked to pupil voice, as it provides meaningful opportunities for children to actively engage in the learning process and play an important role in decisions about the provision of education (Karousiou, 2009).

Teachers spend time planning and preparing lessons, recording the development and progress of children and marking pupils’ assessment (Charts 20-21). Campbell and Neill’s (1994) survey, as well as Galton et al.’s (2002) study, depicted how much time teachers spend on different tasks in their work. Preparation and planning of pupils’ learning, marking their work, writing lesson plans and record-keeping were some of the activities primary teachers spent their time on. Teachers at the micro level of the study had limited time during school hours for marking, planning and preparing work; therefore, like in the Galton et al. (2002) study, teachers spent a considerable amount of time during the evenings and at weekends performing these tasks.

Additionally, respondents during the second phase of the distribution of the questionnaire tended to hold a neutral position, as opposed to the negative stance they used to have in 2011, towards the item ‘I conduct classroom research to solve practical teaching issues and problems’ (Charts 20-21). Similar outcomes were reported in the study I conducted in 2010. Research indicated that the conduct of classroom research is a CPD activity which is undertaken by teachers on an average frequency. In addition to this, it was revealed that the conduct of classroom research took the form of receiving feedback regarding the applied teaching practices, either through questionnaires or an informal discussion (Karousiou, 2010). By obtaining feedback from their pupils, teachers respect pupils’ voice on curriculum, teaching and learning process, and develop and amend their teaching techniques, which leads to the improvement of pupils’ performance (Karousiou, 2009; Rudduck and Flutter, 2000). Studies have shown that through the
conduct of classroom research teachers acquire a greater understanding of their own classroom practices, pupils' behaviour and how pupils learn better. Additionally, through this method teachers can identify what needs to be changed and what improvements should take place (Richards and Farrell, 2005).

Findings also revealed a positive moderate and highly-statistical relationship between the variable ‘highest degree held’ and the questionnaire item ‘I conduct classroom research to solve practical teaching issues and problems’ ($\rho_s = 0.650$, $p = 0.000$). The effect size of this relationship went from the moderate correlation to moderate-low. A possible explanation of the relationship between these variables could be the fact that teachers with a higher degree are more likely to come across the benefits of conducting classroom research in order to identify possible problems during the teaching and learning process. Based on observational data, Calypso, who holds a Master’s Degree, distributed a questionnaire to her students in which she asked them for their opinions on her teaching practices (CLOc). On a frequent basis, the novice teacher was seen to engage pupils in the design of the learning process, especially before the preparation of projects (GOc). Additionally, she was observed to ask them for feedback regarding her practices and listen to their preferences (CLOc).
Chart 20: Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the first section of the 2011 questionnaire (teaching and assessment)
Professional identity relates to the first and second research question of this research study. In order to examine teachers’ professional identity as well as how it has been influenced through the reform of the curriculum, the respondents during the survey were asked to indicate their level of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements concerning the professional identity of primary teachers in Cyprus. Further comparisons and correlations will follow, including the effect of demographics on these items when applicable.
6.3.1 Statistical overview of questionnaire items regarding professional identity

Before proceeding with the analysis, I would like first to provide an overall view of the research items comprising this section of the questionnaire. Chart 22 presents the questionnaire items with the lowest differences of means between the two administrations of the questionnaire, whereas Chart 23 presents the lowest differences in means and standard deviations between the two administrations. Chart 22 illustrates very small discrepancies in means (also depicted in Chart 23) which would imply that the educational reform did not have a major overall impact for the items regarding teachers’ professional identity. Chart 23 presents the small differences in means alongside the difference of SDs of the items. This process gives a clearer picture of the outcomes, as it offers indications whether the spread of the responses changed between the two administrations of the questionnaire. The maximum difference of means was 2.4%, and the maximum difference of SDs was 2.1%. Two items shared the smallest means, and these are ‘I have enough freedom to teach’ and ‘The tasks I am responsible for are related to my work’. The item with the smallest SD was ‘I have the necessity of keeping pace with new developments’. Three items shared the largest means: ‘I am able to make important decisions about the conduct of my work’, ‘I make use of critical reflection and analysis to evaluate policies’ and ‘I have the autonomy to develop programs at the micro level of school’. The item with the smallest SDs difference was ‘I have the necessity of keeping pace with new developments’, whereas the item with the largest SDs difference was ‘I make use of critical reflection and analysis to evaluate policies’.
Chart 22: Histogram illustrating the items with the lowest differences of means between the two administrations of the questionnaire.

Chart 23: Histogram depicting the differences in means and standard deviations between the two administrations of the questionnaire. The items depicted here are the ones with the lowest differences of means.

Chart 24 presents the questionnaire items with the highest differences of means between the two administrations of the questionnaire; Chart 25 presents the highest...
differences in means and standard deviations between the two administrations. Items illustrated in Chart 24 display the highest differences in means (also indicated in Chart 25), which suggests that the reform agenda had an overall influence on these questionnaire items. Chart 25 presents the largest difference of means alongside with the difference of standard deviations of the specific items. This chart discloses more information regarding the data, as it offers indications on whether the concentrations of the responses altered between the two tests. The maximum difference of means was 11% whereas the maximum difference of SDs was ~5%. The item with the smallest means difference was ‘I am able to impose my own professional interpretations of government policy’, and the item with the largest means difference was ‘I am satisfied with the ways changes and innovations are implemented’. The item with the smallest SDs difference was ‘I am more committed to my work now than a year ago’, while the item with the largest SDs difference was ‘I am able to impose my own professional interpretations of government policy’.

Chart 24: Histogram illustrating the items with the highest differences of means between the two administrations of the questionnaire
Chart 25: Histogram depicting the highest differences in means and standard deviations between the two administrations of the questionnaire. The items depicted here are the ones with the highest differences of means.

Following this overall statistical illustration of the questionnaire items regarding teachers' professional identity, I proceed with the presentation of the research findings in relation to this issue. In order to do so, I have categorised professional identity into four sub-themes.

6.3.2 Professional identity sub-themes

The subthemes that are presented in the next sections are: job satisfaction, professional confidence, professional commitment and professional autonomy. In addition, I relate the research findings of these sub-themes to the findings of the micro level in order to identify the extent to which they are correlated.

6.3.2.1 Job satisfaction

Data revealed that teachers are overall satisfied with their work, as the majority agreed that they are content with the climate in their school, the support they receive from the management of the school and the fact that tasks they are responsible for are related to
their work (Charts 26-27). Furthermore, the 2011 results indicated that teachers tended to hold a neutral position towards the ways in which changes and innovations were implemented in the schools. However, a year later changes in means and standard deviation revealed (Charts 24-25) teachers’ dissatisfaction about this situation, as the majority selected the disagree strongly/disagree option of the Likert item (Charts 26-27). These outcomes suggest that teachers’ remain satisfied overall because of the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards that are associated with the teaching profession in Cyprus; however, the externally-imposed agenda, which constitutes a factor of the third dimension as encapsulated by Dinham and Scott (2000), greatly affected teacher satisfaction.

The examination of the demographic characteristic ‘highest degree held’ and the questionnaire item ‘I am satisfied with the ways changes and innovations are implemented’ revealed a strong relationship between the two ($p = 0.000$). Spearman’s Rho correlation was moderate ($\rho_S = -0.502$). As there is a minus sign preceding the coefficient, this means that the relationship is negative. In other words, teachers with a higher degree than others are more likely to be less satisfied with the ways in which reforms are being implemented in the school. A year later, in 2012, the effect size fell a category, and from moderate went to a modest negative relationship.

Questionnaire data depicted that the tasks teachers are responsible for are related to their work and, as responses for the item ‘I spend most of the time on administrative work than on teaching and learning’ have shown, teachers spend most of their time teaching. Teaching involves having opportunities to try new teaching and learning approaches and working with children, which are considered as factors that contribute to job satisfaction (Cockburn, 2000). On the contrary, when teachers spend time on tasks that are not related to their work, such as increased paperwork and administrative tasks, teachers feel overwhelmed and dissatisfied (Galton et al., 2002).
The supportive organisational climate of the school and cooperative relationships with colleagues are considered to have an impact on teachers' job satisfaction. In the CES context, as data retrieved from both the micro and macro levels has shown, it is not hard to spot the positive signs of interpersonal relationships with peers and mutual support, which, according to Culver et al. (1990), contribute to the positive reinforcement of job satisfaction. A positive school atmosphere, administrative support and leadership were also identified in a large-scale quantitative study as the factors that boost teachers’ satisfaction most markedly (Taylor and Tashakkori, 1995).

This data reflects that collected at the micro level of this research study. Based on teachers’ interviews and observations, teachers’ job satisfaction was at a moderate level. The main sources of satisfaction were (a) working with children and seeing them achieving goals and (b) the good climate in the school; the constituents of which are (i) working collaboratively with peers, (ii) developing social relations with peers, and (iii) receiving support. Other sources, such as the salary, hours and holidays, which are associated with this profession, were also mentioned. Indeed, after the introduction of the new curriculum and timetables in September 2011, teachers’ satisfaction was affected to a great extent. The new roles and responsibilities for teachers and the ways in which changes and innovations are implemented were among the factors that negatively affected their satisfaction.
Chart 26: Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the third section of the 2011 questionnaire (job satisfaction)

Chart 27: Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the third section of the 2012 questionnaire (job satisfaction)
6.3.2.2 Professional confidence

In terms of professional confidence, a year after the introduction of the reform the majority of teachers felt more confident in imposing their own professional interpretations on government policy and proceeding with a critical evaluation of it, as the change in means reveals (Charts 24-25). Results also show teachers’ increased confidence in their ability to adopt new classroom practices and act flexibility with respect to educational innovations (Charts 28-29). Additionally, teachers expressed their belief that they have the ability to affect pupils’ learning and that their work can bring about change in their school. Respondents also stated that they have a strong knowledge base on the teaching areas they are responsible for.

Research outcomes indicated that teachers’ confidence was high, and this could be attributed to a range of reasons. The first reason relates to the fact that teachers have a strong body of knowledge resulting from working experience in numerous contexts (Calderhead, 1987). Sufficient subject knowledge has been recognised to be associated with high levels of confidence and expertise, as well as to persuade teachers to follow their craft with confidence (Lichtenstein, McLaughlin and Knudsen, 1991). Moreover, the extensive familiarity with the new demands may have enhanced teachers’ professional confidence in making their own decisions (Helsby, 1995). Additionally, data indicated that teachers were satisfied with the climate in their school. Teacher confidence flourishes in collaborative cultures (Hargreaves, 1994), where peers reveal and confess their concerns, doubts, unveil their selves, become friends and provide help and support to each other when problems in the community emerge. Helsby (1999) also emphasised that levels of professional confidence can be linked to teachers’ maintaining an active role in terms of managing policy directives. Therefore, when teachers impose their own professional interpretations on government policies their confidence is high, and vice versa.
Questionnaire data did not capture the fluctuation of teachers' confidence throughout the year like the ethnographic data did. Specifically, the data collected in the Olive Tree Primary School gave me the opportunity to witness the changes in teachers’ professional confidence. Specifically, Electra, like many questionnaire respondents, was highly confident that her practices could affect pupils' learning (ELOa) prior to the introduction of the reform. Sixteen years of teaching experience was the main source of her confidence that she was able to affect pupils' learning and make a difference (Elnt1). In anticipation of the introduction of the reform, Electra was frustrated and confused. Nevertheless, approximately six months later, she started feeling more confident with respect to the reform and engaged in an active way in the reform process, mainly because of her continuous struggle to familiarise herself with the changes and by attending training courses to improve her existing skills (ELoc,d). Familiarising oneself with the reform agenda and attending training are factors that have been found to contribute to the increase of teachers’ professional confidence in changing times (Calderhead, 1987; Helsby, 1995).
Chart 28: Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the third section of the 2011 questionnaire (professional confidence)

Chart 29: Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the third section of the 2012 questionnaire (professional confidence)
6.3.2.3 Professional commitment

In terms of professional commitment (Charts 30-31), teachers stated that they are less committed to their work now than they were prior to the introduction of the major curriculum reform. In a previous section, teachers indicated their dissatisfaction about the ways in which changes are implemented in primary schools. This suggests that changes in national policies and the introduction of an externally-imposed reform tend to decay teachers’ commitment (Helsby, 1999). Furthermore, teachers held a neutral position regarding whether there is a sense of congruence between their personal goals and the school goals as well. According to Ebmeier and Nicklaus (1999), teacher commitment is higher in contexts where teachers feel engaged with the school vision, and this could explain the change in teachers’ commitment level in the CES.

The majority of respondents expressed that they felt it necessary to keep up with new developments. This finding confirms the outcome of my previous survey study, which revealed teachers’ tendency to participate in developmental activities in order to keep up-to-date with advancements in education, improve the quality of their teaching practices and stay informed regarding new approaches (Karousiou, 2010).

In terms of commitment, the cumulative frequencies of the teachers with more teaching experience with respect to the item ‘I am more committed to my work now than a year ago’ indicated their preference to select the ‘strongly disagree/disagree’ option compared to those teachers who had less than 10 years of experience. An interpretation of this finding could be the fact that the educational reform affected in a negative way the commitment of older teachers and hence those who have more years of experience. It is also worth mentioning that a statistically significant difference was identified between these variables. Specifically, findings retrieved from the second distribution of the questionnaire showed a modest negative highly-significant relationship between the variables ‘age’ ($\rho_s = -0.429, p = 0.000$) and ‘years of experience’ ($\rho_s = -0.449, p = 0.000$) and the item ‘I am more committed to my work now than a year ago’. Morris, Lydka, and
O’Creevy (1993) have claimed that younger personnel indicate higher levels of commitment than older personnel because they are keener to further their career and be able to deal with reforms, whereas older staff are less committed because they are often threatened and frustrated when structural changes take place. This finding can be related to Calypso, the novice teacher who was found to be more committed and willing to change her existing practices (CLOb,c,d) than Alcestis (ALOb,c,d), the more experienced teacher who had difficulties in enacting on the education policy.

![Chart 30: Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the third section of the 2011 questionnaire (professional commitment)]
6.3.2.4 Professional autonomy

The research findings indicated that, in terms of professional autonomy (Charts 32-33), teachers have the opportunity to develop programmes at the micro level of school and make important decisions about the conduct of their work. Furthermore, findings revealed that teachers have enough freedom to teach and express their views on important school matters.

Micro level findings relate to these findings, but they also provide deeper insight into teachers’ autonomy. Specifically, they revealed that teachers’ autonomy in Cyprus is restricted to the micro level of the school, namely their classrooms (GOd). Based on the observational data, teachers had the opportunity to make suggestions and propositions, especially during weekly meetings. However, the extent to which their voice was being taken into serious consideration remains questionable, since all the final decisions were made by the headteacher, who was the dominant figure in these sessions (MO1-4).
Inspection is a system of controlling teachers and the CES. Despite this controlling situation, teachers believe that they have enough freedom to teach and make important decisions about their work. Possible explanations of this finding are given by Phaedra, the headteacher of the ethnographic school, who noted that teachers are the dominant individuals behind their classrooms doors. This was also documented during lesson observations. As I have witnessed on two occasions during my fieldwork at the Olive Tree Primary School, during inspection time – which is the only form of control in the CES – teachers prepared a perfect lesson for the inspectors in order to receive a higher score and then continued with the everyday practices with which they were comfortable (ALOd, DLOc).

The significance of teacher autonomy in research and practice is sometimes heralded as the key to better teaching (Biesta, 2009); it can act as a predictor of the way teachers cope with changes within schools and as an indicator of teachers’ willingness to be supportive towards reform directives (Common, 1983). There is the underlying assumption that, through having greater control of their areas, teachers and schools are more likely to implement the governmental demands; however, no increase in control has been reported or observed in this research study. Both survey and ethnographic data have shown that teachers’ autonomy is restricted to their classrooms. A range of studies in Cyprus highlight the inhibiting nature of the top-down structure of the CES (Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou, 2010) in terms of the development of democratically-operating schools and the reasons why teachers cannot impact the development of the whole school, which discourages leadership from flourishing, thus creating feelings of powerlessness.
Chart 32: Column bar-chart depicting the responses of the sample for the third section of the 2011 questionnaire (professional autonomy)
6.4 Views on curriculum reform

This part of the questionnaire relates to teachers' reactions, emotions and perceptions of the reform. During the survey, the respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements concerning primary teachers' views on curriculum reform. Further comparisons and correlations will follow, including the effect of demographics on these items when applicable.

6.4.1 Statistical overview of questionnaire items regarding professional practice

First of all, I would like to present an overall statistical view of the research items. Items depicted in Chart 34 demonstrate very small differences in means which imply that for these items the educational reform did not have a major overall effect. In Chart 35, the
small difference of means is depicted alongside the difference in standard deviations of the items, and adds underlined dimension to the information illustrated in Chart 34. Specifically, this process clarifies the results as it provides indications on whether the spreads of the responses around the means changed between the two distributions of the questionnaire. The maximum difference of means was 3%, and the maximum difference of SDs was ~1%. These differences are small but expected, since Chart 34 groups the items with the smallest differences in means. The item with the smallest means difference was ‘I am ready to accept changes to the way work is carried out’, whereas two items had the largest means difference: ‘I am aware of the changes associated with the new curriculum’ and ‘I can organise my teaching so as to achieve the aims of the new curriculum’. The item with the smallest SDs difference was ‘There are opportunities to develop cross-curricular work with my students’, whereas two items shared the largest SDs difference: ‘The new curriculum will reduce teachers’ stress regarding the organisation of the teaching’ and ‘I can organise my teaching so as to achieve the aims of the new curriculum’.
Chart 34: Histogram illustrating the items with the lowest differences of means between the two administrations of the questionnaire.

Chart 35: Histogram depicting the differences in means and standard deviations between the two administrations of the questionnaire. The items depicted here are the ones with the lowest differences of means.

Chart 36 illustrates the highest differences in means (also depicted in Chart 37), which imply that the educational reform had a major overall influence on the items that
comprised the fourth part of the questionnaire. Chart 37 presents the largest differences in means alongside the difference of SDs of the items. This is very useful, as it provides information about the extent to which the concentrations of the responses changed between the two administrations of the questionnaire. The maximum difference of means was 7%, whereas the maximum difference of SDs was ~5%. Three items shared the smallest means, and these are ‘The curriculum reform is a useful innovation in primary education’, ‘I believe that the new curriculum introduces major changes in teaching and learning process’ and ‘Curriculum directives are designed to contribute to the increase of teachers’ motivation’. The item with the smallest SD was ‘The new curriculum provides greater freedom’. Two items shared the largest means: ‘I believe that the new curriculum will improve results’ and ‘I am familiar with the content of the new curriculum’. The item with the largest SDs difference was ‘I am well informed about the new curriculum reform’.

Chart 36: Histogram illustrating the items with the highest differences of means between the two administrations of the questionnaire
Chart 37: Histogram depicting the differences in means and standard deviations between the two administrations of the questionnaire. The items depicted here are the ones with the highest differences of means.

Following this overall statistical illustration of the questionnaire items regarding teachers' emotions, views and perceptions towards the reform, I now present the research findings in relation to this issue. Since all the items in this part of the questionnaire examine teachers' perceptions, emotions and views regarding the externally-imposed reform agenda, I present the findings based on the level of agreement/disagreement of the respondents. At first, I present the items the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed on, in 2011, and then the items teachers strongly disagreed/disagreed on in 2012. The same process will be followed for the other levels of agreement/disagreement. As indicated in the following charts, some items move from one level of agreement/disagreement to another between the two administrations of the questionnaire.

The investigation of the results regarding primary teachers' views on the curriculum reform revealed that, a year after the introduction of the major policy reform, the majority of the participants still do not feel properly prepared with respect to the reform agenda and are not well informed about it (Charts 38-39). Additionally, teachers indicated their
overall disagreement with the suggestion that the new curriculum will reduce teachers’ stress regarding the organisation of the teaching. In May-June 2011, participants stated that they were neither familiar with the content of the new curriculum nor comfortable with the new curriculum arrangements (Chart 38), but in 2012 teachers tended to select the middle option of the Likert scale, thus moving from a negative attitude to a neutral stance, as indicated in Chart 43. Additionally, teachers in Cyprus indicated in 2011 that they held a neutral position on whether new curriculum directives aimed at the increase of motivation (Charts 42). However, this changed in 2012 and, as findings have shown, teachers disagreed with respect to this item of the questionnaire (Chart 39). This finding reflects what was also found in Day, Flores and Viana’s (2007) study, in which it was revealed that the recent reform in Portugal had led to a decrease in motivation.

These findings are similar to those collected at the micro level of the study. None of the school participants felt properly prepared about the curriculum, as the information and guidance they received by the time this research study was conducted were both inadequate and insufficient. Based on both ethnographic and survey data, teachers were more stressed after the introduction of the reform. The fact that the new curriculum is offering more autonomy and greater freedom to the teachers with respect to the organisation of the teaching and learning procedures frustrated and increased stress levels of the participants. Within the context of a traditionally highly-conservative and centralised educational system, teachers in Cyprus, like their colleagues in Portugal, are currently experiencing a movement towards a greater flexibility in terms of the curriculum. In a similar mode as the Portuguese educational system, teachers are being given greater autonomy to develop their own material and curriculum projects based on their pupils' needs, and accordingly to interpret governmental strategies and regulations (Day, Flores, and Viana, 2007). Like in the case of Portugal, teachers in this study indicated that they also lacked information with respect to the reform and characterised their knowledge about the reform agenda as ambiguous and unclear.
Chart 38: Column bar-chart summarising the distributions of the items regarding teachers’ views on curriculum reform (means in the strongly disagree/disagree range in 2011)
Results also depicted the agreement of the majority of the teachers on certain statements regarding the curriculum reform (Charts 40-41). Synoptically, teachers’ agreement was reinforced towards the fact that the curriculum reform is a useful innovation in primary education, which introduces major changes in the teaching and learning process and provides opportunities to develop cross-curricular work with students. Furthermore, the outcomes revealed that teachers are ready to accept changes to the way work is carried out and that they can organise their teaching to achieve the aims of the new curriculum. This indicates that the majority of teachers in the CES recognise the fact that there is a need for change and the shift towards 21st century pedagogical practices. The argument that the CES needs restructuring has been advocated by many researchers in the past. Angelides and Leigh (2004) highlighted the need for deep reforms to the structure of the CES for a successful and strong presence in the EU. The necessity of reshaping the existing, highly-centralised educational system was also articulated in the Education Reform Plan, in which the seeds for the
development of the new curricula and system decentralisation were first introduced (Committee on Educational Reform, 2004). While teachers may show positive attitudes towards curriculum innovation, this alone does not mean that they actively engage in its enactment in the classroom (Kennedy and Kennedy, 1996).

A cross-curricular approach is one of the aims of the new curricula in Cyprus. This kind of approach permits pupils to deal with real life problems, make sense of the world, develop their capacity to learn and promote creativity and metacognitive learning. This is opposed to the previous curriculum, which was subject-based; its format was more likely to obstruct the practice of cross-curricularity (Kyriakides, 1994). Survey participants responded positively that the new curriculum does offer opportunities to develop cross-curricular work with students. However, as one of the survey respondent commented, the time reduction limits the chances of using this approach. This comment echoes MacBeath et al.’s (2004) findings, which also indicated the problem of finding adequate time for cross-curricular approaches given the tight time and the rigidness of the national curriculum.
Chart 40: Column bar-chart summarising the distributions of the items regarding teachers’ views on curriculum reform (means in the strongly agree/agree range in 2011)
Chart 41: Column bar-chart summarising the distributions of the items regarding teachers’ views on curriculum reform (means in the strongly agree/disagree range in 2012)

The majority of the primary school teachers held a neutral position on the general process of the reform agenda and the extent of their awareness of the changes associated with the new curriculum (Charts 42-43). In 2011, teachers held a neutral stance on whether the new curriculum introduced major changes in the teaching and learning process, whereas in 2012 they indicated their agreement towards this item. They also remained neutral regarding whether or not the Ministry had gotten it right with the reform and whether their teaching methods would change with the introduction of the new curriculum. Moreover, despite the fact that teachers in the first phase of the research held a neutral position on whether the new curriculum will improve results, the extent to which teachers are granted more autonomy to make decisions at classroom level and whether the new curriculum provides greater freedom, in the second phase of the questionnaire completion they tended to agree with these statements. Additionally, in May-June 2011, teachers were neutral as to whether curriculum directives are designed
to contribute to the increase of teachers’ motivation; in 2012 they indicated their disagreement towards this statement.

The neutral stance teachers held towards these items reveals that, a year after the introduction of the externally-imposed agenda, teachers are not fully aware and familiar with this major change in their professional lives. This neutrality indicates that the majority of teachers are neither resisting or submitting to the externally-imposed changes, nor taking active control by creatively meditating the changes. These outcomes are in opposition to those in Spillane’s (1999) mixed method study, which indicated that the 25 teachers who participated in the research were familiar with the main reform areas and attempted to restructure their teaching practices according to reform initiatives. A possible explanation is the fact that policy enactment greatly depends on whether teachers, who are the key agents of reforms, (Hargreaves, 1994) mediate new initiatives and whether new practices are consistent with their values and principles. The ways in which teachers mediate policies and orders depends upon their previous beliefs and practices (Vulliamy and Webb, 1993) and how much meaningful support they receive (Schmidt and Datnow, 2005). Based on ethnographic and survey data, teachers highlighted the inadequacy in terms of resources, which had a negative impact upon the indicators of professional identity and, consequently, their attitudes towards the reform. The questionnaire data correlates with figure 6 presented in chapter five, where it was advocated that teachers’ engagement in policy interpretation and enactment depends on the provision of adequate resources and meaningful training as well as teachers’ perceptions, views and ideologies regarding the educational reform.
Chart 42: Column bar-chart summarising the distributions of the items regarding teachers’ views on curriculum reform (means in the neither agree nor disagree range in 2011)
6.5 Views on training and support

This part of the questionnaire relates the sorts of training and support teachers have received at this time of major curriculum reform in the CES. During the survey, the respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements concerning primary teachers’ views on training and support.

6.5.1 Statistical overview of questionnaire items regarding training and support

Firstly, I will present an overall statistical view of the research items regarding training and support. Items illustrated in Chart 44 display the differences in means (also indicated in Chart 45), which suggest that the reform agenda had limited influence on the items
regarding teachers’ training. Chart 45 presents the difference of means alongside the difference of standard deviations of the items. This chart discloses more information regarding the data, as it indicates whether the spread of the responses around the mean altered between the two administrations of the questionnaire. The maximum difference of means was 4% whereas the maximum difference of SDs was ~2%. The item with the smallest means difference was ‘The in-service training courses and activities meet my professional needs’; the item with the largest means difference was ‘I welcome any support and advice with respect to the reform’. The item with the smallest SDs difference was ‘I welcome any support and advice with respect to the reform’, and the item with the largest SDs difference was ‘I attend training events’.

Chart 44: Histogram illustrating the differences of means between the two administrations of the questionnaire
Following this overall statistical illustration of the questionnaire items regarding teachers’ training and support, I proceed below with the presentation of the research findings in relation to this issue. In order to do so effectively, I have categorised training and support into two sub-themes: the quality of training and support and the kind of training teachers have received.

### 6.5.2 Quality of training and support

The investigation of the results regarding primary teachers’ views on the training and support they received to prepare them for the upcoming reform depicts that, a year later, teachers have not yet received proper training. The majority of the primary school teachers still do not consider that they have received adequate training, nor that the training courses held covered their needs regarding the new curriculum or they met their professional needs. Furthermore, teachers consider that the MoEC neither provides adequate support, guidance and advice with respect to the curriculum reform in terms of training, nor offers clear aims and guidelines (Charts 46-47). Results also depicted that most of the teachers welcomed any support and advice with respect to the reform.
The discrepancy in means indicates the intensification of teachers’ dependency on support and guidance in this period. As for the items ‘I stay up to date with changes and developments in the structure of the curriculum’ and ‘I attend Continuing Professional Development courses’, teachers once again tended to select the middle option of the Likert scale. Teachers’ attendance at training events has been reduced, as revealed by the change in the means during the two periods of the questionnaire administration. The lower attendance in training events could be explained by the fact that, between September 2011 and April 2012, teachers decided not to participate in any extra-curricular activities, including INSET courses offered at off-site training centres, as a response to government cuts in education and teachers’ salaries.

The results confirmed findings at the micro level regarding the extent to which training and support satisfies the needs of teachers as well as the figure presented in chapter five where it was illustrated that the insufficiency of INSET was among the contextual factors which had a negative effect on teachers’ professional identity and major implications for their practices. The insufficiency and inadequacy of the training provision in Cyprus has repeatedly been emphasised in a range of studies (Committee on Educational Reform, 2004; Karagiorgi and Symeou, 2008; Karousiou, 2010). Despite the fact that major educational innovations are taking place in the CES, primary school teachers receive inadequate and insufficient training. Osborn (1996) has also highlighted similar problems, namely an absence of structured training programmes, inadequate resources and purposeless and unsystematic workshops, in the French education system. This inability to offer teachers meaningful support and knowledge inhibits teachers from responding positively to the current educational challenges (Duncombe and Armour, 2004).

The dissatisfaction of the majority of teachers with the current training provision in Cyprus could be explained by the fact that it has many similarities to the training system used in the United States and the United Kingdom during the 70s, namely a focus on external workshops where instructors deliver knowledge and distribute information.
(Karagiorgi and Symeou, 2008). Specifically, training has until recently been primarily voluntary and informal, relying on the individual rather than collaborative engagement and reflective procedures (Angelides, 2002; Karagiorgi and Symeou, 2006). Mandatory courses are provided only to those teachers who are promoted to a higher position, or when reforms are being introduced to the CES. The content of training courses has caused great dissatisfaction among teachers, as also indicated in this research study. The absence of any system for determining teachers’ and schools’ needs before training is delivered has resulted in the provision of meaningless training seminars, which are theory driven only. The majority of these sessions are based on the needs and primacies identified by the Directorates of the MoEC, or based on the instructors’ interests. Some of the survey respondents did not hesitate to express their disappointment and despair at the training they receive. As two of the respondents commented:

I am very disappointed with the training we have received so far. The majority of the seminars were inadequate and meaningless and they offered theoretical knowledge instead of practical and as a result when I return back to school I end up forgetting most things. Reading slides and giving a lecture about the curriculum change do not help teachers in figuring out the purpose of this reform and how to manage it. We need workshops where we can work with our peers on units of the new curriculum (Female teacher, 33-38 years old).

We desperately need meaningful training based on our needs. The training I attended was too general and no specific information was given to us. I would have preferred a school based training in order to see how this new curriculum reform can be implemented in real conditions (Female teacher, 39-44 years old).

These statements not only indicate that the core principles underpinning successful training courses, such as problem solving, building on experience and interaction with colleagues, are being ignored (Charalambous, no date); they also indicate that there is an increased need for a shift from theoretically-oriented one-shot courses to a training scheme that is based on ‘learning’ and ‘community’ models (Barab and Duffy, 2000) and promotes collaborative learning, practically-oriented tasks and ongoing feedback.
Chart 46: Column bar-chart summarising the distributions of the items regarding teachers’ views on the quality of training and support they have received in 2011

Chart 47: Column bar-chart summarising the distributions of the items regarding teachers’ views on the quality of training and support they have received in 2012
Chart 48: Column bar-chart summarising the distributions of the items regarding teachers’ views on the quality of training and support they have received in 2011.

Chart 49: Column bar-chart summarising the distributions of the items regarding teachers’ views on the quality of training and support they have received in 2012.
6.5.3 List of training

During the survey, the respondents were asked to list the training they attended during the last year. Frequency distributions calculated in SPSS are depicted in Table 7. The table indicates that the majority of primary school teachers in Cyprus have attended the general training courses and participated in training courses for each discipline included in the new curriculum. Furthermore, the same percentage of teachers not only participated in the mandatory training courses but also participated in CPD courses. Furthermore, it should be noted that a number of teachers did not participate in any form of training or CPD courses whilst others chose to participate in only one of the available training courses. As is evident in the table 7 below, the number of teachers who chose not to participate in any training course increased by 8% in 2012.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I have not participated in any training or CPD courses</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Training course for curriculum reform (General-December 2010)</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Training course for curriculum reform (Greek, Maths, Geography, Health Education, History, Science)</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. CPD Courses (Volunteering, bullying, educational leadership and school improvement, technology integration)</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Training course for curriculum reform (General-December 2010) Training course for curriculum reform (Greek, Maths, Geography, Health Education, History, Science) CPD Courses (Volunteering, bullying, educational leadership and school improvement, technology integration)</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Training course for curriculum reform (General-December 2010) Training course for curriculum reform (Greek, Maths, Geography, Health Education, History, Science)</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: This table shows the percentages that correspond to the training teachers have attended in May-June 2011 and in May-June 2012. All the responses to these statements were valid (100% valid, 0% missing).
6.6 Summary

In this chapter I have illustrated that the framework known as figure 6 in chapter five has been confirmed by the data from the teachers in the district of Nicosia. Research data from the micro level is consistent with that from the meso level, as both sets of data revealed that the educational reform had an impact upon teachers’ professional identities and therefore their practices. The evidence showed that the constructs of professional identity were challenged upon the launch of the externally-imposed reform agenda. Both micro level and meso level showed the same emerging factors were found to influence teachers’ professional lives. As research data indicated, the insufficient training, inadequate resources, increased workload, relationships with peers and lack of respect, status and recognition, teachers’ prior knowledge, values, beliefs and experiences affected to a great extent the concepts underpinning teachers’ professional identity and consequently their practices.

The reform agenda placed great demands on teachers, creating negative emotions towards the reform and increasing frustration and stress levels. Despite indicating an overall satisfaction with their profession because of extrinsic and intrinsic factors, the educational reform brought about major changes in teachers’ professional lives and affected in a negative way their satisfaction and commitment to their work. In terms of professional confidence, the majority of teachers declared a year after the introduction of the reform that they were feeling more confident in interpreting policy reform. However, it can be argued that the quantitative data did not manage to capture the fluctuations in teachers’ professional confidence, whereas the qualitative data provided a more holistic view and greater understanding of the negative impact the educational reform had on professional confidence during the first months of its implementation in schools. Despite the fact that teachers’ professional autonomy was among the priorities of the reform agenda, research data from both micro and meso levels indicated that teachers’ autonomy remains restricted to their classrooms.
The consistency of the research data at both micro and meso levels is important, as the successful comparison of data confirms the value and success of triangulation, strengthening the results of the research study. Research data collected at the micro and meso levels complemented and confirmed each other. This methodological triangulation offset the inadequacies of the single method research and minimized the impact of bias. More importantly, with the use of qualitative data I had the opportunity to get richer and more comprehensive information about teachers’ professional identity in changing times, while the quantitative data offered me the opportunity to get an overall picture of the ways in which teachers’ professional identity has been influenced through the reform of the curriculum.

Having presented and connected the stories of the four teachers to a broader population, in the next chapter I concentrate on the accounts of two curriculum coordinators and on documentary evidence regarding this major curriculum reform. Therefore, the experiences of teachers from the four in-depth stories and the survey data will be examined in relation to the perceptions of reform designers regarding teachers’ professional lives and educational policy reform agenda in a chapter based on documents and interviews with government officials.
CHAPTER SEVEN
MACRO LEVEL

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the in-depth accounts of the four teachers and the wider teacher experiences from the survey are linked to the macro level of this research study. So far, the data has shown that the externally-imposed educational reform agenda has challenged the existing professional identities of teachers in Cyprus, and factors related to the reform (such as inadequate training and resources, increased workload, lack of respect, status and recognition) have threatened teachers’ identity and had a negative impact on teachers’ morale and sense of professionalism.

The third level in this story of reform requires that the experiences and situations of teachers who have experienced the changes are interrelated to the policy processes outlined in official policy texts and accounts by curriculum coordinators. I frame this through examining the policy process in general, before going on to present data and analysis from oral and written texts by policy actors. At the beginning of this chapter I present the complexities of education policy. Following this, I focus on the findings derived from the interviews of two official executive curriculum coordinators, during which their views on the curriculum reform, the effects of the reform on teachers’ professional lives, and the training and support offered to the teachers were obtained. Additionally, documents are used in order to present analysis about the ways in which policy actors conceptualise teachers’ professional lives and how they are affected by the centrally imposed educational agenda. The examination of the two curriculum coordinators’ accounts and the documentary evidence has led to the identification and presentation of some emerging factors, which are related to work intensification, teachers’ training, resources, teachers’ status, respect and recognition and teachers’ prior knowledge and beliefs. Finally, based on my research findings, I concentrate on the
main reasons why the outcomes of the curriculum reform policies do not correspond with the intended outcomes as expected by reform designers, thus increasing the gap between national policy and professional practice.

7.2 Educational policy

Educational policy is at the top of the agenda of governments across the world and is regarded as an amalgam of (a) rules and imperatives, (b) principles and (c) joint attempts of interpretation, translation and negotiation (policy enactment). Ozga (2000) considers policy ‘as a process rather than a product, involving negotiation, contestations or struggle between different groups who may lie outside the formal machinery of official policy making’ (p. 2).

Educational policy development has been exploited by central governments to regulate, control and manage change, and revolutionise the existing education provision in an attempt to raise standards and achievement (Maguire, Ball and Braun, 2010). Policies are developed based on a wide range of ideas and engage different groups of actors during their formulation process (Ball et al., 2011a). Most typically, policy translations take place within a dominant setting and within a prevailing discourse of ‘raising standards’. This approach of educational policy, as conceptualised by Ball and his colleagues, challenges the mono-dimensional interpretation of Birkland (2010), who defines policy as ‘a statement by the government – at whatever level – of what it intends to do about a public problem’ (p. 9).

Birkland’s (2010) definition situates educational policy within a traditional problem-solving framework. This framework stems from a rationalism approach and supports a managerialist logicality of policy by considering policy as a guide that includes a range of policy changes developed by reform designers which actors are to follow in order to deal with a specific school matter. This problem-solving framework, which adopts a state control approach, has been criticised for its simplicity and linearity, for disregarding the
socio-cultural character of policy process and detaching policy generation from implementation, resulting in the reinforcement of a managerial model that ‘silences’ the voices of all stakeholders (teachers, students, parents) but the state (Bell and Stevenson, 2006; Bowe, Ball with Gold, 1992).

Policy is not an attempt at simply solving a problem but instead is a process that is varyingly contested and is enacted in many creative ways by policy actors. Colebatch (2009) offers a useful definition of policy which at the same time unveils the complex meaning of the term:

policy means different things to different people. Not only will participants and observers have different perspectives, but participants from different positions in the action are likely to see the same scene in different ways (p. 4).

A growing body of literature suggests that, at a time of rapid reform, educational reform policies not only offer one of the contexts within which the nature of teachers’ identities is being developed (Helsby, 1999) but also have an impact upon teachers’ practices and their working relationships (Campbell, 1996; Müller et al., 2010). Such policies, whether constructed at national or school level, may assist in endorsing certain ways of working or recommend ways in which practices might be altered.

Day et al. (2006) provide a general statement regarding educational reform, which is useful in conceptualising the similarities of reform agendas in schools across different countries despite their differences in content, direction and pace. The authors identify five common factors that can be found in every educational reform attempt. As they suggest, reform programmes are developed due to governments’ beliefs that, by interfering to alter the settings under which students learn, they can promote school improvement and effectiveness, increase standards of achievement, somewhat accelerate financial competitiveness and address inherent concerns of governments regarding an alleged disintegration of personal and social values in society. Furthermore, with specific reference to teachers’ personal lives, reforms in schools do not always take
into account teachers’ work and identities and also tend to challenge teachers’ existing professional practices, resulting in increased workload and periods of at least short-term destabilisation.

Having illustrated the complexities of the concept of educational policy, in the next paragraphs I concentrate on the accounts of the two curriculum coordinators who participated in the development of the new educational policy, focusing in particular on their views about the curriculum reform. The tensions created by their ambiguous position (one as a researcher who was brought in to assist in development of a policy agenda, and the other as a teacher who teaches children and who was involved in both policy development and enactment) are evident in the following accounts.

7.3 Curriculum coordinators’ professional profiles

Rhea is a well-known and prestigious academic at a higher institution in Cyprus. She was a member of the advisory committee on evaluation and examination of the MoEC regarding the development of the new curricula. She has also participated in a large number of committees for the evaluation of educational programmes and teaching personnel. She is an active member of international academic organisations and is specialised in supervision and curriculum development, educational policy, programme development, evaluation, training and teachers’ and trainers’ professional development.

Artemis is a deputy headteacher in her early forties. She is in her twentieth year of teaching and has been at the Olive Tree Primary school for five years. Having completed a Bachelor of Education degree, Artemis continued her studies towards a Master’s and a PhD in Health Sciences. For the past five years, she has been seconded to the MoEC for three days per week and on her days away from the MoEC she works at the school. Artemis is one of 360 specialised teachers who staffed twenty-one subject committees and participated in the development of the new curricula, starting in 2009.
7.4 Curriculum coordinators’ accounts

7.4.1 Account One: Rhea

Rhea suggested that the educational reform was considered a public initiative and not an exclusive matter of the MoEC, as teachers had the opportunity to participate in the development of the educational reform agenda. However, she considered teachers’ participation as meaningless since teachers were not trained or equipped with adequate knowledge to engage effectively in such a demanding process. As she stated,

teachers’ participation in the development of the new curricula was a mistake as they had no expertise in the development of new curricula and therefore their suggestions and participation lacked meaning and importance. Also, the majority of them were seconded to the MoEC and had never taught in schools so they were not aware of the real problems or any issues which concern teachers in schools.

Rhea identified a crucial mistake made during the development phase, which, as research evidence indicated, caused a great frustration among teachers and an intensification of their work. As the policymaker emphasised, ‘the new timetables were given to the reform designers after the formation of the new curricula resulting to the new timetables not complying with the new curricula’. The policymaker asserted that the development of the new curricula was based on the findings of a range of evaluation studies, such as the UNESCO Report in 1997 and the Education Reform Programme in 2004. Furthermore, she did not hesitate to unleash a harsh attack on the MoEC by claiming that government officials were copying material from curricula in other countries instead of adjusting it to the Cypriot reality.

With respect to teachers’ training, Rhea pointed out its inadequacy and insufficiency and expressed her disappointment in the Ministry, as government officials ignored her proposition for a more effective training scheme. The insufficiency of the training scheme, along with the non-scientific development of the new curricula, were regarded
by Rhea as the biggest barriers to the successful implementation of the reform, which will eventually result in the maintenance of the status quo of the CES. As she claimed:

> the continuous provision of information at off-site theory driven seminars, during which teachers are being regarded as tabula rasa does not constitute proper training for a major educational reform. On the contrary, I consider action research and workshops as the most reflective and suitable paradigm for teachers’ meaningful development and training.

The policymaker had also highlighted the importance of teachers’ role towards the new curricula by characterising them as the key to the success of the educational reform, but she considered that teachers do not receive much accreditation in terms of their work, especially from those stakeholders that are responsible for their training.

### 7.4.2 Account two: Artemis

After signifying her interest in actively engaging in the development of the new curriculum on the subject area Artemis had expertise in, the deputy head teacher was called up by the Ministry to participate as a seconded teacher in the development process in 2009. Inspectors acted as consultants to the scientific coordinators and the seconded teachers who took part in the curriculum formation. The duties of the seconded teachers included making suitable arrangements regarding the proper functioning of the working groups, ensuring good communication between the scientific coordinators and the seconded teachers and contributing to the smooth process of curriculum development. Although it was a big step for the highly centralised system to have teachers participating in this kind of process, Artemis confessed that ‘the involvement of seconded teachers was rather passive, as only the people who were assigned by the Ministry as the authors for the new curricula had their voice being taken into serious account’. The restricted role of teachers and the unwillingness of reform designers to abandon their monolithic ideas and give the opportunity to teachers to share their opinions was a cause of great disappointment to Artemis. As she stated,
I consider myself qualified enough to actively engage in the development of the new curriculum not only because I have the professional expertise to do so but also because I am currently working in primary schools and I am aware of the difficulties and any other issues teachers face in their professional lives.

In terms of teachers’ training with respect to the curriculum reform, Artemis highlighted that ‘it was meaningless, too general, limited and unsuitable for satisfying the needs of the teachers’. The seconded teacher stressed the importance of suitable and sufficient training, as there is a huge gap between the old curriculum and the new one and that ‘unfortunately, without any prior knowledge and adequate training about the reform process, definitely nothing will change’. Artemis did not consider that teachers are ready to embrace the directives of the new curriculum, especially those who had worked in the system for more than a decade, as changing habits with respect to teaching practices is very difficult. However, she regarded teachers as active agents of the reform procedures with the fate of the change process in their hands.

Artemis regarded teachers’ strikes in response to government cuts, inadequate training, the limited period of transition from one curriculum to the other, and insufficient and in many cases unsuitable teaching material as the main impediments to the implementation of the curriculum reform. For the past three years Artemis has sent reports and letters to the Ministry with specific suggestions about how the Home Sciences curriculum could be improved; however, she has received no response. As she stated, ‘[the] Ministry’s insistence that everything runs smoothly with no particular problems condemns the reform process; therefore, no substantial reform will take place with the current situation in the CES’.

7.5 Emerging factors

The examination of the accounts of the two curriculum coordinators has led to the identification of the same contextual and professional factors that were presented in figure 6 and were found to have an impact upon teachers’ professional lives in both
micro and meso levels of this research study. These factors will be presented in the following sections and connected with the data collected during the conduct of the micro and meso level. Additionally, quotes from other government officials regarding the process of the educational reform will be recounted. This will enable me to present the different perspectives of stakeholders that exist in the CES with respect to the process of the centrally-imposed educational agenda. It should be noted that the interviewed curriculum coordinators Artemis and Rhea, lay in an area which is situated between the Ministry and teachers. Specifically, Artemis was seconded by the Ministry to materialise the Ministry’s theoretical plans and as a primary school teacher was then called on to apply them. Therefore, her dispositions are underpinned by both the theoretical background and tangible reality. Rhea was also assigned by the Ministry to materialise the Ministry’s theoretical plans and as an academic who participated in the development of the reform was then called to present to the teachers the philosophy of the new curricula. On the other hand, the people from the Ministry whose quotes are included in the following paragraphs choose to present a different image in the media than what it is actually taking place in the system. Ergo, if one seeks to find out what is truly taking place in schools, one should turn to what teachers’ views, which are presented synoptically below in conjunction with the other perspectives.

7.5.1 Contextual factors

7.5.1.1 Work intensification

Research outcomes revealed that government officials did not seem to conceptualise how their decisions influenced teaching practices, and this caused their decisions to be based on unrealistic expectations which consequently caused negative emotions among teachers. Specifically, teachers have continually reported the stress and frustration created by the increased workload as a result of the reform initiatives. Cuban’s
metaphor, which regards an externally imposed reform as a hurricane at sea, aptly describes teachers’ feelings about the reform:

Hurricane winds sweep across the sea tossing up twenty foot waves; a fathom below the surface turbulent waters swirl while on the ocean floor there is unruffled calm (Cuban, 1984, p. 2).

The incongruence of the new timetables with the content of the new curricula was another issue raised by the teachers which caused major frustration among teachers. According to teachers’ testimonies, reform designers reduced the teaching hours in core subjects but the material remained the same, having as a result the increase of workload rather than its decrease, as promised by officials. This incongruence was also detected by both curriculum coordinators as the biggest problem with this reform:

Timetables were given after the development of the new curricula so you can realise that without knowing how many periods are assigned to each subject we end up creating new curricula which will eventually intensify teachers’ work even more (RInt1).

There are many difficulties now with the new timetables as the demanded teaching periods do not comply with the new curricula. Therefore, teachers have fewer periods to teach the same amount of material which leads to the increase of workload and the creation of frustration and anxiety among teachers (ArInt1).

However, the Minister presented a different view about the new curricula:

The main innovation of the new curricula is the fact that the material has been restricted to an adequate and coherent body of knowledge which was selected based on strictly defined criteria in order to leave behind teachers’ feeling that they participate in a speed race to cover the existing material which had serious negative effects on the learning climate of our schools and students’ performance (Demosthenous, 2012a).

Research data indicated that, although the teachers and the two curriculum coordinators had identified the intensification of teacher workload as an undesirable outcome of the externally imposed education reform and mainly because of the incongruence between the new timetables and the new curricula, the Minister of Education and Culture failed to
acknowledge this problem which was found to be associated with increased stress, low job satisfaction, confidence and commitment among teachers.

As revealed in both micro and meso levels of this research study, work intensification did not only cause negative emotions such as stress and frustration, but it did however lead to a significant increase in teacher collaboration. Supportive relationships among peers was a mechanism employed by the majority of research participants (as a coping mechanism) for dealing with major changes in their professional lives in order to carry on with their new roles and responsibilities.

7.5.1.2 Training

The inadequacy and insufficiency of the training scheme in Cyprus has not only been identified by the vast majority of research participants, but has also been reported by both interviewed curriculum coordinators.

The training teachers have received was inadequate. Teachers were called to participate in off-site highly informative seminars about the new curriculum. They were not called to participate in workshops where they could cultivate necessary skills which will be essential for them and which will help them with the implementation of the new curriculum (RInt1).

Teachers’ training was too general and limited. It was not an actual training but it was just a provision of information. Teachers were bombarded with a lot of information with respect to the new curriculum and they didn’t have the chance to implement the new material based on the new guidelines and then receive any kind of feedback (ArInt1).

In many European countries, such as Denmark, the different interpretations of new curricula by teachers are being acknowledged and, in order to establish a dialogue with teachers, curriculum coordinators hold conferences and conduct workshops to support them (Cedefop, 2012). On the contrary, teachers in Cyprus were offered theory instead of experience stemming from professional practice; they were not involved in any collaborative activities during which they could have drawn upon their experiences, reflected on them and received feedback and support on their teaching practices.
The current training scheme does not promote a transformative professionalism which is inclusive, collegial, enquiry-oriented, flexible and responsive to change, and based upon learning, participation, collaboration and cooperation. Teachers are not given the opportunity to develop a greater sense of their agency and professional growth as a consequence of exercising greater autonomy over their practices and how they act upon them. Instead, with the provision of this kind of training, officials cultivate the old professionalism model, which is conservative, self-interested, subject to external regulation, reactive and slow to change, and perceives teachers as implementers of externally-imposed reform policies (Sachs, 2003). The informative character of the INSET represents a managerial discourse during which the agenda is formed by ‘experts’, threatening the identity of those practitioners who desire a democratic discourse and consider that learning takes place through an open dialogue and continuous partnership with peers, students and other stakeholders.

Acknowledging the problematic training provision in Cyprus, Rhea proposed to Ministry administrators to move from the individualistic character of training programmes towards a model that promotes the development of ‘reflective practitioners’. This kind of model engages teachers in continuous reflection and enables participation in informal activities during which teachers can communicate with peers and examine their views on teaching against the views of colleagues. Reflective practices as an individual endeavour will not lead to significant change since there is no need for individuals to articulate their practice if there is no confrontation by others (Day, 1999). Learning is a social practice and culturally developed; therefore, reflective dialogue and social interaction are important in this model of professional development (Morris and Stew, 2007). Rhea’s proposition, however, was not accepted by the Ministry, thus raising the question of why government administrators preferred to focus on a managerial model of training instead of a democratic, participatory and reflective model.

In an attempt to show the public that the Ministry put a lot of effort into the development of the reform training programme, the Minister of Education and Culture claimed that:
for the smooth introduction of the new curricula the most extended
teacher education programme in the history of the Cyprus educational
system has been implemented, and all the teachers who were affected
by the reform had been asked to participate in the training sessions
(Demosthenous, 2012a).

At this point it should be noted that the fourth phase of the training programme, which
was going to be held during the period 9th to 30th of May 2011 and which aimed to
prepare teachers and resolve any questions before the introduction of the reform in
September 2011, did not take place (PADED, 2011), resulting in the intensification of
negative feelings among teachers. Additionally, due to teachers’ strikes as a response to
cuts in education, teachers did not participate for approximately six months in any
training seminars.

Based on the research findings, the importance of meaningful teachers’ training with
respect to the reform process has allegedly been ignored. This negligence can also be
identified in the following quote, in which the main focus of the mandatory training
sessions is being addressed. As the Permanent Secretary of the MoEC stated:

The main objective of the training we offer to the teachers is to
familiarise them and their school leaders with the objectives and
content of the new curricula which in combination with education,
knowledge and experience will help them to redevelop their way of
working based on the framework set by the new curricula (Stylianou,
2012).

This quote unveils the superficial nature of the INSET with respect to the reform. The
main focus of the INSET was apparently to teach the technicalities of the reform instead
of formulating training programmes which are closely linked to teachers’ needs and
promote critical reflection on their own teaching practices. Darling-Hammond (1990)
remarked that:

if policymakers want to change teaching, they must pay attention to
teacher knowledge. And if they are to attend to teacher knowledge,
they must look beyond curriculum policies to those policies that control
teacher education and certification, as well as ongoing professional
development, supervision and evaluation (p. 346).
By setting this objective as the main focus of the training scheme, designing a training scheme which is based on theory and making no attempt to support teacher professionalism through the use of evidence-based practice, there is a clear indication that the importance of training has been underestimated by Ministry officials. Furthermore, as Campbell and Kane (2000) presaged, it indicates that,

until education policy recognises the need for creative, complex solutions, which bring together the ‘science’ of teaching with the ‘art’ of teaching or the knowledge base and technical skills alongside the passion and joy, teacher development will be fragmented and piecemeal, and will fail to reach the heart of teachers and carry into teaching (p. 295).

Educational change and restructuring that does not take into serious consideration teacher learning is condemned to ineffectiveness and inefficacy (OECD, 1998). In Cyprus, government officials neglected the significance of developing a training scheme which offers practical ideas that are directly associated with everyday classroom practices and engages teachers in programmes that promote reform, vision and enquiry. The kind of training that is currently being offered to primary school teachers shows that the wider affective, social and psychological dimension of the reform is being neglected and that no consultation and feedback mechanisms have been employed to support the reform process and consequently teachers’ practices. Teachers in Cyprus are required to get into a mode of change and a continuous pursuit of new experiences and ideas regarding their teaching practices in order to proceed with changes in their classroom practices and offer students meaningful learning, promote criticality and creativity without receiving suitable training.

The vast majority of teachers participating in this research study noted that the current INSET provision does not satisfy their needs. Based on their accounts the INSET offered by inspectors had an informative character, whereas in other countries such as France both inspectors and teachers were involved in the conduct of training courses, development and distribution of teaching material and learning resources designed to support teaching (Cedefop, 2012). The INSET and CPD courses offered in Cyprus have
a technocratic nature; they adopt a top-down approach and are knowledge-based. Knowledge is delivered to the teacher by an ‘expert’, at off-site centres, with the agenda pre-organised and pre-decided by the ‘deliverer’. This model has been criticised for its inability to ‘connect with the essential moral purposes that are at the heart of their [teachers’] professionalism’ (Day, 1999, p. 49). Additionally, its failure to influence classroom practices and the fact that teachers are being considered as empty vessels ready to passively receive a specific and de-contextualised knowledge have also been considered major drawbacks of this model (Kennedy, 2005).

The term CPD is being used by the Minister as an attempt to indicate the Ministry’s effort to move away from the delivery model implied by the term INSET and move towards a lifelong engagement with learning under the aegis of the CPI. As he stated:

> The continuous professional development of teachers is the primary and most important factor for better student outcomes. For this reason, the past three years we focused on the development of teachers’ training programmes. Approximately 6000 teachers from all levels of education have attended the seminars organised by the Pedagogical Institute (Sigmalive, 2012).

According to research participants’ testimonies, both CPD and INSET programmes organised in Cyprus do not provide the opportunity for teachers to actively engage in practical tasks, gain new knowledge, monitor, appraise and reflect on current and new teaching practices, collaborate with their peers and provide support through peer coaching (Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin, 1995). Teacher learning is often best enhanced and supported when teachers have repeated opportunities to study, explore and receive feedback on their teaching practices, and collaborate with their colleagues in group work frameworks (King and Newmann, 2001); however, government administrators do not seem to share the same perspectives on how to support teachers’ education in changing times.
Government officials tend to assume that policies are being enacted in ideal school settings with ideal resources and infrastructure and being delivered by ideal teachers (Braun, Maguire and Ball, 2010). Despite the fact that the teachers who participated in the micro and meso level, and the two officials who were interviewed for the purposes of this study, acknowledge a range of factors that inhibit the smooth process and success of the educational reform, the MoEC and specifically the Minister of Education (in his report sent to the Education Committee of the Parliament regarding the school years 2011-2012 and 2012-2013) presented an ideal image with respect to the process of the education reform, the current infrastructure, school staffing and available resources (MoEC, 2011b; Demosthenous, 2012b). As the Minister stated:

The new school year began under the best omens. We contacted all provincial offices and nothing negative was reported to us about the reform process. All started as we had planned, organised and dreamed. The school staffing has been completed, any security issues in schools where development projects are taking place have been taken care of, books have been sent promptly to schools. The educational reform process continues normally and always in accordance with the plans of the Ministry (Demosthenous, 2012b).

Time is an important factor during the reform process and is crucial in guaranteeing its success (Smyth et al., 1998). Despite the fact that the educational reform was gradually implemented in the CES, teachers in this project claimed that they were not provided with adequate time for preparing or engaging in professional dialogue with different sets of actors during the enactment phase. The introduction of the new curricula in all public primary schools started in September 2011 and, as the micro level data revealed, neither the material nor any other resources were ready, which caused great frustration among teachers (GOd).

In terms of resources, the Minister and government officials had repeatedly reassured the public that, despite the difficult situation created by the global economic crisis, the education reform would move forward by undertaking new measures and promoting
innovations in all levels of education (Demosthenous, 2012c). As a government official also stated:

The financial crisis will not be an obstacle to the reform. It is a governmental commitment that the economic crisis will not hinder the process of upgrading the educational system because, especially in these conditions, education and culture are our only hope for a better future. Investing in education is imperative for the present and future social, economic, spiritual and cultural development and progress of our society (Loukaides, 2012).

The statistical evidence derived from the government budget reveals the extent to which the financial crisis affected the reform process. Significant changes and dramatic reductions in education have been identified in the reports dated 2010-2013. Specifically, in 2010 and 2011 the proposed budget, which was intended to cover expenses for the piloting of programmes and activities in certain areas for the educational reform, was five million euros; by 2012 the budget was reduced to four million euros. Despite this reduction, the Minister confirmed that ‘based on the Government Budget 2013 which was passed in September 2012 by the Council of Ministry not only the educational reform is not affected negatively but instead it is highly supported’ (Penintaex, 2012).

Nevertheless, as depicted in the 2013 report, a decrease of approximately 70% within a period of three years is being recorded, as the budget for the reform was reduced from €4,000,000 to €1,600,000 (Republic of Cyprus. Ministry of Finance, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013).

Teachers did not hesitate to express their concerns through their union about the observed regression and the lapse in the process of educational reform. They considered that:

cuts in primary education affect education reform and the teachers’ syndicate ‘expresses its deep concern and dissatisfaction over the fact that the educational process and any efforts for improvement are being restrained due to the applied financial restrictions and cuts; therefore, an immediate meeting with the Minister of Education is being requested (POED, 2012).
At a time of change, it is important to set up flexible and well-equipped learning spaces so that teachers will be encouraged to make connections between theory and practice during lessons (Cedefop, 2012). Cuts in resources in the CES caused a lot of frustration among teachers as they could not respond effectively to the demands placed upon them through this major education reform. Calypso, a novice teacher, encountered many difficulties in her attempt to design a lesson based on the reform guidelines, such as time constraints due to the reduction of teaching hours in core subjects and unsuitable learning environments with inadequate and insufficient resources (CLOd, Clnt4). Furthermore, in certain cases teachers reported that the existing material did not address the needs of the children and did not comply with the age group of the students; therefore, teachers needed to design their own supporting material, which has happened in countries such as the Czech Republic and Ireland (Cedefop, 2012) – this intensified their workload even more.

### 7.5.2 Professional factors

It has been advocated in curriculum studies that, during the design of new curricula, a collaborative relationship that is both bottom-up and top-down needs to be established between all stakeholders, including administrators, teachers, parents, researchers and academics (MacDonald, 2003). Rhea suggested that the development of the new curricula in the CES relied to a great extent on previous research findings on teachers’ practices, perceptions and ideas regarding several aspects of the CES. Hammersley (2002) has criticised the fact that reform designers attempt to justify the development of an education policy and the imposition of changes in teachers’ professional lives through the use of research findings. Hammersley instead advocated a ‘cognitive resources approach’ to utilising research outcomes whereby policy actors are aware of the outcomes and engage in critical reflection of their work in order to improve their practices. On the contrary, in Cyprus, teachers who participated in the micro level of this research project claimed that they had occasionally participated in several research
studies but the main findings were never presented to them; they therefore did not have the chance to act upon their practices.

For the development of the new curricula in Cyprus, the government requested the engagement of all stakeholders in the process (Tsiakalos, 2010) but concerns and questions were raised regarding the extent to which this engagement was active and meaningful. Micro level data revealed that the participation of all stakeholders other than academics and government officials, and the claimed engagement of all different kinds of actors, can be characterised as a ‘pseudo-participation and quasi-democracy’ (Smyth and Shacklock, 1998, p. 23). As Artemis the policymaker further explained:

Indeed we were called to work with the developers of the new curricula. I consider the fact that the Ministry called teachers to participate in this process as a great step. Now, the extent to which our opinion was taken under serious consideration by the coordinators is another story. Although I was part of this process, I am extremely disappointed with the development of the new material. In the first phase, they seemed that they took under consideration our ideas and thoughts. However, during the final stage they ignored us. The coordinators could have benefited from the whole process but they chose not to take into consideration our experiences and knowledge (ArInt1).

This indicates that teachers were not given the opportunity to actively participate in the development of a shared vision regarding student learning, share their experiences, views and ideologies, take ownership of the educational reform and become partners in curriculum reform (Kirk and MacDonald, 2001). Instead, during the development of the new curricula, different stakeholders adopted different roles, exercised different powers and had different levels of value and attention given to their voices. This could be attributed to the fact that the curricula serve the interests and purposes of governmental officers and that the suggestions made by different sets of actors (teachers, parents, students) need to be reconciled and co-opted into the direction established by governmental administrators.

Drawing on Rhea’s account, it is also clear that teachers’ professional views and judgments derived from their everyday practices were of little importance during the
development of the new curricula, as they were not considered as experts in the area of curriculum development. This reveals a lack of respect and recognition of teachers’ professional practices, knowledge and experiences, which has been mentioned by the teachers who participated in the micro and macro levels of this research study, and also illustrated in figure 6 as one of the professional factors that had a negative impact on teachers’ professional identity.

During the interview process, the policymaker raised an important issue of policy transfer in which policy objectives, ideas and mechanisms are being transferred between nations aiming at the restructuring of their educational systems. Given the fact that reform designers around the world seem to be increasingly depending on policy transfer instead of taking into consideration teachers’ knowledge, experiences and ideologies, it is worthwhile examining this concept of policy transfer further.

As Evans (2009) puts it, taking lessons from overseas is a common activity for all reform designers, and this was no exception for government officials in Cyprus, who have sought advice regarding the content of the curriculum reform policy from their counterparts elsewhere. Dolowitz and Marsh’s (1996) seminal study in the field of education policy regarding the movement of policy ideas best explains the idea of transfer both within and between nations by stating that transfer is a procedure:

> in which knowledge about policies, administrative arrangements, institutions etc. in one time or place is used in the development of policies, administrative arrangements and institutions in another time or place (p. 3).

The model of policy movement developed by Dolowitz and Marsh (1996) generates some questions that need to be addressed during transfer, such as ‘[what is] policy transfer, who transfers, why is policy transferred, what is transferred and from where are lessons drawn?’ (Dolowitz and Marsh 2000, p. 8). This model is considered a useful means of investigating the growing tendency of global policy movement of ideas in education, while recognising the non-homogeneity of structures, cultures and
organisational systems. The assumption that what works in a country where the policy is originated can also be successful in the borrowing country is false. Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) have identified three elements that may lead to transfer failure: the uniformed transfer, which is linked to inadequate information about the policy idea and its functioning; the incomplete transfer, which is linked to the omission of the important factors that made the policy a success in the originated country, and the inappropriate transfer, which refers to the ideological, socio-political and economic differences in the context between the borrowing and originating countries.

The term policy transfer has both a ‘voluntary’ and ‘coercive’ (direct imposition) nature (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000) and could refer to the act of adoption, borrowing, copying or dissemination of a set of policy innovations or learning. Borrowing is found to be the most frequent and popular choice (Raffe and Rumberger, 1993). It is not only policy ideas that can be transferred; other elements, such as policy goals, ideas, structure, content, instruments, managerial techniques ideologies, attitudes, and concepts can also be transferred (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996). However, it should be noted that policy transfer can be problematic and unsuccessful, as a range of factors can have an impact upon the success and failure of this process. Specifically, the transfer of policy between countries should take place only when the two countries have similar characteristics, face similar structural issues and when there is a commonality and an ideological compatibility.

A number of possible impediments to policy transfer include bureaucratic mechanisms, technological, financial and political resources, the inherent complexity of the policy programme and any institutional or structural weaknesses (Benson and Jordan, 2011). In the case of Cyprus, which is a highly centralised and bureaucratic system, reform designers have borrowed or, as Rhea confessed, copied ideas from the Finnish educational system, which is decentralised, has a different infrastructure, budgetary situation and organisation. The question raised here is how an education policy can be transferred effectively and productively from one country to another with very different
socio-politic-economic structure. The answer is given by Gewirtz, Ball and Bowe (1995), who asserted that any policy ideas borrowed from another country must take into serious consideration political, economic, social and cultural particularities.

Research outcomes indicated that teachers in the CES once again become technicians delivering and implementing an educational reform that was designed and decided without their active involvement in the process. No serious and extensive efforts were made to set up a close accord between the reform agenda and teachers’ identity. Furthermore, no attempts were made to foster meaningful engagement of teachers in the reform process, create feelings of ownership of the change among the teaching force, develop opportunities for leadership and professional learning or form professional settings of partnership and continuous growth. Teachers’ role in the development of curricula was therefore undermined and the lack of respect and recognition of the importance of teachers’ experiences was apparent.

The dominant concept of professional identity that reform designers operate on when designing education reform policies, which is developed alongside a discursive framework of designated competencies and ‘codes of conduct’, encompasses teachers who react to instrumental objectives as set by the government officials or other bodies of ‘experts’, transfer knowledge, improve student performance and achieve good student outcomes. Teachers in Cyprus are treated as technicians instead of mediators and active agents of the educational reform and learning respectively; they are imprisoned in a managerial, bureaucratic and highly centralised system, unable to exercise agency and freedom, assess their practices, apply new ideas as complex and critical practitioners and become partners in the reformulation of the education reform by offering their professional views and judgments. In terms of professional autonomy, although schools’ autonomy was high in the agenda, research outcomes revealed that control still lies in the hand of the government and no genuine shift in power was noticed. As Ball asserted (1987), ‘in no other organisation are notions of hierarchy and equality, democracy and coercion forced to co-exist in the same close proximity’ (p. 15). The
failure to increase autonomy constrains to a great extent teachers’ creativity, as well as their experimentation (House and McQuillan, 1998).

Teachers’ identity is being continuously challenged by the restructuring of the CES and reforms aimed at improving students’ performance and schools’ outcomes. Stakeholders in education did not take into serious account the significance of teachers’ perspectives during the development of the new curricula or the vital role of their professional identity in the enactment of the educational innovations. Furthermore, they overlooked the fact that any reform attempt should be in congruence with practitioners’ identity and not in conflict, as the latter influences teachers’ attitudes towards education changes and innovations. As indicated in this research study, the educational reform, inadequate training and resources, increased workload, lack of respect, status and recognition affected to a great extent the concepts underpinning teachers’ professional identity, causing an identity crisis and a sense of agitation. When a new policy challenges the professional identity of practitioners, and more specifically their values and ideologies, they resist the changes and may act to hinder its enactment.

An identity crisis, caused by the negative effects of externally-imposed centralised policy, has also been reported in a range of studies that aimed at examining the impact of national policy change on teachers’ professional lives. Evidence drawn from the PACE project, which concentrated on English primary teachers, indicated incoherence between preferred professional practice and policy change with respect to teachers in England. Teachers in England had become subject to a control mechanism which sought to govern both the inputs and procedures but also the outputs of education by disseminating the latter in published tables of pupil results in national testing. The framing of teachers’ work and consequent reduction of their autonomy and choice, the designation of times and spaces, and increased OFSTED inspection are all indicators of this control mechanism. With respect to these findings, McNess, Broadfoot and Osborn (2003) argue that there is a clear disjunction between the current policymaking and the rhetoric of the ‘learning society’ as depicted and promoted in English government policy
directives. In a similar mode, the findings from the VITAE project, a four-year research study of 300 teachers in 100 primary and secondary schools in England, revealed that educational reforms had a profound impact upon teachers' identities as they challenged existing beliefs, values and experiences (Day et al., 2007).

These studies indicate that the reforms are consistent with the discourse of stakeholders and in contradiction with the values and ideologies that underpin teachers' identities. Reform strategies did not coincide with practitioners' professional identity and on many occasions introduced tensions between the indicators of professional identity. The lesson learnt from these studies is important for the education policy field. Externally-imposed policy agendas are mediated by the views, perceptions and understandings of both teachers and groups of teachers in different settings to develop specific practices and actions (Osborn, 2006). Teachers experience radical changes in their professional lives due to the restructuring of the educational systems they work in, and should not be regarded as the passive victims of externally-imposed educational reform agendas. These teachers are sophisticated and creative policy actors who manage to maintain those teaching practices they consider the best, aiming to protect their pupils, to some extent, from what they regard as the worst effects of the reform strategies. They have the professional confidence to actively and productively reconcile policy reform and in certain cases to adjust, amend or sabotage it. While a number of teachers may have felt confined, many teachers managed to manoeuvre from the implementation of the imposed reform and become ‘creative mediators’ of policy change (McNess, Broadfoot and Osborn, 2003; Osborn et al., 2000), thus engaging in a continuing professional growth process.

7.6 Lessons learnt from exploring the relationship between national policy and professional practice

Curriculum reform policies do not usually or definitely lead to the curriculum change envisioned by reform designers, but they do have an impact upon teachers' identity.
Despite the fact that both developing and developed countries have made efforts towards redeveloping school curricula, on many occasions these reforms do not achieve the targeted outcomes set by reform developers. The main question addressed when a reform programme fails to be implemented in an education system is why curriculum reform initiatives have been unsuccessful in achieving their objectives (Cohen, 1990; Park and Sung, 2013). In this section, based on my research findings, I present the main reasons why there is such a gap between policy and localised professional enactment of curriculum reform, and I explore a number of issues that limit and have a negative impact on policy practice.

As indicated in this research study, reform developers hold the belief that by redesigning, redeveloping and restructuring the education system and creating new curricula dominant teaching practices will change radically. They neglect the fact that policy enactment highly depends on the degree of ownership teachers feel with respect to the reform, as well as on the different meanings teachers attach to the reform based on their ideologies, knowledge and professional experiences. Outlining the reasons why reforms fail, Schwahn and Spady (1998) support the idea that individuals who engage in and are influenced by the change must have a sense of ownership of the change.

A range of research studies, including this one, have argued that teachers are the key agents of curriculum reform success (Kirk and MacDonald, 2001; Spillane, 1999), as their perceptions, beliefs, ideologies and knowledge have been found to be influential in the effective enactment of reform policies. Teachers construct images of the surrounding context and, based on these images, they conceptualise, interpret and perceive externally-imposed changes (Spillane, Reiser and Reimer, 2002). However, government officials seem to neglect that teachers critically interpret reform and they expect from them to follow devotedly and accept any external intervention. Despite the alleged involvement of teachers in the design of the new curricula, research findings revealed that their participation was peripheral and meaningless. Therefore, teachers’ role remains limited (van Veen and Sleegers, 2006) and this could be the reason why
teachers are less likely to actively engage in the reform agenda and are more likely to develop negative feelings and resentment towards the new classroom practices, as suggested by curriculum developers who have little recognition of school context (Park and Sung, 2013).

On many occasions, teachers in the Olive Tree Primary School expressed their antipathy towards government officials’ involvement in the development of a curriculum reform initiative, as they believed that the officials were not acquainted with what was actually taking place within schools and, more importantly, in classrooms. Specifically, Daphne held the perception that curriculum developers have rarely taught pupils and have an ideal picture of classroom reality (DInt1). Calypso expressed the belief that teachers are forced to implement idealistic objectives that are usually effective in other countries without taking into consideration that the CES has many differences in comparison with these western countries (CInt2). Labaree (2010) managed to express in a few sentences what the research participants shared during the interview process, and also highlights the different worlds teachers and curricula developers live in:

Teacherc focus on what is particular within their own classrooms; reformers focus on what is universal across many classrooms. Teachers operate in a setting dominated by personal relations; reformers operate in a setting dominated by abstract political and social aims. Teachers draw on clinical experience; reformers draw on social scientific theory. Teachers embrace the ambiguity of classroom process and practice; reformers pursue the clarity of tables and graphs. Teachers put a premium on professional adaptability; reformers put a premium on uniformity of practices and outcomes (p. 158).

Alcestis, Calypso and Electra shared their concerns regarding certain aspects of the educational reform. Particularly, they were constantly questioning the extent to which the adoption of new strategies and practices suggested by the new curricula would result in the improvement of student learning, whether the use of technology would effectively support the teaching process and what would happen when assistance regarding the equipment was necessary (Alnt3, CInt2, EInt2). Cuban (2013) claimed that reform developers have completely different perspectives regarding the education reform:
Policymakers seldom either anticipate or pay attention to such critical and practical questions. [Policymakers] ask different questions than teachers do. How much do the innovations cost to put into practice? How many teachers are using the new materials or devices? Are the new programs effective? Have students test scores gone up? Have the media reported the results? (p. 116).

This indicates that teachers’ concerns are related to meaningful teaching and learning procedure, whereas government officials’ concerns are related to budgets, costs, media attention and outcomes.

As was evident in this research study, school culture plays an important role in influencing teachers to stay committed to the reform introduced in the schools. Therefore, when there is no interaction between the staff, when teachers are not empowered through discussions and when quality leadership does not exist, change initiatives are condemned to fail (Schmoker, 1997).

When an education reform is introduced in schools, there is an increased need for efficient professional development and provision of adequate time for training and reflection. When the training scheme is insufficient and fails ‘to build bridges to classroom reality and practice’ (Park and Sung, 2013, p. 23), the reform process is undermined. Both time and constant effort are needed when it comes to learning and developing new skills (Guskey, 2002); consequently, when teachers do not have adequate time to enact on policy and reflect on the reform, the success of the educational innovation remains questionable.

7.7 Summary

This chapter has contributed not only to the confirmation of the framework identified as figure 6 in chapter five but also to its development as the main outcomes’ derived from the four in-depth stories collected at the micro level and the survey data collected at the meso level of this study were examined in relation to the curriculum coordinators’ and government officials’ views regarding the process of the education reform agenda and its
impact on teachers’ professional lives, thus offering different perspectives regarding the emerging factors presented in figure 6.

As research evidence revealed, there is a disconnect between how teachers conceptualise the process of change and develop and proceed with it, and with what government officials believe is actually going on in the system during policy enactment. This chapter unveiled the dynamic character of the policy process, which is apparent in three levels: firstly, in the dispute between those who develop the policy and those who put it into practice about what the real problems for policy are and what the anticipated outcomes should be; secondly, the policy interpretation is an active process rather than a passive one and engages multiple interpretations depending on the ideologies, values and beliefs of the teachers; finally, there is a discord between the results derived from the enactment of a policy and reform designers’ intentions, as teachers tend to conceptualise and put into practice a specific policy in a different way to what government officials expected.

These findings generated the need for theorisation; therefore, Michel Foucault’s concept of governmentality will be used in the next chapter. His conceptual apparatus provides the opportunity to deal with how identity is developed and affected by power relations, social interaction, daily negotiation with other individuals and external impositions.
CHAPTER EIGHT

FOUCAULDIAN GOVERNMENTALITY AS A THEORETICAL LENS

8.1 Introduction

This research project uses Foucault’s ideas to explore teachers’ professional identity at a time of major curriculum reform in Cyprus. At the beginning of this chapter, the research questions are used to provide an overview of the research findings collected at the micro, meso and macro level of this project. Following this, Foucault’s concept of governmentality is utilised to develop meaning and understanding of the project’s emerging issues. Foucauldian ideas can be regarded as an investigation of ‘how the ways in which we think, speak, act and understand ourselves are shaped or governed by our times, by others and by ourselves’ (Piomelli, 2004, p. 411). Within this theoretical framework, it is argued that teachers’ identity is posited as continuously becoming in a setting rooted in power relations, values and beliefs (Zembylas, 2005). Epigrammatically, this project aims to contribute to the analysis of teachers’ identity within educational policy by utilising the Foucauldian governmentality theory in order to expose the relations of power embedded in the curriculum reform and teachers’ professional lives.

8.2 Research findings overview

Figure 6 below illustrates the building of my argument so far. I have established five constructs regarding professional identity and through the examination of research findings at micro, meso and macro levels, I have developed a strategy for describing and understanding professional identity at a time of major educational reform. Furthermore, through empirical investigation I have confirmed and developed these constructs by identifying two groups of factors (contextual and professional) and their implications for teachers’ professional identity and consequently their practices.
My first research question was about how school teachers in primary schools in Cyprus describe and understand their sense of professional identity. Teachers’ professional identity was considered a crucial factor in understanding teachers’ professional lives and gaining insights into the underpinning constructs of this concept, such as emotions, job satisfaction, professional commitment, autonomy, and confidence. Prior to the introduction of the reform, research findings revealed that the majority of teachers were satisfied overall within their working setting. The main sources of satisfaction were (a) working with children and (b) the good climate in the school, as well as extrinsic sources such as salary, holidays and working schedule.
Prior to the reform, in their attempt to signify their commitment to their work, teachers talked about engagement in CPD and the dedication of a great amount of time to the preparation of teaching material, organisation of resources, their attendance at meetings with other peers and the headteacher, discussion and consultation with parents and spending time filling out paperwork as demanded by the MoEC.

In terms of professional confidence, teachers were indicating high levels of confidence in their work mainly because of the strong body of knowledge and expertise they had, resulting from their four-year pre-service teacher education as well as from working experience in various school settings.

Research findings demonstrated teachers had positive emotions towards their profession mainly because of the high levels of job satisfaction it offered. With respect to the upcoming reform, the majority of teachers had positive emotions as they considered it a useful innovation offering cross-curricular opportunities and greater freedom to organise the teaching and learning process. However, they acknowledged that the new curriculum would introduce major changes in their practices, thus causing great stress from the challenges it would bring to the organisation and structure of teaching.

In terms of professional autonomy, research data indicated that teachers have the opportunity to develop programmes at the micro level of their schools and make important decisions about their work. However, observational data revealed that teachers' autonomy was restricted to their classrooms; any decisions at school level had to be made by the administration and Ministry officials. The highly-centralised and bureaucratic system in Cyprus was the main cause of teachers' lack of autonomy and their limited participation in important decisions at school level.

My second research question is about how and why teachers' professional identity has been shaped and influenced through the reform of the curriculum. As was evident from the collected research data, the constructs of professional identity were constantly contested, negotiated, altered and at stake during the enactment of the education reform.
programme. The major curriculum reform in the Republic of Cyprus challenged to a great extent teachers’ existing practices, thus indicating the negligence of the reformers to take into serious consideration teachers’ identities, and specifically the constructs of identity; professional commitment, autonomy, emotions, job satisfaction and confidence. The investigation of these constructs suggested that teachers were more likely to disengage themselves from the reform process when it threatened their identity.

Both ethnographic and survey data revealed teachers’ dissatisfaction regarding the ways in which changes to their professional lives had been introduced in schools. Specifically, the introduction of the educational reform and factors which were associated with it, such as work intensification, inadequate resources, insufficient training, and the lack of respect for teachers, were reported by participants to decrease their job satisfaction. The educational reform in the CES was an ambitious and complex change which made huge demands upon the teachers and created mixed emotions. It was evident that the policy reform ignited negative emotions among all teachers, including stress and frustration as a result of inadequate resources, increased workload, insufficient and meaningless training and support, lack of skills and lack of clarity in terms of curriculum guidelines.

Professional commitment contributes to the success of an educational reform initiative. With the introduction of the curriculum reform, along with its aforementioned negative aspects, teachers’ commitment – which is highly linked to teachers’ willingness to engage in creative mediation of policy reform – was affected negatively. In terms of professional confidence, it was revealed from the micro level data that the confidence levels of the teachers whose subjects experienced more changes dropped significantly, especially during the first period of the reform implementation in the primary schools. Ethnographic data, in contrast with survey data, managed to capture this fluctuation in teachers’ professional confidence during the initial stages of implementation and a year after. Teachers were overwhelmed with the heavy workload, inadequate professional support, their declining status and the restricted time to adjust to the new realities in their working setting. Despite the difficulties and the negative effect of the reform agenda on
teachers, the majority of them managed to take control and make choices and decisions over their work.

Research data has shown that, at a time of rapid reform, and specifically during the introduction of the curriculum reform policy in the CES, there is an impact upon teachers’ professional identity and consequently their practices as they are required to adopt new roles and responsibilities. Classroom realities, resources, teachers interacting with their peers, relationships with parents, attending CPD and training courses, meeting with staff, planning shared activities and quality of teachers’ work are aspects of teachers’ practices identified which were affected by the introduction of curriculum reform policies in the primary schools in the district of Nicosia, Cyprus.

An important finding of this study is the development of a stronger bond between teachers after the imposition of the reform agenda. This is important, as it challenges findings from other studies suggesting that educational reform often leads to teachers’ isolation (Hargreaves, 1994). Furthermore, teachers’ testimonies, along with observational and survey data, indicated that teachers’ workload had greatly increased. The pressure on teachers to improve students’ performance intensified their workload, thus leading them to implement and deliver the curriculum rather than actively engage in the development of ideas and the creative mediation of policy reform.

In terms of INSET, teachers have repeatedly reported its irrelevance and its failure to satisfy their needs. Inappropriate training with respect to the reform has not only been identified by teachers but also by the curriculum coordinators who were interviewed in this research project. The so called ‘experts’ who were responsible for the INSET concentrated on the technical aspects of the reform instead of focusing on the development of individuals who would be able to engage in a critical reflection of their actions and support teachers’ learning through the process of evidence-based practice. Hence, research outcomes have shown that teachers were not properly prepared with
respect to the curriculum reform or well-informed about the reform even a year after the implementation of the reform programme.

Another important finding is the fact that a policy reform is subject to various interpretations by teachers who have different experiences, histories, ideologies, resources, expertise and knowledge, resulting in them interpreting and enacting policy in different ways. Both ethnographic and survey data indicated that, even in a highly centralised system like the Cypriot one, the externally-imposed educational reform is translated, interpreted, adjusted, used and enacted in different ways by different teachers. Ball et al. (2011a) presented this complex process of policy enactment as a means of building on previous approaches, such as policy cycles, trajectories and texts. Educational policies are not just being implemented; instead, they are being enacted by a diverse set of policy actors in the school setting who interpret and translate them in different ways (Braun, Maguire and Ball, 2010). Policy sociology, which supports the interplay between the macro (system) and micro level (classroom) of a policy process, also claims that what takes place in the school setting where policy is being enacted and interpreted in different ways is very complex as it is mediated by several factors, such as: the meanings different actors attribute to the policy document; the degree to which policy is being imposed recommended or proposed; the extent to which the policy respects the ethos of the school, and the level of agency of those involved in the process (Maguire, Ball and Braun, 2010; Wallace, 1991). Furthermore, the meaning teachers assign to policy texts can be affected by social interactions with their peers, the learning environment in school and existing workplace norms (Spillane, 1999).

Research data revealed that teachers proceed with changes in their working setting and practices by interpreting and re-interpreting curricula, and establishing whether these practices are realistic given the pressures and forces they operate under, and whether they comply with their aims and objectives. The investigation of texts, articles, and any other material related to the education reform policy in the CES indicated that teachers’ sense-making of policy differs greatly to those with more power, such as the Minister,
inspectors and individuals responsible for teachers’ professional training. Nevertheless, the factors that influence policy enactment and the redevelopment of teaching practices in line with the guidelines of the new curricula have been ignored by reform designers and undermined during the curricula development process.

The investigation of teachers’ professional identity at a time of major curriculum reform in Cyprus and the implications for their practices revealed that power relations are embedded within the CES. This power, which in this case has the form of an externally-imposed education reform agenda, has been found to have an impact upon teachers and their practices. Therefore, this study will now turn to an examination of the research findings through a Foucauldian lens towards further understanding the power relations within the CES. Throughout the remainder of this chapter, I draw upon examples of teachers’ professional lives and indicate the positioning of these teachers within power relations and disciplinary regimes. To achieve this, I use Foucault’s notion of governmentality (Figure 7), aiming at the illustration of a different way of conceptualising teachers’ practices, investigating teachers’ subjectification and exploring the ways in which teachers find the spaces to manoeuvre and operate within these discursive regimes and act on their practices. Acknowledging that there are tensions between more traditional constructs assisting the investigation of teachers’ professional identity, such as professional autonomy, and the concept of governmentality, I utilised governmentality theory to help interpret teachers’ professional identity, as a unified notion, as well as the emergent power relations between teachers and the state. The aforementioned tension is regarding teachers’ professional autonomy as Foucault rejects this notion of autonomy and considers that individuals are situated within a complicated web of power and therefore cannot be regarded as autonomous entities (Bevir, 1999).
Figure 7: Teacher professional identity framework
8.3 Governmentality as a conceptual framework

The notion of teacher identity as ‘coherent, bounded, individualized, intentional, the locus of thought, action, and belief, the origin of its own actions, the beneficiary of a unique biography’ (Rose, 1998, p.3) has been challenged in the light of radical changes in both the social and cultural domain, as well as in intellectual developments such as poststructuralist theorisations. This alteration to the notion of identity is important because it shows that identity changes and evolves in time and space. Foucault's work suggests that identity formation is an ongoing process through a variety of impacts, practices, experiences and relationships that encompass social, educational, unconscious and conscious factors that determine human behaviour (Walshaw, 2009). Scholarship on identity has also argued that the latter is a process that is always rooted in social practices (Foucault, 1984) within which discourses (Fairclough, 1989) hold a vital role, as they define the ways an individual or a group of individuals showcase themselves to others, mediate roles and conceptualise their own identities.

A poststructuralist lens of teacher identity suggests that identity reveals the contestations and negotiations among different discourses, which are rooted in certain metaphors of knowledge, power, history and agency. Hence, it is important to examine the ways in which teachers experience these discourses, how they negotiate and struggle to abrogate regulating discourses and how they manage to find their own voice. Although teachers' professional lives are deeply embodied in school norms and regulation, the poststructuralist approach motivates teachers to think in a different way, question, re-develop themselves in relation to their peers and remove themselves from normalised practices (Zembylas, 2003). As Dean (1999) stated, this is significant because:

By becoming clear on how regimes of practices operate, we become clear on how forms of domination, relations of power and kinds of freedom and autonomy are linked, how such regimes are contested and resisted, and thus how it might be possible to do things differently (p. 37).
Teachers’ professional identities are affected and contested by the discourses and practices that operate on them. Systems of power both create and maintain the meaning that teachers attach to themselves. Power relations and its importance as a concept has been repeatedly neglected by the majority of curriculum and other education reforms in the CES. Therefore, I argue that Foucauldian governmentality offers the opportunity to develop a greater understanding of the power relations embedded in teachers’ professional lives. It is through this concept that Foucault improves and facilitates the understanding and interpretation of the experiences and practices of individuals.

Governmentality has received increased attention by many scholars since the early nineties and onwards (e.g. Dean, 1999; Miller and Rose, 1992) and it has been used to offer thorough insights into contemporary phenomena, such as student participation (Bragg, 2007), educational policy and schooling (Ball, 2003; Gillies, 2008; Walshaw, 2009), as well as conceptualising relations of power and government in these areas. Although Foucault gave limited attention to the institution of education, the use of the concept of governmentality in the current educational debates has major implications for further conceptualising educational work and research.

Firstly, it would be useful to explore how the term ‘governmentality’ emerged. The word ‘government’ is considered by the majority to hold a solely political meaning and is regarded as ‘the image of the state or the constitutive oppositions of conventional political philosophy and political sociology’ (Rose, 1999, p. 3). Foucault (1991) explored the appearance of ‘government’ as a specific genre of control from the middle of the sixteenth century and the genesis of ‘governmentality’ in the eighteenth century. The emergence of this concept does not suggest that the word ‘government’ was weak and a new one had to be created. Rather, it was because the term ‘governmentality’ conveyed connotations of power. Foucault places ‘government’ in a more general setting, which is discussed not only in political arenas but also in theoretical, religious, medical and academic scripts (Lemke, 2000). The French philosopher does not limit the idea of ‘government’ to the plethora of administrative and control techniques exploited by the
state, and also defines it as ‘the conduct of conduct’ (Foucault, 1983) and ‘thus as a term which ranges from ‘governing the self’ to ‘governing others’ (Lemke, 2000, p. 2). Foucault’s study into relations of the subject, knowledge and power can be summarised in the concept of ‘governmentality’. The term refers to a specific critical standpoint which is concerned with power relations as procedures of government. Doherty (2007) stated that:

governmentality is a prism that illuminates a particular stratum of enquiry, a perspective that examines, with a historical gaze, governing as a deliberate, purposeful, technicised activity, directed at the subject, the society, or some consciously categorized subdivision of the social body (p. 196).

This Foucauldian neologism is a complex concept referring to the intersection of specific rationalities and form of thoughts (‘mentalities’) with particular technologies and tactics to structure, guide, shape and conduct teachers’ practices and behaviour in their working setting (‘govern’), aiming at the development of subjects who are ‘capable of bearing the burdens of ‘liberty’ in progressive liberal western societies’ (Rose, 1999, viii). Governmentality is utilised by Foucault in two main ways (Dean, 1999). In one perspective, he sees the changing character of the state as being a function of shifting rationalities of government. Rationalities of government refers to a way or system of thinking regarding the nature of the practice of the state (who can govern or who is governed, what government is) (Gordon, 1991). Foucault tends to use the term ‘rationalities of government’ interchangeably with the ‘art of government’, which is considered as a form of practice that aims to shape, guide or influence the conduct of an individual or a group of individuals.

Governmentality has as a focus the shaping of individuals’ conduct and directing of it on a particular path in order to achieve a specific goal (Dean, 1999). Thus, controlling practices generate a network of power by which teachers’ conduct is controlled. Schools in Cyprus operate based on this function, ‘determin[ing] the conduct of individuals and submit[ting] them to certain ends or domination, an objectivising of the subject’
(Foucault, 1988, p. 18). Hence, in terms of teachers’ professional lives, governmentality refers to the ways in which their daily activities and routines are managed through effective practices, which in turn guide them towards desired behaviours.

Teachers are being bombarded with changes in their work within a changing socio-political environment. The introduction of new curricula in all public primary schools in Cyprus is considered an effective practice that offers external regulations which are supported by inspection procedures. Nevertheless, this kind of practice not only acts on teachers but also acts through them, even reaching their attitudes, beliefs, and ambitions. So, teachers are governed but they also govern themselves in ways that adjust themselves to the dominant discourses. Therefore, it is important to explore how teachers govern themselves and how they are being governed under the action of a new curriculum reform, forwarded in the schools by the MoEC.

A curriculum is a significant form of control, as it re-determines and restructures teachers’ practices using a range of technical dynamics. The development of such education reform policy encompasses the continuous efforts of government officials to create subjects with a specific set of behaviours. Education policy, which is regarded as a discursive practice (Ball, 2006), is highly linked to the exercise of political power as it is seen as a statement which encompasses government intentions and an expression of state rationality (Tikly, 2003). A useful distinction should be made between ‘political rationalities’, which refer to the ways of reflecting the dimensions and actions of government; ‘programmes of government’, which refer to the use of theories and specific ways of considering and doing things to interpret political rationalities into actual measures that have an impact upon populations, and ‘technologies of government’, which refer to the apparatuses, techniques and schemes that are utilised to put political rationalities and programmes into action (Ball, 2003, p. 216). This distinction does not suggest separation but – on the contrary – a complex interconnection, having as a common goal the development of productive citizens. Therefore, based on the above distinction, education policy can be regarded as acting at the intersection of programmes
and technologies of government (Tikly, 2003), which is a characteristically political process influenced by local primacies, welfares and understandings.

Governmentality, though, is not restricted to the web of technologies of power exercised by the state on individuals, but also encompasses the multiple ways in which individuals govern themselves, thus moving from sovereign and discipline power to technologies of self. The concept of governmentality encompasses two technologies which are often interwoven and rarely function in isolation; technologies of power, which can be regarded as external and relate to the governing of people and their submission to dominant discourses, and technologies of self, which can be regarded as internal and refer to a set of practices which hold individuals to influence their own conduct.

Technologies of power and technologies of self can be conceptualised in terms of the reciprocal relationship of agency and structure. This relationship suggests that individuals are formed by structures, systems of knowledge, organisational and other social structures; specifically, these individuals have the ability to alter current restraints and their own behaviour. The structures can determine the control of human beings and set the rules to be followed but at the same time it should be recognised that these individuals are not passive objects following blindly existing structures and regulations but, instead, with the help of their sense of agency, they have the capacity to select how to act and what choices to make in their working setting. As the research data has revealed, teachers are key agents in curriculum changes and carry their own perceptions, beliefs and ideas, which play an important role in the effective enactment of reform. Foucault (1993) indicated the points of relation and interplay of both structure and agency as ‘the points where the technologies of domination of individuals over one another have recourse to processes by which the individual acts upon himself’ and ‘the points where the technique of the self are integrated into structures of coercion or domination’ (p. 203). Illustrations of the structural setting teachers in Cyprus work in, include policy agendas, textbooks, syllabi, curricula, timetables, and school resources, which are commissioned and approved by the MoEC, the executive body of the
government for education matters. Teachers' behaviour cannot be regarded as isolated instances of personal actions within the structural context they work in; teachers' practices are controlled by the resources available to them and are determined to a great extent by their socio-historical framework.

Technologies of self are an essential component of governmentality. While disciplinary power deals with how individuals are controlled by others, technologies of self examine how individuals control themselves. They are considered a form of self-subjectification, which in reality is a form of self-conduct where individuals interact with enforced practises aimed at normalising judgement and behaviour (Petersen, 2003). According to Foucault (1988), this notion has its roots in Greco-Roman philosophy and specifically the work of Plato. The concept was related to the act of taking care of one’s self and was associated with preparation for political life.

Technologies of the self are a core feature of the care of the self, as they set up the ways in which teachers act on their needs, desires and bodies in order to reach a certain level of fulfilment based on a specific rationale. As Foucault (1988) suggests, they ‘permit individuals to effect by their own means or with the help of others a certain number of operations on their own bodies and souls, thoughts, conduct, and ways of being, so as to transform themselves’ (p. 18), thus claiming that teachers can play a significant role in their own conduct and control, as they are the ones who regulate their own behaviour. Hence, technologies of self entail the capability of teachers to control and govern themselves by restraining negative emotions while promoting positive ones, mainly to achieve personal and communal benefit.

The complex curriculum policy in Cyprus was found to create negative emotions among teachers towards the reform, amplifying their unwillingness to change their practices in the direction of the policy. Nevertheless, teachers like Calypso and Electra managed to restrain these negative emotions and, as observational data revealed, they actively engaged in the enactment of the reform agenda, becoming creative mediators of the
new curricula. Therefore, in terms of governmentality, this example indicates that both teachers were subjects of the policy reform but at the same time managed to control and shape themselves in relation to this discursive discourse; they were able to exercise agency, as well as overthrow and diverge from the micro-politics of the disciplinary system.

The basis of ‘technologies of the self’ is the self-exploration of one’s actions and ways of conduct; its key feature is the belief that a researcher, as an expert, can assist individuals with discovering them by exploring their perceptions and actions (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1983). During the data collection and, particularly, the interview process, research participants were encouraged to reflect on their actions and perceptions towards professional identity in comparison to existing dominant discourses, power relations and truths with my assistance as a caring agent (McCabe and Holmes, 2009). Through the interview process, participants were able to gain an understanding of this set of rules of actions and then revise their modes of actions with respect to this newly discovered knowledge, moving towards a new way of conduct (Foucault, 1988). The acknowledgement of the dominant ideologies and power structures empowered individuals and persuaded them to undertake action aiming to improving their current situation. The interview could be characterised as a liberating event for the participants, during which they could define themselves through governing ideologies and normalised practices, express themselves, share their views, opinions and feelings, and escape from society criticism and power relations to become an independent entity. By employing this technique, participants became active agents of the research process and were given a voice to share their personal stories, raise awareness of power issues and discover a new way of being.

Power is one of the core concepts in Foucault's notion of governmentality, and its main purpose is to produce desired forms of conduct. Foucault (1980a) wrote that power ‘reaches into the very grain of individuals, touches their bodies and inserts itself into their action and attitudes, their discourse, learning processes and everyday [professional]
lives’ (p. 39). Power is exercised through webs of relations; nevertheless, it should be noted that individuals themselves do not possess power, as it is not something that one has but something that is done. Its purpose complies with the main focus of governmentality, which is to govern the conduct of people (Dean, 1999). Power is unstable, dispersed rather than concentrated, localised and enacted rather than possessed, is continuously present and evident in discursive practices and social relations (Gaventa, 2003). This indicates that power may not be concentrated in central government, but this does not mean that the role of government in exerting power is diminished. Rather, stating that power is everywhere emphasises that the state is not the source of power but simply a specific set of webs through which power is exerted over other relations within society. Power does not necessarily bear oppressive and negative connotations but instead can be positive and productive in terms of developing forms of resistance to domination. Power is disseminated from government officials to teachers, who, based on their own self-determination, have selected to reconstruct within the new discourse. Power flows throughout webs of relations and all stakeholders are perpetually engaged in these power relations, either by exerting power or witnessing and experiencing the exercise of power by others (Gillies, 2013).

Numerous power relationships have an impact upon the shaping of individuals. Teachers’ identities, thoughts and experiences are constructed within the discursive relations that take place between them and their peers utilising the discourses accessible to them. The discourses teachers engage in offer a way of interpreting the world and allocating meaning. The degree of power an individual possesses is directly proportional to her/his active participation in the overarching discourses that form our society. These discourses are found in texts, decision-making processes and everyday practices; they share a language, concepts and methods for investigating a specific topic and they are considered as the art of power; they serve the maintenance of prevailing ideologies, thus establishing the continuity of dominant power structures. Moreover, they regulate and structure how teachers think, feel, conceptualise and act in certain areas of
their lives, as well as determine what can be said, done and thought, but also ‘who can speak, when, where and with what authority’ (Ball, 1994, p. 21).

Policy discourse is a set of dominant ideas forwarded in the education system. Influenced by Foucault’s postmodern approach, Ball (1994) argues that the discourse offered to individuals constrains and shapes how they see the world. Particularly, in educational systems, government officials have the power to restrain teachers’ perceptions regarding educational policies through the language they use to formulate policies (Trowler, 1998). Discourses ‘are not value neutral, but reflect the structural balance of power in society’ (Bell and Stevenson, 2006, p. 18) and may not reflect reality. In contrast, they set up certain parameters within which reality and knowledge is created and developed respectively by the actors of an educational policy.

This policy discourse is what Foucault called ‘technologies of power’, which constitute a form of modus operandi. From a Foucauldian perspective, teachers exist within discursive practices and power relations. They conceptualise their identity through actions of resistance which function as auspices and affirmation of power over external impositions (Boler, 1999). Calypso is an example of a teacher who has built the capacity to examine how existing power relations are embodied in her practices and understandings, and refuse to naturalise them. By ‘naturalising’, I refer to teachers accepting the current order of things in their lives and resolving that there is nothing to be done in order to change the current situation (Keohane, 2002). This indicates that when teachers are in a position to conceptualise the ways in which power functions through ideologies aiming at domination and restriction, they can conceptualise how they can act against any actions that oppress them.

While recognising the existence of top-down power, Foucault extends the notion of power and also focuses on bottom-up power relations, thus indicating that power pours both to and through teachers. This conceptualisation of power appears to limit the sense of agency or the act of resistance on behalf of teachers. Power is everywhere, in every
relationship, and in most situations power relations are reciprocal. Therefore, teachers are engaging in a continuous cycle during which they can subject power or power can turn them into objects. Teachers in Cyprus are subjected to the MoEC’s power and regulations. However, the decision of the teachers’ union to go on strike as a response to cuts in education is an example of teachers having subjecting the power that is exercised on them. Consequently, teachers subject the MoEC to the collective power the teachers’ union possesses. The key consideration in this issue is whether teachers in Cyprus have the knowledge to be disciplined. Their action to go on strike illustrates that they are neither self-regulated nor fully disciplined. Moreover, despite mechanisms of resistance, there were negative implications for teachers, with many developing negative emotions towards the reform due to inadequate resources, training and support.

Power is a liaison of contestation – a struggle to empower truth which is produced through the negotiation of the meanings individuals attach to their practices, thoughts and emotions. Power, as research evidence revealed, can empower teachers to make important decisions, be active and capable to resist within their working setting. The concept of power encompasses a significant ambiguity. Specifically, government officials exercise power over teachers and attempt to make them so effective at conducting their own conduct that eventually teachers will have no need of an externally-imposed power over them. This is a creative and efficient mechanism of power persuading individuals to engage in their own subjection with minimum supervising intervention. This capacity to subjugate and regulate oneself to a particular set of behavioural guidelines – what Foucault called ‘ethics of the self’ – is a basic form of autonomy. As Gallagher (2008) explained, the cultivation of individuals’ ability to regulate themselves ultimately turns them in to active agents no longer constrained by an externally-imposed set of regulations. The ambiguity of the notion of power can be conceptualised in terms of structure and agency, which seem to be co-dependent rather than opposites. Agency, therefore, is regarded as a product of the process of subjectification executed by
organisational structures of domination and control. The power of structures is determined by the exercise of the agencies of all teachers.

Foucault claimed that truths naturalise already established power relations, so, in order to be able to contest them, teachers need to conceptualise the ways in which these politics of truths naturalise domination and oppression (Keohane, 2002). The constellation of truths into discourses is what Foucault called ‘regimes of truth’. A regime of truth is a mechanism which develops discourses that encompass what needs to be done in this setting and how it should be done (Gore, 1993). By challenging regimes of truth and contesting governmentality, teachers resist the enactment of power and knowledge which would otherwise shape their subjectivity. ‘Care of self’ implies the regulation of oneself and one’s compliance with the directions of acceptable conduct, which Foucault referred to as governmentality. This ‘care of self’ is what Foucault referred to as ethics, and is regarded as:

the process in which the individual delimits that part of himself that will form the object of his moral practice, defines his position relative to the precept he will follow and decides on a certain mode of being that will serve as his moral goal. And this requires him to act upon himself, to monitor, test, improve and transform himself (Foucault, 1985, p. 28).

This ethical value leads teachers to cultivate themselves in order to improve themselves. Research participants in this study they were participating in CPD and INSET to cope with changes in their professional lives, to improve existing practices and to be able to comply with the guidelines of the externally-imposed strategies.

Foucault (1977) considers ‘correct training’ essential for the preservation of disciplinary power. In order to do so, the technological disciplines of hierarchical observation, normalising judgment and examination are employed. Hierarchical observation is the key to introducing discipline and refers to a structural organisation which aims at the continuous surveillance of individuals. Teachers are being watched at a distance by the MoEC and this is manifested in schools’ architecture, which is built in such a way as to limit privacy. Its role is to coerce teachers to display the desired behaviours by means of
austere surveillance, such as the system of inspection. The main purpose of normalising judgment is to correct any deviation from the rules set by the MoEC. Certain standards are set and teachers are forced to meet them through a mixture of reward for compliance and punishment for contravention. The examination combines the hierarchical observation and normalising judgment and constitutes a normalising gaze. In the CES, inspectors exercise power and during the examination process they produce documentation and determine the fixed norms. Teachers are subject to this ‘gaze’ across a wide range of professional responsibilities, and in each instance they are being examined, appraised and judged as effective/ineffective and successful/unsuccesful (Gillies, 2013).

Educational institutions are considered as panoptic environments where power is applied via continuous surveillance and observations (Gallagher, 2010). The ‘Panopticon’ was created by Jeremy Bentham, a utilitarian philosopher, who initially proposed it as an architectural construction which could be utilised to monitor and inspect prisoners within penal institutions using the least possible staffing by cultivating the sense of a continuous surveillance (Foucault, 1977). For Foucault, this panoptic arrangement epitomises the functioning of discipline power within western societies. Panopticism leads to Foucault’s concept of surveillance, which is considered as a mechanism for normalising behaviour and is inherent in education as it is ‘inscribed at the heart of the practice of teaching, not as an additional or adjacent part, but as a mechanism that is inherent to it and which increases its efficiency’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 176). Foucault considered the normalising gaze one of the most cost-effective disciplinary techniques for conducting groups of people in such a way that subjects regulate themselves and their behaviour because they are being observed. As Foucault (1980c) states:

There is no need for arms, physical violence, material constraints. Just a gaze. An inspecting gaze, a gaze which each individual under its weight will end by interiorising to the point that he is his own overseer, each individual thus exercising this surveillance over, and against, himself (p. 155).
The surveillance of teachers takes place through a disciplinary power, a technique which permits the state to regulate at a distance, like in Cyprus where teachers are being governed by the MoEC. Specifically, teachers’ professional practices are controlled by the prescribed national curriculum, the current training scheme and the system of school inspection. Teachers in Cyprus are controlled and employed in several ways, and their freedom is discursively restricted by the persistent evaluation of individuals by inspectors. As Jeffrey and Woods (1996) stated, ‘inspections […] penetrate to the heart of teachers’ operations and mount a continual surveillance. The teacher’s self is brought under intensive and critical gaze’ (p. 326). By creating a feeling of continuous surveillance, teachers ensure their practices and behaviour correspond to the inspection regime. Teachers know how and what to do in order to perform based on the norm dictated by inspections. During inspection time at the Olive Tree Primary School, Alcestis prepared and presented an ‘ideal’ lesson (ALOd) utilising methods prescribed in the new curricula in order to indicate that her practices complied with the norms of the system.

The development of new timetables in the CES is another example of a disciplinary control exerted by government officials on teachers’ activities. This type of control not only regulates teachers’ practices but also eliminates any other opportunities for diversions or for time to be dedicated to what are not regarded as appropriate discursive actions (Gillies, 2013). The vast majority of research participants expressed their dissatisfaction with respect to the new timetables, as they limited to a great extent any opportunities for diversion from the new curricula and the development of creative activities that would enhance students’ learning.

The individualist character of training programmes and CPD activities in Cyprus constitutes a social and political construction that shapes power relations. The overarching assumption, as indicated in this research study, in terms of teachers’ training is that teachers were trained and disciplined to the guidelines of the new curriculum rather than educated. Therefore, the training scheme can be considered a form of governmentality through which strategies were employed to direct and shape the
conduct of teachers. Despite the fact teachers’ training was regarded by government officials as a national priority, having a great importance for the smooth introduction of the new curricula in public primary schools, it was evident that officials neglected the complexity of teachers’ development in the setting of major education change and failed to engage teachers in the training process or cultivate any necessary skills that would have assisted teachers in their changing working setting.

Based on research findings derived from teachers’ accounts at the micro level, the survey data regarding the training and support teachers received, and curriculum coordinators’ accounts, it was evident that single, isolated training courses did not help teachers in any way to enact on policy and adopt the strategies that were necessary to correspond to the demands of today’s society and students’ needs. The development of this type of INSET serves to shape teachers to the discursive requirements set by government officials and excludes any behaviour that does not comply with their directives and regulations. Therefore, it is essential to move away from this individualistic workshop basis and move towards a well-planned integrated training programme that enhances professional learning and builds the capacity and willingness for continuous and lifelong learning. Isolated workshops are the most common type of professional development; however, it is widely accepted that they are the least efficient way to endorse learning and reform in teachers’ professional practices. Teachers’ testimonies revealed the absence of realistic expectations from the professional trainers and academics responsible for teachers’ training, which caused confusion during training about what needs to be done, how best to proceed and why, as well as the creation of guiltiness about the incorrect way in which teachers handle the new curricula.

Researchers have repeatedly argued that a more productive model of training includes teachers in groups and engages in both critical reflection and ongoing dialogue regarding the link between knowledge and practice, thus building a collective learning community (Blase and Blase, 1998). Joyce and Showers (1980) both highlighted the role of INSET in changing teachers’ teaching and signified the importance of practices and
feedback in this kind of programme. It is important teachers are given opportunities to practice a range of new techniques and skills, along with the provision of both adequate time to practise new approaches and receive feedback so that participants have the opportunity to improve their teaching and learning procedures. The INSET provided to teachers in Cyprus neglected the importance of the aforementioned indicators of effective training schemes and instead it promoted individualism, thus making it hard for teachers to change existing practices and avoid receding to tested, familiar and trusted techniques.

Despite the fact that school autonomy was high on the reform agenda, research findings indicated that no meaningful progress was made in this direction. It is evident that decentralisation of power offers great satisfaction to teachers (Frase and Sorenson, 1992) and encourages them to contribute to the development of more effective schools. The centralised structure of the CES automatically restricts teachers’ and schools’ autonomy, thus limiting any chance for having their voice being heard outside of the micro level of the organisation and more specifically at the operational level of the education system.

Teachers need to genuinely engage in autonomous practices not only in pedagogy but also in leadership and decision-making processes. The Foucauldian conceptualisation of participation in the decision-making process suggests that, for an organisation, the acknowledgment that engaging its subjects in such procedures will improve its effectiveness is considered a silent admittance of the organisation's reliance on the sense of agency of its subjects. For the subjects, their engagement in decision-making is considered a silent admittance of the restrictions of their agency and the necessity to participate in organisational webs in order to exercise power more efficiently. This reveals the continuous contestation and co-dependency of social structures and individuals' agency.
The fact that teachers’ involvement in the development of new curricula appeared to be included in the directives of the MoEC and was publicly stated as an important feature in the education reform process raises concerns that this element of the reform could be cynical, aiming at covering the real interests of those who govern and are in power. Indeed, based on teachers’ accounts, the MoEC’s catchphrase that educational reform is being regarded as a ‘public initiative and not a matter of the Ministry’ (Tsiakalos, 2010) was misleading. Teachers’ participation in the development of new curricula was supervised, guided and mediated by government officials – the so called ‘experts’ – with the use of specific techniques and strategies that restricted what could be said during the meetings. This indicates the exercise of political power in the development of the reform agenda and supports Ball’s (1993) claims about teachers’ voice in the setting of education restructuring that ‘the teacher is an absent presence in the discourses of education policy’ (p. 108).

In governmentality studies, the notion of resistance has repeatedly been neglected or undermined (Petersen, 2003). Resistance is an integral component of power and, as Foucault (1978) claimed, ‘where there is power there is resistance’ (p. 95), signifying that power and resistance together are responsible for the genesis of teachers’ sense of agency and suggesting that freedom is a core condition for their exercise of power. In the CES, teachers are subjected but always have a degree of freedom because, as Foucault (1983) claims: ‘power is exercised only over free subjects, and only insofar as they are free’ (p. 221). Power is inherent to resistance and not in opposition to it, and it is important to examine how teachers in the CES resist power through their practices.

Foucault’s notion of freedom can contribute to the theorisation of education reform and system restructuring as it can emphasise the important role teachers should play as active agents of change. Teachers cannot proceed with any action in the education setting without being involved in the play of power. Freedom becomes equivalent to any innovative, inventive, and purposeful moves in partnership with power. Calypso and Electra were among the teachers who governed themselves ‘through self-improvement,
autonomous and ‘responsible’ life conduct and lifelong learning’ (Popkewitz and Bloch 2001, p. 103). They viewed the educational reform as a good opportunity to construct and develop critical strategies, aiming not only to contest the existing discriminatory structural procedures but also to scrutinise their own involvement in those procedures. Through their freedom, these teachers were able to employ certain self-governing capabilities in order to conduct themselves in accordance with administrative intentions. An example of a self-governing capability is the autonomy through which teachers are able to take control of their responsibilities, determine their objectives and plan to meet their needs through their own powers.

Despite the fact teachers cannot set themselves free from power relations, they should not be regarded as passive individuals trapped in dominant discourses but as individuals who continually have opportunities to engage in practices of freedom. Education policy does not come into a vague state as Bowe, Ball with Gold (1992) would argue. Teachers are autonomous individuals with their own logic, ideology, values and history. They are not passive entities within a highly centralised education system. Instead, they are active agents capable of intervening and restricting the settings within which they work. They negotiate and contest educational meanings and educational policies. Teachers came to this reform with their histories, ideologies, experiences, values and belief systems in the context they were working in (Ball, Maguire and Braun, 2012). As the data revealed, teachers read the policy and they mediated aspects of it, but also there was also some evidence of resistance.

Power relations and structures which regulate the extent to which individuals act autonomously need to be contested and challenged in order to resist self-subjugation (Burr, 1995). As Foucault (1980b) suggested, individuals can resist ‘every advance of power by a movement of disengagement’ (p. 138). Self-development is an important form of resistance and, in order to better conceptualise its nature, the concept of agency needs to be re-addressed. Agency is a complex notion where individuals hold multiple discourses at the same time. Teachers therefore are agents of change and self-
governing professionals, but at the same time they are subject to a range of regulations, directives and discourses which come from above. This leads to the oxymoron of the concept of power, in that it both liberates and subjugates. The significant role of teachers in the process of educational reform has been identified and highlighted on many occasions in this research study. Teachers are the policymakers of the reform agenda and the agents of change. As research evidence revealed, teachers are not the deliverers of an externally-imposed reform agenda. On the contrary, they enact on the policy reform and they define, develop and re-interpret it. Teachers’ perceptions, beliefs and what they actually do in the classroom ultimately shape the process and fate of an education reform.

8.4 Summary

By utilising concepts developed by the philosopher and historian Michel Foucault, this chapter revealed that teachers in the Republic of Cyprus are subjugated to complex apparati of power aiming to develop a specific type of teacher whose judgments and actions are normalised in order to lead them towards desired practices and behaviours. The main type of control currently being used in the CES, which aims to reconstruct and reformulate the meaning and purpose of education, is the curriculum reform policy.

The Foucauldian theory of governmentality was helpful in revealing the several discursive struggles operating in the CES system and the ways in which reform designers in Cyprus, through this externally-imposed reform agenda, attempted to steer, shape, lead, control, direct and influence teachers’ conduct and practices. However, as was evident, this concept is also applicable to the teachers, who have the power to shape their own conduct, as well as conceptualise and determine their position with respect to this political rationality at play.

Governmentality theory was a useful framework to examine the relationship between policy and practice and investigate the ways in which teachers are controlled by
dominant governmental rationalities, but also how teachers manage to govern themselves within these discursive regimes. This framework clearly relates to Ball, Maguire and Braun’s (2012) work on policy enactment, which suggests a shift from conceptualising policy as forces simply implemented from above towards a more complex process which involves the mediation and negotiation of reform policy. From this point of view, teachers are conceptualised as both subjects of an externally-imposed reform agenda and as active agents in contesting, negotiating, mediating and enacting on policy messages.
CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

The final chapter presents the main findings using the research questions underpinning this study. The implications of the research outcomes for all stakeholders, along with some action principles that could be considered as useful, are also illustrated in this chapter. Finally, the chapter concludes by describing the contribution of this thesis and suggesting potential areas of further research.

9.2 Summarising the research findings

The main purpose of this multilevel, mixed methods case study was to investigate teachers’ professional identity in changing times. Empirical fieldwork was conducted to examine the following research questions:

(a) How do primary school teachers describe and understand their sense of professional identity?

(b) How and why has their sense of professional identity been shaped and influenced through the reform of the curriculum?

The research study was comprised of three levels. The first was operating on a micro level (the school) and concentrated on the real life of four primary school teachers with different characteristics by conducting non-participant observations, semi-structured interviews and collecting relevant documents. The second was operating on a meso level (system-level) and examined the views and attitudes of 308 teachers towards the reform, the constructs of professional identity, the changes in their work setting and INSET issues through the use of a questionnaire, which was distributed before and a
year after the introduction of the curriculum reform. The third was operating at the macro level (Ministry). The emerging issues from experiences of teachers from four in-depth stories and the survey data were examined in relation to government officials’ views on the policy reform agenda and teachers’ professional lives in a chapter based on documents and interviews with two government officials.

This research study enabled me to shed some light on the challenging issue of defining and investigating professional identity (Figure 7) by identifying through extensive research five underpinning constructs of identity (emotions, job satisfaction, professional confidence, professional autonomy and professional commitment), as well as detecting based on my research findings contextual and professional factors and their various implications for teachers’ professional identity and consequently for their practices. Research evidence revealed the structuring impact of teachers' work setting on their professional lives, and teachers’ ability to exercise agency by making choices and decisions regarding their practices based on their own experiences, knowledge, values, ideologies and beliefs. As there was a need to theorise my research findings, I utilised Foucault’s concept of governmentality to unveil the power relations that exist in teachers’ professional lives within the CES and investigate the ways in which teachers manage to manoeuvre and find spaces to work within these systems of power and regulation.
The following paragraphs will address the research questions of this study, as these questions are also linked to the contribution I have made to the investigation of teachers’ professional identity through the conceptual framework presented in figure 7.

Figure 7: Teacher professional identity framework
9.2.1 R.Q1. How do primary school teachers describe and understand their sense of professional identity?

This research question examined teachers’ perceptions of their professional identity, how they think they have developed their identity and how they think and act as teachers. Teacher identity is a complex term; therefore, an indication of teachers’ sense of their professional identity was obtained through exploring teachers’ job satisfaction, professional commitment, confidence, emotions and professional autonomy.

Research evidence revealed teachers were overall satisfied with their profession because of the intrinsic factors the teaching profession is associated with, such as working with children and seeing them achieving goals, and the good climate in schools; the constituents of which are (i) working collaboratively with peers, (ii) developing social relations with peers, (iii) receiving support and (iv) having autonomy at classroom level. Extrinsic factors were also mentioned, such as the holidays, hours and salary linked with the profession. However, some ‘third domain’ factors were found to negatively affect teachers’ professional lives, namely: the declining status of teachers, lack of respect and recognition, and factors related to administrative routines and increased paperwork.

Research participants linked commitment with participation in CPD, emotional dedication to certain aspects of the profession, devotion of a great amount of time to the preparation of teaching material and resources, executing the MoEC’s demands and filling out paperwork, as well as an extended focus on students’ learning and wellbeing. On the one hand, the school context, positive working relationships, a sense of ownership and the match between schools’ vision and teachers’ aspirations and ideologies were identified as the main factors contributing to high levels of commitment. On the other hand, limited resources, insufficient training, restricted autonomy to the micro level of the school and the highly-bureaucratic system are factors that had negative effects on teachers’ commitment.
A strong sense of professional confidence is crucial in meeting the challenges of the nature of teachers’ profession. Research outcomes indicated high levels of teachers’ professional confidence. The strong base of knowledge, the various experiences gained from working in different school contexts, their expertise resulting from their four-year pre-service teacher education and the presence of a supportive and collaborative school culture were factors that were found to increase teachers’ confidence.

Emotions play a significant role in the development of professional identity, and for interpreting and conceptualising teachers’ professional lives. It was evident the vast majority of teachers had positive emotions towards their profession merely because of the support from their school setting, the relationship with their peers and pupils, and their overall satisfaction from their profession. The centrality of the education system and the inspection and evaluation system were found to create negative emotions which, nevertheless, did not exert a stronger effect than that of the positive ones.

Teachers’ autonomy in the CES is restricted to the micro level of the school – their classrooms. At the school level, teachers rarely assume initiatives as the overarching culture in the CES does not support teachers’ participation in decision-making procedures. Teachers are obliged to follow the curricula, syllabi and timetables as prescribed and regulated by the MoEC. Hence, the restrictive and top-down structure of the CES was regarded by the vast majority of teachers’ participants as the main inhibiting factor which discouraged any self-empowered forms of teacher leadership.

9.2.2 R.Q2. How and why has their sense of professional identity been shaped and influenced through the reform of the curriculum?

After the introduction of the new curriculum and timetables in September 2011, teachers’ satisfaction was affected to a great extent. The inadequate support, insufficient INSET and intensification of teachers’ work because of the introduction of new roles and responsibilities for teachers were identified as the factors associated with the reform that
decreased levels of satisfaction. The lack of professional autonomy as a result of the centrality of the CES, lack of recognition and lack of respect for teachers were identified as the contextual and professional factors that negatively affected job satisfaction. In terms of the demographic characteristics, it was found that teachers with higher degrees tended to be less satisfied with the ways in which the educational change was being implemented in the school setting.

Teachers’ commitment was identified as a vital factor in teachers’ willingness to participate in policy enactment. Factors including professional autonomy, which is restricted at classroom level, and lack of respect and appreciation from parents, the Ministry and the media were found to challenge teachers’ commitment. Additionally, insufficient support, increased workload, training and inadequate resources were reported by all participants as factors affecting their commitment in a negative way. However, regardless of changes in their work setting and despite the fact their levels of commitment to particular practices were modified, teachers appear to have been able to hold on to their commitment to their beliefs and ideologies. An important finding in terms of the demographic characteristics is that the externally-imposed educational reform had a more negative influence on the older teachers than the younger ones.

The educational reform programme intended to readdress the highly-centralised system and provide greater decentralisation and autonomy. Research outcomes revealed that these aims remained just that, as teachers were not granted greater autonomy. Teachers’ autonomy is restricted to their classrooms where they have the opportunity to use the teaching methods they want and make important decisions about the conduct of their work. Nevertheless, teachers are the policymakers of educational change and have the power to influence the process and progress of educational reform. Through technologies of self, teachers have the ability to interpret the reform based on their ideologies, knowledge and previous experiences, and their practices can therefore have an impact upon children and the whole school. Despite the MoEC’s attempts to preserve
the existing structures which regulate teachers, teachers find ways to manoeuvre and control their work.

A year after the introduction of the educational reform, the vast majority of teachers indicated high levels of confidence during classroom practices and discussions with peers and the administration regarding school issues. However, the micro level research data managed to capture fluctuations in teachers’ professional confidence. When the reform was introduced into schools, teachers whose subjects experienced more changes than other subjects saw their teaching confidence levels drop. Low levels of professional confidence can increase isolation; however, based on observational data, collaboration among peers during this period was significantly increased. Other factors that were mentioned as having a negative impact upon teachers’ confidence are inadequate support and training, as well as the increased workload as a result of the curriculum and timetable reform. Despite the existence of these contextual factors, a year after the introduction of the reform the majority of teachers felt even more confident towards the reform because of their increased familiarity with the reform agenda and its guidelines.

Drawing on research data, it was evident that the changes in teachers’ working setting had a profound impact on their emotions. The increased workload, inadequate resources to fulfil the aims of the new curriculum, insufficient support and the mismatch between government demands and teachers’ ideologies, values and beliefs regarding the needs of the pupils created negative emotions in the majority of teachers. However, as micro level data revealed, teachers like Calypso and Electra managed to take control and govern themselves by regulating their own behaviour and restraining these negative emotions. In terms of governmentality, this indicates that these teachers are moving away from being subjected to the policy reform and towards its enactment and creative mediation.

Drawing on Foucault’s governmentality theory, it was evident that teachers in the Republic of Cyprus are subjugated to and controlled by political rationalities, such as the
prescribed national curricula, syllabi and timetables. Macro level data revealed that educational reform designers and administrators did not pay attention to the underpinning constructs of professional identity and their vital role in teachers’ ability and willingness to cope with educational changes, enact on policy agenda and proceed with changes in their teaching practices. Consequently, the introduction of the externally-imposed reform agenda, which is a significant form of control and is linked to the exercise of political power, had an impact upon teachers’ professional identities and their practices.

In terms of relationships with peers, micro level data managed to capture the turbulent relationship between teachers and parents. The main cause of conflict was teachers’ decision to proceed with strikes as a response to cuts in education. The parents’ union considered that this decision would doom the process of the educational reform programme and consequently have a negative impact on students’ performance and wellbeing. Teachers did not hesitate to express their dissatisfaction towards parents’ stance, and issues such as lack of recognition and respect were raised. Although this tension between parents and teachers was mentioned by questionnaire respondents, qualitative data collected in the micro level provided a more holistic idea and in-depth insight regarding this matter.

Prior to the introduction of the education reform, working relationships were characterised by collectivism. However, daily discussions and casual dialogue between peers were increased in the light of the reform implementation. During these interactions, teachers had the chance to talk with peers, encourage each other to clarify both theoretical and practical aspects of the curriculum and enhance their understanding of what was expected from them. As was evident in this research study, the norm of teachers’ isolation, which leads teachers away from peers’ judgement, has been replaced by collaboration and discussion of the curricula reform.
The educational reform agenda introduced in September 2011 placed great demands and expectations upon teachers. However, the paradox in this situation was the fact that, although the reform was highly demanding, the resources available according to both practitioners and curriculum coordinators were inadequate to satisfy its aims. Based on governmentality theory, one way to regulate teachers’ practices is to offer limited resources to schools. Phaedra, the headteacher of the Olive Tree Primary School, acknowledging that teachers’ professional practices are regulated by the resources available to them, was continuously trying to find alternative funding in order to equip the school with the necessary resources. Nevertheless, government officials seemed to hold a different position to curriculum coordinators and practitioners, as they were continuously highlighting that the educational reform process could continue without any problems, despite the financial crisis.

This study revealed that work intensification was another contextual factor that had an impact on teachers’ professional identity. The majority of teachers asserted that the reform intensified their workload which made it difficult for them to fully conceptualise the vision and the objectives of the reform. Findings indicated that teachers’ work was increased as they experienced pressure to perform the same tasks and cover the same amount of material in considerably less time. The development of new timetables was another example of the disciplinary control exerted by government officials on teachers’ practices, which limited any opportunities for moving away from the prescribed curricula and towards the development of activities that could enhance creative learning. Both curriculum coordinators highlighted that they had developed the new curricula without knowing how many hours would be assigned to each subject. After the curricula development, the MoEC released the new timetables. This caused great frustration among teachers, as they realised that they had less time to teach the new material instead of having the material decreased, as had been promised by government officials.

Research findings indicated that teachers spent time marking, planning and preparing work, as well as recording students’ progress. Micro level data also revealed that, after
the introduction of the reform and the intensification of their work, the time required to perform these tasks exceeded the time available; therefore, teachers were spending more and more time after school completing their work. As a consequence, many of the tasks teachers previously carried out during school hours now had to be completed during the afternoons and at weekends.

In terms of training, the majority of primary school teachers attended the mandatory training courses and a significant percentage also participated in CPD courses to cultivate existing skills and be equipped with the necessary knowledge to cope with the education reform. However, research findings revealed a lack of quality in training and support. The majority of primary school teachers signified the poor structure and insufficiency of the training courses. Despite the fact that the two curriculum coordinators identified the inadequacy of the INSET provision, the Minister of Education and Culture had an opposite view on this matter and considered that teachers had the opportunity to participate in the most extended teacher education programme in the history of the CES. Foucauldian governmentality theory indicates that teachers’ INSET can be considered as a mechanism that government officials used to subjugate and regulate teachers’ professional practices for the preservation of power in schools. Therefore, teacher – instead of participating in training that encompasses an amalgamation of practice and theory, simulation, practice and collaborative peer-coaching – are forced to be passive listeners of the new curricula guidelines and main ideas, and recipients of broad information about the curriculum which was highly theoretical with limited practical guidelines.

One of the aims of the education reform agenda was deviation from traditional models of decision-making to those which support the active and meaningful engagement of teachers in making decisions. However, as research evidence revealed, teachers’ participation in decision-making procedures remains limited and any decisions made by teachers are restricted to their classrooms. Therefore, the recent calls to increase teachers’ leadership have remained unfulfilled.
When exploring teachers’ professional identity, it was important to investigate teachers’ personal perspectives towards the reform. Most studies concentrate on the extent to which teachers implement a particular policy reform. In contrast, this research investigated teachers’ perceptions towards curriculum reform, as policy enactment is highly dependent on these perceptions. Research findings revealed that the majority of the research participants were not feeling properly prepared with respect to the reform. However, teachers recognised the need for restructuring of the CES by considering the curriculum reform as a useful innovation in primary education which offered cross-curricular opportunities to pupils and provided greater freedom to make decisions at classroom level. Moreover, it should be noted that, although teachers felt ready to accept changes in their work and confident in organising their teaching based on reform guidelines, these findings do not claim that teachers will proceed with changes in their practices. As micro level data revealed, policy enactment depended on teachers’ will and ability to interpret and translate policy agenda based on their previous experiences, knowledge, beliefs and ideologies.

Macro level data has shown that reform designers failed to acknowledge that policy enactment is a complex process rather than a straightforward one; it depends heavily on teachers’ experiences, values, histories and purposes, and involves a creative processes of meaning and re-contextualisation of policy ideas. Moreover, the accounts of curriculum coordinators and other government officials revealed their ignorance of the fact that they cannot control the meaning of their policy texts, which are an outcome of struggles and negotiations among the different groups and individuals that participate in the policy process. This indicates the disjuncture between government officials’ intentions regarding the implementation of the educational policy and the ways in which teachers conceptualise the reform and how they enact it.

Teachers’ role and professional practice in Cyprus has been predefined by central government and determined in policy documents and legislation. Government officials therefore expected that teachers would familiarise themselves with and implement the
policy statements that were planned for them. Governmentality theory suggests that policy agenda is an exercise of political power and an attempt to transform teachers into subjects with a specific set of behaviours. However, teachers like Calypso and Electra are an indication of teachers' resistance to this subjugation; they chose to engage in complex practices of interpreting and reinterpreting, and enacted on policy messages based on their own ideologies, views, principles, resources, and expertise.

9.3 Implications of research findings

The implications of these research findings for all stakeholders, including teachers, curricula developers and administrators, are addressed in this section. This research study reveals that the extent to which teachers actively engage in the reform process depends on whether reform developers challenge their existing professional identities. As was evident, the constructs underpinning teachers' professional identity were critically ignored during the development of the reform agenda in Cyprus, hence teachers' identity was undermined. Furthermore, factors such as work intensification, lack of resources, insufficient support and training, and lack of respect and recognition were found to have a negative impact on teachers' professional identity. Therefore, the implications are that these factors, along with teachers' emotions, professional autonomy, commitment, job satisfaction and confidence, must be recognised and addressed during the development of reform agendas and taken into consideration as part of the innovation process.

Educational reform programmes must address the concepts of professional identity, as they are more likely to meet the standards and connect with the needs of both teachers and pupils if they do. Therefore, those who are interested in the success of education reform policies and the effective restructuring of the education systems will unavoidably have to respect and support teachers' identity. The teacher is central to the reform movement, and if there is to be any chance of success for such reform efforts, critical dialogue, mutual trust and respect must be established between all stakeholders. The findings of this study have important implications for policy and practice, as they highlight
the need for reform designers and school leaders to invest time and energy in supporting
teachers, offering them the opportunity to make choices and decisions regarding their
work, creating space to exercise agency in their engagement with policy, and providing
them with adequate resources and suitable training in order to create positive emotions
towards change and increase their satisfaction, commitment, autonomy and confidence.

Much literature has focused on the crucial role of INSET in the successful process of a
curriculum reform (Hargreaves, 1994; Little, 1993). As this research study indicated, the
INSET programme was insufficient, inadequate, impractical, short and unsystematic,
with no follow-up sessions. While teachers reported their attendance in the INSET, the
vast majority of them indicated the failure of the training courses to equip them with
proper knowledge and empower their conceptualisation of and confidence to enact on
the new curricula. Micro level data revealed teachers’ complaints about the training they
received and their confusion regarding what was expected from them. In addition,
research participants signified the lack of opportunities to evaluate their understanding of
the main reform ideas and pose any questions in forthcoming training workshops. The
courses were off-site, one-off events where the main reform and guidelines were
presented. Therefore, teachers were not provided with continuous or sustained support
for policy reform enactment.

Training courses, instead of perpetuating the contradictory phenomena of lecturing the
importance of learner-centeredness in the teaching process (Karagiorgi et al., 2008),
should start promoting interaction with peers, engagement in collective activities or
culture and critical inquiry. The educational system in Cyprus needs to overcome the
deficiency of its current training provision in order to meet the needs of education
reform. From these findings, I suggest that teacher training should be an ongoing
learning process which engages teachers and equips them with adequate knowledge
and skills to cope with changes in their professional lives and face the difficulties
encountered during policy enactment.
INSET should be developmental. Specifically, there should be informative training courses about the reform where there is a link made between classroom realities and reform strategies. In addition, there is a need to provide training that offers opportunities for teachers to reflect upon their practices, get involved in practical tasks, gain new knowledge, and monitor and appraise current and new practice (Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin, 1995). In a similar vein, Little (1986) argued that an effective training scheme is systematic and long enough to guarantee gains in knowledge and skills; it is linked to professional patterns and norms of collegiality and testing, requires joint involvement in preparation and implementation and ensures collaboration among teachers aimed at producing a shared understanding. Effective INSET scheme needs to be inclusive and accessible, integrate constructivist approaches to teaching and learning, consider teachers as professionals and adult learners, promote school-based and teacher initiatives, be focused on students' learning and offer sufficient time and follow-up support (Abdal-Haqq, 1995). In these training courses, it is important for teachers to work collaboratively with academics in problem-solving activities, constructing and applying a specific practice skill and monitoring the success of their efforts (Ball, 1995; Fullan and Hargreaves, 1992).

Great emphasis should also be given to teachers' understanding of new education policies in the sphere of the previous professional experiences, ideologies and values inherent in teachers' professional lives (Cohen, 1990). Therefore, it is important to ensure that training developers continuously check teachers' meanings and their understanding of new curricula, and do not just disseminate information. Lortie (1975) claimed that teachers are hesitant to adopt new practices unless they are confident that they can make them work. Following this claim, Guskey (1986) also suggested that teachers need clear evidence that the education reform initiatives will result in the improvement of students' performance and learning outcomes, in order to gain their commitment to the curricula innovation. Consequently, adequate feedback should be given to teachers regarding their new practices and students' outcomes.
Teachers’ collaboration provides the opportunity for teachers to work together to explore ways in which they can enact on reform ideas, as well as finding solutions to the problematic areas of the curricula. The exchange of ideas, resources, and continuous formal and informal conversations regarding the content of the curricula encouraged teachers to try new ideas and mitigated any policy enactment problems. Therefore, it is important that stakeholders establish the necessary conditions to enable teachers to collaborate with peers, engage in peer support and feel free to put ideas into action and express any concerns and problems. Within this collaborative culture, teachers’ morale and commitment to the reform can be increased. In addition to the importance of the cultivation of a collaborative climate in schools during changing times, quality leadership has been documented to be crucial for the successful enactment of reforms.

Headteachers can play a key role in the development of a clear, consistent work environment where both roles and rules are explicit and are continuously applied, especially during changing times (Day et al., 2000). Moreover, principals should encouraging teachers to take risks, try new teaching practices and reflect upon them, which will motivate and reinforce collaboration among peers and promote active engagement in professional dialogue. Headteachers should allow for a logical timeframe in terms of policy enactment, support new thinking and pedagogical practices, and promote shared power within the school setting. An important resource for achieving this goal is administrative support.

9.4 Areas of further research

The research findings of this study shed light on the complex nature of teachers’ identity and practice in changing times. Suggestions about further research emerge from this research project and follow the notion that research should be developmental.

This study was conducted at the early stages of the reform implementation, in the district of Nicosia, the capital of Cyprus. It is important to examine the effects of the curricula
reform at a later stage because curricula can be given different meanings in different settings and times (Fernandez, Ritchie and Barker, 2008). It is therefore crucial to further investigate teachers’ identity at a nationwide level and collect data from all the districts of the Republic of Cyprus, as this will enable enrichment, elaboration and enhancement of my existing findings. Schools in Cyprus have a sense of uniformity because of the centrality of the CES. However, it has been argued that the districts in which schools are situated can influence the extent to which teachers enact on reform policies (Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991); it would therefore be interesting to conduct the study concurrently in different districts to allow comparisons.

The present research can also be replicated among other teacher groups within the CES. Specifically, since the education reform agenda concerns all the levels of education, from pre-primary to tertiary, a further extension of this study could be to examine the ways in which teachers in other levels of education experience the externally-imposed agenda and what its effect is on their professional lives.

By utilising a mixed methods design, I was able to examine the case from different perspectives and achieve a full understanding that would have been difficult or impossible using a mono method research. Using a mono method could also have led to misinterpretations, as there would be little opportunity for triangulation of data (Bryman, 2008). In addition to the methods I used, I would argue that the focus groups research method could also be used in future research, as it will enable me to explore teachers’ views, perceptions and ideas on the effects of externally-imposed initiatives in a free-thinking and comfortable environment, obtaining a diversity of opinions within a group context. This is not a commonly used research method, but it is useful as it aims at the provision of systematic and wide-ranging responses, ideas and opinions (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007; Morgan, 1988) regarding the investigated topic. Additionally, the teachers who participate in the focus groups, through the conversation and the sharing of thoughts and experiences, can stimulate new ideas and concepts, thus unveiling general background information regarding their work and identity at a time of major
curriculum reform. The focus group findings could then be cross-checked with interview and questionnaire responses, providing a more tangible and holistic picture of the case. The focus groups could also be comprised of headteachers and government officials, and it would be interesting to present the emerging ideas and issues of one group to the other.

In addition to this empirical work, this research study could consider an alternate theoretical framework that could be utilised to re-evaluate the data and develop other research questions regarding teachers' professional identity. The philosophers Foucault (1978) and Bourdieu (1990) suggested in different ways that identity and practice are strongly influenced by the function of power in society and formed by social structures produced by that power. Therefore, in terms of investigating identity, Bourdieu's (1990) work on habitus, field, doxa and practice could be used to explore the ways in which daily practices interplay with social structure, further conceptualise the notion of identity as a socialised concept, explore teachers' locations within social space, investigate the relationship of agency and structure and explore the underpinning dynamics of power in their professional lives.

Another possible research area is related to the restructuring of INSET provision in the CES. The problematic nature of the INSET has been aptly illustrated in teachers' and government officials' accounts. Research needs to be conducted in order to investigate teachers' perceptions regarding the effect of INSET upon their work in the light of education reform, aiming at the development of an effective INSET scheme that corresponds to the needs of reform practitioners. The new scheme should be developed based on research findings instead of relying on the so-called experts' assumptions and beliefs regarding the elements that an INSET model should be constituted of. Moreover, issues like who is undertaking the research and what sorts of methods are used need to be addressed along with the extent to which teachers' voice and perceptions will be taken into serious consideration for the development of the new training model.
9.5 Contribution of the thesis

This research project contributes further to the evidence and theory base for the educational policy field regarding the ways in which teachers in a highly centralised system experience and respond to changes in their professional lives, as well as what constitutes, forms, enhances and undermines their work. The outcomes of this research study not only enrich the international literature on professionalism and identity but also fill in the gaps with respect to teachers’ professional identity at a time of system-wide change at a national level in Cyprus, the first in approximately twenty years. Furthermore, this research investigates the way professional identity is developed and how it is affected by classroom experiences, collegial relationships, organisational structures, and external reforms – issues that are almost completely ignored in reform strategies and educational innovation policy.

The most frequently used theoretical frameworks in the field of education policy concerning teacher professional identity are those of symbolic interactionism and communities of practice. Symbolic interactionism has been criticised for having a restricted perspective of the concept of power. It is also supposedly unable to contribute to the understanding of ‘macro’ phenomena, such as social structure and power (Dennis and Martin, 2005). Wenger’s (1998) theoretical framework, CoP, has been criticised for inadequately addressing the issue of power. Specifically, Lave and Wenger (1991) conceptualise the function of power as a notion that enhances or inhibits access to and continuous engagement in CoP. However, by examining their definition of CoP, it was apparent that the researchers hold an embryonic understanding of how social practices are inherent in history and language. Moreover, power was managed as part of identity development rather than practice per se (Fox, 2000). In contrast, this study employs Foucauldian tools for the examination of this concept, as this kind of framework provided the opportunity to unveil the power relations underpinning teachers’ professional lives in Cyprus.
Another contribution of this study is the time at which this research was conducted. Specifically, I examined teachers' practices and the constructs of professional identity before and a year after the introduction of a major curriculum reform in Cyprus. I argue that, when a reform agenda is forwarded in schools, it is important to examine how it affects those who are the key agents of its enactment at an early stage. Acknowledging at an early stage what major issues are impeding the success of the reform process gives the opportunity to all stakeholders to take appropriate measures and develop an action plan to limit any emerging problems.

This research also contributes to methodology. Specifically, it operates on three levels – the micro, the meso and the macro – and connects the experiences of four teachers to a wider population and ultimately with the ways in which teachers’ practices and identity are described, defined and ascribed in government documents and by government officials. Moreover, this study concentrates on primary teachers and utilises methods such as observations and documentary evidence that are not widely used, as the majority of research undertaken in education is based mainly on surveys and interviews, and focuses on secondary teachers. Through this methodology, I was able to disclose my contribution to this research area so that reform developers in Cyprus can either integrate my input with the development of a new educational policy, or adjust the existing one. Furthermore, the depth and complexity of investigating teachers’ professional identity at a time of major policy reform depicted the ways in which interrelated elements had an impact upon each other and pointed out, through thick description, the genesis of new ideas and notions towards the development of a richer conceptual/theoretical framework. Specifically, the study contributes to the theorising and conceptualisation of teacher professional identity by arguing that teachers’ professional commitment, confidence, autonomy, job satisfaction and emotions are the constructs of teachers’ professional identity and an effective way of gaining an understanding of this concept.
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## Appendix 1

### Research studies into professional identities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>RESEARCH STUDIES</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Title</td>
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Interviews with 99 Welsh and English primary teachers, first early in their career and again ten years later


Structured open-ended interviews with 30 higher education lecturers in two different institutes


Qualitative interpretive study
Three secondary school teachers
In-depth semi-structured interviews


Survey questionnaire
Sample of 14,844 American public secondary school teachers


Case study of two student teachers (in South Africa)


Semi-structured interviews
29 Canadian secondary school department heads


Questionnaire
16 diverse high schools


Qualitative interview study
45 student teachers
Semi-structured interviews
Focus groups


Ethnographic approach
Methods: informal conversations and participant observation
Sample: Six primary schools, 42 teachers


24 Finnish teachers working in a vocational institution and a university department of teacher education
Open-ended narrative interviews

Case study
A secondary school teacher
Semi-structured interviews

Mixed methods approach
375 career change student teacher
Survey and interviews

90 Primary teachers
Unstructured interviews and observations
Dear colleagues,

My name is Christiana P. Karousiou and I am a graduate student of the Department of Education (Primary School) at the University of Cyprus and currently a PhD student at the University of Manchester in the United Kingdom. You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Manchester. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

The main focus of this study is to examine the way professional identity is developed through teacher's work by focusing on how teachers engage with an external intervention through a major curriculum reform which will be implemented in all public primary schools in September 2011.

The research questions that will shape this study are:

(a) How do primary school teachers describe and understand their sense of professional identity?
(b) How and why has their sense of professional identity been shaped and influenced through the reform of the curriculum?

I am writing to invite you to be interviewed and observed as part of my research project at [name of the school]. A participant information sheet is included with this letter and you will see that it outlines the project and your rights as a participant. I would like to stress that your participation is based on informed consent, and you have the right to withdraw. You have my assurance that I will not discuss your answers with anyone else except my supervisors. I will ensure that your name is not attached to any data. All the data will be kept secure, password protected and encrypted.

Could you please let me know whether you wish to participate in this project in order to make arrangements how to move forward? My email address is:

Christiana.Karousiou@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely,
Christiana P. Karousiou
Appendix 2.2

Participant Information Sheet (Teachers - Micro level)

Project title: An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus

Participant Information Sheet

You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Manchester. The research will be supervised by the Professors Helen M Gunter and Mel Ainscow. The scientific quality of the research has been assessed by the Review Panel for PhD/Professional Doctorate students in the School of Education and the ethical quality by the University of Manchester Research Ethics Committee.

Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Please ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

Who will conduct the research?

Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL

Title of the Research

An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus

What is the aim of the research?

The aim of this research is to examine the way professional identity is developed through teacher’s work by focusing on how teachers engage with an external intervention through a major curriculum reform. Therefore, I aim to conduct an ethnography by observing a total of four teachers’ engaging in real life teaching to witness what happens for an extended period of time, listen to what is said, and get a feeling for the anxieties, emotions and concerns regarding the new reform, ask questions and gather any necessary documents in order to cast some light on the issues under investigation starting in May/June 2011 through to the end of June 2012.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you are a teacher and responsible for a classroom in this school, which agreed to accommodate the requirements of this study.
What would I be asked to do if I took part?

You will be interviewed four times over a year. Each interview session will have a different purpose and will last one hour at a date and time convenient to you. I will ask you questions about the upcoming curriculum reform, the nature of teachers’ work, professional identity, the training and support you have received with respect to the reform. Furthermore, I would like to observe six lessons per visit, in order to examine issues regarding the curriculum, the teaching and learning process, use of resources, teacher and pupil interaction, professional confidence as well as evidence of changes as a direct result of the reform requirements.

What happens to the data collected?

I will ask your permission on the day to make an audio recording of the interview. I will be analysing the data to look for key themes and checking it with documents and other data collected. The data will help form a portrait of the nature of teachers’ work, professional identity, perceptions towards the upcoming reform, training and support offered to the teacher. During the observations I will take notes. These data will help form a portrait of the teachers’ professional identity, use of resources, teacher and pupil interaction, as well as evidence of changes as a direct result of the reform requirements.

How is confidentiality maintained?

You have my assurance that I will not discuss what you say in the interview or what I will observe with anyone else except my supervisors. I will ensure that your name is not attached to any data. All the data will be kept secure, password protected and your name will not be included. Furthermore, all data collected will be encrypted using the 7zip software.

What happens if I do not want to take part or if I change my mind?

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to yourself.

Will I be paid for participating in the research?

There is no payment for involvement in the project.

What is the duration of the research?

Each of the four interview sessions will last an hour. Each of the six observations will last 45 minutes (6 x 45minutes).
Where will the research be conducted?

The research will be conducted in a public place within the school premises [name of the school] in Nicosia, in order to minimise or mitigate any risks and particularly within the classrooms and staff meeting rooms.

Will the outcomes of the research be published?

The findings of the study will be presented to the school as well as to the Cyprus Ministry of Education and Culture. Furthermore, I will use the data you provide for my PhD thesis and I expect to give papers at conference and to publish the findings from the research.

Contact for further information

Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL

What if something goes wrong?

Please do contact me if anything prevents you from participating.

If you wish to make a formal complaint about the conduct of the research then you should contact the Head of the Research Office, Christie Building, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester, M13 9PL.
Appendix 2.3

Letter to Teachers (Micro level) - arrangements

Dear [name]

Thank you for agreeing to participate with the project.

I look forward to meeting and working with you: date and time.

Attached is a consent form and it would be helpful if you could read and complete it ready for the interview. If you have any questions regarding this or any other aspect of the project please do not hesitate to contact me.

My email address is:

Christiana.Karousiou@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

Yours sincerely,

Christiana P. Karousiou
Appendix 2.4

Consent form (Teachers - Micro level)

Project title: An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus

If you are happy to participate in the interview with Christiana P. Karousiou at [Name of the School] please complete and sign the consent form below.

| I confirm that I have read the attached information on the above project and have had the opportunity to consider the information and ask questions and had these answered satisfactorily | Please tick the box |
| I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to myself or my employment |
| I understand that the interview will be audio recorded |
| I understand that notes will be taken at the observation. |
| I agree to the use of anonymous quotations in the study resulting from this research |
| I agree that the data (anonymised) may be archived for future researchers to use. |

I agree to take part in the above project:

Name of participant Date Signature

Name of person taking consent Date Signature
Appendix 2.5

Interview (Teachers – Micro Level)

Interview Protocol

- Explain who I am and what I am doing in School.
- Remind the respondent of their rights (Participant Information Sheet) and collect the Consent form.
- Remind the respondent that the interview will take one hour.
- Remind the respondent that I am asking them for permission to audio record. Remind them that their name will not be attached to the data. If the person does not give permission to have an audio recording then I will take notes. If this is refused then the interview cannot go ahead.
- I will ask the respondent if they have any questions before the interview goes ahead.

FIRST PERIOD: May/June 2011

Purpose: Getting the teachers’ understanding of their professionalism, and their sense of professional identity with respect to the upcoming reform.

Questions

1) How do you feel about the new curriculum reform?
2) What your expectations are with respect to the curriculum reform?
3) Are you well prepared?
4) What sorts of training have you received?
5) Were you properly consulted?
6) Are you satisfied with your profession? How do you feel about it? Do you think this level of satisfaction will be affected by the implementation of the reform?
7) What are your purposes as a teacher?
8) Do you think the reform will affect your confidence level with respect to teaching?
9) Do you think that your teaching practices will be changed or affected in any way with the implementation of the new curriculum?
10) Do you think that the implementation of the new curriculum will affect in any way your professional competence?
11) How would you describe your role and participation in decision-making procedures? Do you think this will be affected in any way with the new curriculum reform?
12) How would you describe your collaboration status with your colleagues? Do you think this level of collaboration will be affected by the new reform?

SECOND PERIOD: Sep 2011

Purpose: Scrutinise the progress of the reform; what stayed the same and what changed? Triangulation of the observation findings.

1) How do you feel now about the new curriculum reform?
2) What your expectations are with respect to the curriculum reform?
3) Have you had more training relevant to the reform? If not, why?
4) What difference do you think the curriculum reform has made to your sense of being a teacher, your sense of professionalism?
5) What do you think is going wrong and what do you think is going right and why?

THIRD PERIOD (Dec/Jan 2012)

Purpose: Scrutinise the progress of the reform; what stayed the same and what changed? Triangulation of the observation findings.

1) How do you feel now about the new curriculum reform?
2) What your expectations are with respect to the curriculum reform?
3) Have you had more training relevant to the reform? If not, why?
4) What difference do you think the curriculum reform has made to your sense of being a teacher, your sense of professionalism?
5) What do you think is going wrong and what do you think is going right and why?

FOURTH PERIOD (May/June 2012)

Purpose: Reflect over the year

1) Can we look over the last year at the beginning you said this, in the middle you said that what you think is the situation now?
2) If you have been in the Ministry would you have done it like this? Would you have done it differently? What do you think they got right?
3) When you enter the classroom tomorrow will you be the same professional entity you were a year ago? What changed? Are you happy with this change?
Appendix 2.6

Observation schedule for a lesson (Teachers - Micro level)

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE FOR A LESSON

DATE: 
LOCATION: 
TEACHER: 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FOCUS</th>
<th>FIELD NOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the lesson and what are the principal objectives?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching process:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What teaching methods are utilised and how do they link with learning?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What evidence is there of learning taking place?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning environment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How is the learning environment fostered by the teacher?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What teaching and learning resources/materials are being used and in what way?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher and pupil interaction:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How the teacher interacts with her/his students?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional confidence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the teacher make important decisions about the conduct of her/his work?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the teacher impose her/his own professional interpretations of government policy?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reform:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What evidence is there of changes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as a direct result of the reform requirements?</td>
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<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional comments:</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 3.1

Letter of invitation (Headteacher - Micro level)

Dear [name]

I am writing to invite you to be interviewed as part of my research project at [name of the school]. A participant information sheet is included with this letter and you will see that it outlines the project and your rights as a participant. I would like to stress that your participation is based on informed consent, and you have the right to withdraw. Furthermore, I will ensure confidentiality as I will not discuss what you tell me to anyone in School, and I will not attach your name to any data in any report or publication.

I would like to meet on a date and time convenient to you to talk for one hour on issues regarding the curriculum reform that will be implemented in the primary schools in Cyprus in September 2011, the nature of teachers’ work, professional identity and training.

Could you please let me know a date and time convenient to you, and I will be in touch to make arrangements. My email address is:

Christiana.Karousiou@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

I would like to thank you for taking the time to read this letter and the information sheets and look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely,

Christiana P. Karousiou
Appendix 3.2

Participant Information Sheet (Headteacher - Micro level)

Project title: An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus

Participant Information Sheet

You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Manchester. The research will be supervised by the Professors Helen M Gunter and Mel Ainscow. The scientific quality of the research has been assessed by the Review Panel for PhD/Professional Doctorate students in the School of Education and the ethical quality by the University of Manchester Research Ethics Committee.

Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Please ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

Who will conduct the research?
Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL

Title of the Research
An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus

What is the aim of the research?
The aim of this research is to examine the way professional identity is developed through teacher’s work by focusing on how teachers engage with an external intervention through a major curriculum reform.

Why have I been chosen?
You have been chosen to take part in the study because you are a headteacher and as such you are well positioned to explain to me the recent history of the school and issues regarding the upcoming reform.

What would I be asked to do if I took part?
You will be invited to take part in an interview for one hour during May 2011 at a date and time convenient to yourself. I will ask you questions about the history of the School, the upcoming curriculum reform, the nature of teachers’ work, teachers’ professional identity, the training and support teachers received. In May 2012 you will be invited to participate in another interview session during which we will discuss the same topics as
in May 2011, in order to identify any changes with regards to the upcoming reform. I expect each interview session to last for one hour and to take place within normal school hours.

**What happens to the data collected?**

I will ask your permission on the day to make an audio recording. I will transcribe the interview and hand a copy back to you for checking. I will be analysing the data to look for key themes and checking it with documents and other data collected. The data will help form a portrait of the School regarding its recent history, the current situation and issues with regards to the upcoming research.

**How is confidentiality maintained?**

You have my assurance that I will not discuss what you say in the interview with anyone else except my supervisors. I will ensure that your name is not attached to any data. All the data will be kept secure, password protected and your name will not be included. Furthermore, all data collected will be encrypted using the 7zip software.

**What happens if I do not want to take part or if I change my mind?**

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to yourself.

**Will I be paid for participating in the research?**

There is no payment for involvement in the project.

**What is the duration of the research?**

Each interview session will last for one hour.

**Where will the research be conducted?**

The research will be conducted in a public place within the school premises [name of the school] in Nicosia and specifically in the headteacher’s office in order to minimise or mitigate any risks.

**Will the outcomes of the research be published?**

The findings of the study will be presented to the school as well as to the Cyprus Ministry of Education and Culture. Furthermore, I will use the data you provide for my PhD thesis and I expect to give papers at conference and to publish the findings from the research.

**Contact for further information**

Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL
What if something goes wrong?
Please do contact me if anything prevents you from participating.

If you wish to make a formal complaint about the conduct of the research then you should contact the Head of the Research Office, Christie Building, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester, M13 9PL.
Appendix 3.3
Letter to Headteacher (Micro level) - arrangements

Dear [name]

Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed.

I look forward to meeting and working with you: date and time.

Attached is a consent form and it would be helpful if you could read and complete it ready for the interview. If you have any questions regarding this or any other aspect of the project please do not hesitate to contact me.

My email address is:

Christiana.Karousiou@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

Yours sincerely,

Christiana P. Karousiou
Appendix 3.4

Consent form (Headteacher- Micro level)

**Project title:** An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus.

If you are happy to participate in the interview with Christiana P. Karousiou at [Name of the School] please complete and sign the consent form below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Please tick the box</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I confirm that I have read the attached information on the above project and have had the opportunity to consider the information and ask questions and had these answered satisfactorily</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that the interview will be audio recorded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree to the use of anonymous quotations in the study resulting from this research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree that the data (anonymised) may be archived for future researchers to use.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

I agree to take part in the above project:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of participant</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Signature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of person taking consent</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Signature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Appendix 3.5

Interview schedules (Headteacher- Micro level)

Interview Protocol

- Explain who I am and what I am doing in School.
- Remind the respondent of their rights (Participant Information Sheet) and collect the Consent form.
- Remind the respondent that the interview will take one hour.
- Remind the respondent that I am asking them for permission to audio record. Remind them that their name will not be attached to the data. If the person does not give permission to have an audio recording then I will take notes. If this is refused then the interview cannot go ahead.
- I will ask the respondent if they have any questions before the interview goes ahead.

Headteacher Interview May 2011

1. Could you please provide me with a brief description of the recent history of this school?

2. What is the current situation regarding the preparations of the introduction of the new curriculum reform in the School?
   
   Probe: on what is going well, and what concerns there are.

3. Have the teachers of this school received any training? If yes, what sorts of training have teachers received in anticipation of the curriculum reform?

4. Have you provided any means of advisement and/or guidance to the teachers?

5. Are there any barriers to the implementation of this reform in this school?

6. Are teachers of this school ready to embrace the directives of the new curriculum? In your opinion, are they prepared? Do they have the necessary knowledge and skills?

7. Will the teachers be able to make decisions and choices more freely in comparison with the old curriculum? In what aspects?

8. What is the nature of teachers’ work in this school?

9. Do you believe that in this school, there is good support for staff, a collaborative climate within the staff, a good relationship among staff and administrators, a frequent communication with the staff concerning the new curriculum?

10. What your expectations are with respect to the curriculum reform?

11. Are teachers treated like professionals in the educational system in Cyprus?

12. Anything that Headteacher wants to say that has not had the chance to say.
Headteacher Interview May 2012

1. In front of you, you have a copy of the first interview that we did in May 2011. Could you please suggest any additional information if you think necessary regarding the account of the school?

2. Could you please provide me with an update on how things are going in general with the introduction of the new curriculum reform in the school?

   Probe: on what is going well, and what concerns there are.

3. How is the change process taking place? Is it working? What is your evidence for this?

4. Have the teachers of this school received any additional training? If yes, what sorts of training have teachers received regarding the curriculum reform?

5. Have you provided any means of advisement and/or guidance to the teachers in the meantime? If yes, please give more details.

6. Are there any barriers to the implementation of the reform in this school?

7. Were the teachers of this school ready to embrace the directives of the new curriculum? In your opinion, were they prepared? Did they have the necessary knowledge and skills to cope with the new reform?

8. Have the teachers been able to make decisions and choices more freely in comparison with the old curriculum? In what aspects?

9. What is the nature of teachers’ work in this school after the implementation of the curriculum reform? Are there any changes?

10. Do you believe that in this school now, there is good support for staff, a collaborative climate within the staff, a good relationship among staff and administrators, a frequent communication with the staff after the implementation of the educational reform?

11. What are your expectations now with respect to the curriculum reform?
Appendix 4

Piloting the research instruments

4.1 Interviews

Interview schedules were piloted prior immersing in the field. Piloting is being recognised as a crucial and important stage of the development of the interview agenda as it increases the possibilities of a successful research process. Two individuals who were representative of the group I was researching were recruited. The piloting was beneficial as I gained a great deal through this experience and I also received valuable feedback and comments from the participants. This process enabled me to examine if the questions were reasonable, clear, and reorder them to gain a better response (Gillham, 2004). Furthermore, I checked the extent to which I prompted, probed, explained the purposes of the interview adequately, directed the participant in a clear but not in an intrusive way, checked the non-verbal cues of the interviewee, guided the interview process at the right pace and ended the interview process in a socially suitable way (Gillham, 2000). Finally, the pilot interview gave me the opportunity to practice my questioning skills and avoid the use of leading or ambiguous questions.

4.2 Observations

Both observations schedules were piloted in order to test the lesson observation plan; permission was acquired from a teacher to proceed with the pilot observation schedule. Furthermore, consent was obtained from all teachers in order to test the observation schedule I was going to use during the curriculum meeting. The pilot observation took place to check the appropriateness and suitability of the schedules and amend them if necessary. This process enabled me to pre-test whether I would be able to record essential information which was required to achieve the research objectives and to test whether the areas I wanted to examined are relevant to the social situations and events.

4.3 Questionnaire

Piloting the research tool on a sample of individuals of the represented population is a vital element of high-quality research as it can indicate a number of ambiguities, resources of bias and error or any other possible pitfalls. A pilot study took place in December 2010 in order to examine and identify items that lack clarity or that may not be suitable for the respondents. The questionnaires were distributed to ten teachers in different stages of their career.
By piloting the instrument I increased the possibilities for a successful completion of the study whilst I had the opportunity to identify logistical problems, test the research process, improve the internal validity and reliability of the questionnaire, appraise the practicability of a full-scale research, highlight possible problems and estimate the variability in results to assist selecting the sample size (Lancaster, Dodd and Williamson, 2004). Moreover, I had the opportunity to check how long it takes to fill in the questionnaire, whether it is too difficult or too simple, too lengthy or too short and as well as to identify whether the participants fully understood the questions and instructions and whether the meaning of them is the same for all the respondents. I also had the chance to receive feedback on the format, design, layout of the questionnaire, the type of the questions and identify any omissions, unessential and irrelevant points. The piloting not only identified resources of bias and errors but it also increased the reliability, the validity and the feasibility of the questionnaire (Wilson and McLean, 1994).

The questionnaire was pre-tested and led to the identification of weaknesses in three questions in terms of translation as well as the appearance of a number of statements. The questionnaire was refined in order to ensure that the final version included all the information needed; all instructions were elucidated and any misunderstandings were removed.

Specifically, splitting statements over more than one page was avoided to make sure that respondents would not think that it has finished from the previous page as encountered by some of the participants that took part in the pilot study. Furthermore, in order to make sure that no translation issues would be raised again, I gave the translated questionnaire to a colleague and asked her to translate it back in English. Then, I compared it with the English questionnaire in order to see if key phrases and keywords were translated back to English accurately. Piloting proved to be very important process as it enabled me to test the adequacy of the questionnaire, evaluate the viability of a full scale survey, design and appraise the workability of the research protocol, estimate the sample size, determine resources needed for the conduct of the proposed study, gather preliminary data and convince panel bodies and stakeholders that the study is worth receiving authorisation for its conduct.
Appendix 5.1

Letter of invitation (Staff – Micro Level, Curriculum meeting observation)

Dear colleagues,

My name is Christiana P. Karousiou and I am a graduate student of the Department of Education (Primary School) at the University of Cyprus and currently a PhD student at the University of Manchester in the United Kingdom. You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Manchester. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

The main focus of this study is to examine the way professional identity is developed through teacher's work by focusing on how teachers engage with an external intervention through a major curriculum reform which will be implemented in all public schools in September 2011.

The research questions that will shape this study are:

(a) How do primary school teachers describe and understand their sense of professional identity?
(b) How and why has their sense of professional identity been shaped and influenced through the reform of the curriculum?

I am writing to invite you to be observed as part of my research project at [name of the school]. A participant information sheet is included with this letter and you will see that it outlines the project and your rights as a participant. I would like to stress that your participation is based on informed consent, and you have the right to withdraw. You have my assurance that I will not discuss your answers with anyone else except my supervisors. I will ensure that your name is not attached to any data. All the data will be kept secure, password protected and encrypted.

Could you please let me know whether you wish to participate in this project in order to make arrangements how to move forward? My email address is:

Christiana.Karousiou@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely,
Christiana P. Karousiou
Appendix 5.2

Participant Information Sheet (Staff – Micro Level, Curriculum meeting observation)

Project title: An exploratory study into primary teachers' professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus

Participant Information Sheet

You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Manchester. The research will be supervised by the Professors Helen M Gunter and Mel Ainscow. The scientific quality of the research has been assessed by the Review Panel for PhD/Professional Doctorate students in the School of Education and the ethical quality by the University of Manchester Research Ethics Committee.

Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Please ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

Who will conduct the research?
Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL

Title of the Research
An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus.

What is the aim of the research?
The aim of this research is to examine the way professional identity is developed through teacher’s work by focusing on how teachers engage with an external intervention through a major curriculum reform.

Why have I been chosen?
You have been chosen because you are a teacher in a school where I am am planning to conduct ethnography (exploration of the culture) of the school you are working in.

What would I be asked to do if I took part?
I have observed four teachers' engaging in real life teaching and witnessed what happens for an extended period of time, which started in May/June 2011 and will last through to the end of June 2012. In addition I would like to invite you to consider allowing me to observe four staff meetings, one per visit in order to examine how government policy is implemented as it filters down into schools and how teachers proceed forward with respect to this.
You will be observed during the curriculum meeting that will be held on [date]. I expect the observations to take place within normal school hours.

What happens to the data collected?
I will take notes during the observation. I will be analysing the data to look for key themes and checking it with documents and other data collected. The data will help form an understanding on what happens to government policy as it filters down into schools and how teachers proceed forward with respect to this.

How is confidentiality maintained?
You have my assurance that I will not discuss what I see or hear in the meetings with anyone else except my supervisors. I will ensure that your name is not attached to any data. All the data will be kept secure, password protected and your name will not be included. Furthermore, all data collected will be encrypted using the 7zip software.

What happens if I do not want to take part or if I change my mind?
It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to yourself.

Will I be paid for participating in the research?
There is no payment for involvement in the project.

What is the duration of the research?
I will observe you for one hour.

Where will the research be conducted?
The research will be conducted in a public place within the school premises [name of the school] in Nicosia, in order to minimise or mitigate any risks and specifically in the teachers’ meeting area.

Will the outcomes of the research be published?
The findings of the study will be presented to the school as well as to the Cyprus Ministry of Education and Culture. Furthermore, I will use the data you provide for my PhD thesis and I expect to give papers at conference and to publish the findings from the research.

Contact for further information
Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL
What if something goes wrong?

Please do contact me if anything prevents you from participating.

If you wish to make a formal complaint about the conduct of the research then you should contact the Head of the Research Office, Christie Building, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester, M13 9PL.
Appendix 5.3

Letter to staff – arrangements (Staff – Micro Level, Curriculum meeting observation)

Dear [name]

Thank you for agreeing to be observed.

I look forward to meeting and working with you: date and time.

Attached is a consent form and it would be helpful if you could read and complete it ready for the interview. If you have any questions regarding this or any other aspect of the project please do not hesitate to contact me.

My email address is:

Christiana.Karousiou@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

Yours sincerely,

Christiana P. Karousiou
Appendix 5.4

Consent form (Staff – Micro Level, Curriculum meeting observation)

**Project title:** An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus

If you are happy to participate in the observation with Christiana P. Karousiou at [Name of the School] please complete and sign the consent form below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I confirm that I have read the attached information on the above project and have had the opportunity to consider the information and ask questions and had these answered satisfactorily</th>
<th>Please tick the box</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that notes will be taken at the observation.</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree to the use of anonymous quotations in the study resulting from this research</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree that the data (anonymised) may be archived for future researchers to use.</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I agree to take part in the above project:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of participant</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Signature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of person taking consent</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Signature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Appendix 5.5

Observation schedule (Staff – Micro Level, Curriculum meeting observation)

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE FOR A MEETING

DATE:

LOCATION:

PARTICIPANTS:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FOCUS</th>
<th>FIELD NOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meeting and agenda</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the nature of the meeting and its main purposes?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reform:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What issues are there on the agenda related to the reform (nature of the issues, debates that take place)?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the decisions made and who is involved?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Framing:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How are the main purposes and agenda framed by the headteacher?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How does the staff work together?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional development:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What issues are there on the agenda related to the teachers training and professional development?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional comments:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 6.1

Access to primary schools (Letter to the Headteachers of the primary schools)

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Christiana P. Karousiou and I am a graduate student of the Department of Education (Primary School) at the University of Cyprus and currently a PhD student at the University of Manchester in the United Kingdom. During my postgraduate studies I plan to conduct a research with the title: An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus.

The main focus of this study is to examine the way professional identity is developed through teacher’s work by focusing on how teachers engage with an external intervention through a major curriculum reform.

The research questions that will shape this study are:

(a) How do primary school teachers describe and understand their sense of professional identity?
(b) How and why has their sense of professional identity been shaped and influenced through the reform of the curriculum?

For the purposes of this study questionnaires will be given to the same primary school teachers in two phases: immediately before the implementation of the curriculum reform in May/June 2011 and a year after in May/June 2012 in order to identify any differences in the nature of their work, professional identity, their views on the upcoming curriculum reform and on training and support with respect to the reform. Therefore, I kindly request your permission to conduct this study in your primary school and give the questionnaires to the teachers of your school. I plan to come and distribute the questionnaires on a time and date that is convenient to you in order not to cause major work or disruption.

It would be really helpful if you could let me know if I can make arrangements to distribute the first questionnaire this summer. My contact details are:

By email, Christiana.Karousiou@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk or by post: Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL.

Thank you in advance for your time and your contribution.

Yours sincerely,

Christiana P. Karousiou
Appendix 6.2

Participation sheet (Headteachers of the primary schools)

Project title: An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus.

Participant Information Sheet

You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Manchester. The research will be supervised by the Professors Helen M Gunter and Mel Ainscow. The scientific quality of the research has been assessed by the Review Panel for PhD/Professional Doctorate students in the School of Education and the ethical quality by the University of Manchester Research Ethics Committee.

Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Please ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

Who will conduct the research?

Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL

Title of the Research

An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus.

What is the aim of the research?

The aim of this research is to examine the way professional identity is developed through teacher’s work by focusing on how teachers engage with an external intervention through a major curriculum reform.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you are a head teacher in a primary school where I would like to conduct my research.

What would I be asked to do if I took part?

For the conduct of this research, I would like to distribute questionnaires to the same primary school teachers in two phases: immediately before the implementation of the curriculum reform in May/June 2011 and a year after in May/June 2012 in order to identify any differences in the nature of teachers’ work, professional identity, teachers’ views on the upcoming curriculum reform and on training and support with respect to the reform. Therefore, I kindly request your permission as the headteacher to conduct this
study in your primary school and give the questionnaires to the teachers of your school on a time and date convenient to you.

If you decide that your school will participate in this research project then please contact me in order to arrange a convenient time to come in the school and give an invitation letter to the staff, so they will have two weeks to decide whether they wish to participate in the research or not.

What happens to the data collected?
The survey data will be analysed quantitatively using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 20.0. The collected data will enable me to conceptualise the nature of teachers' work, professional identity, teachers' views on the upcoming curriculum reform and on training and support with respect to the reform.

How is confidentiality maintained?
The project will respect the confidentiality of the respondents.
I will ensure that the names of the participants will not be attached to any data. All the data will be kept secure, password protected and their name will not be included. Furthermore, all data collected will be encrypted using the 7zip software.

What happens if I do not want to take part or if I change my mind?
It is up to you to decide whether or not your school will take part. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to yourself.

Will I be paid for participating in the research?
There is no payment for involvement in the project.

What is the duration of the research?
The participants will need 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Where will the research be conducted?
The research will be conducted in a public place within the school premises [name of the school] in Nicosia, in order to minimise or mitigate any risks.

Will the outcomes of the research be published?
The findings of the study will be presented to the school as well as to the Cyprus Ministry of Education and Culture. Furthermore, I will use the data you provide for my PhD thesis and I expect to give papers at conference and to publish the findings from the research.

Contact for further information
Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL
What if something goes wrong?

Please do contact me if anything prevents you from participating.

If you wish to make a formal complaint about the conduct of the research then you should contact the Head of the Research Office, Christie Building, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester, M13 9PL.
Appendix 7

Primary school Teachers’ Questionnaire May/June 2011

Dear colleagues,

My name is Christiana P. Karousiou and I am a graduate student of the Department of Education (Primary School) at the University of Cyprus and currently a PhD student at the University of Manchester in the United Kingdom. You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Manchester. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

The main focus of this study is to examine the way professional identity is developed through teacher’s work by focusing on how teachers engage with an external intervention through a major curriculum reform. Questionnaires will be given to the same primary school teachers in two phases: immediately before the implementation of the curriculum reform in May/June 2011 and a year after in May/June 2012 in order to identify any differences in the nature of your work, professional identity, your views on the upcoming curriculum reform and on training and support with respect to the reform.

I kindly ask you to put your name on the questionnaire. This is because I will ask you to complete a similar questionnaire in a year’s time and, for the analysis I need to link the information provided on both questionnaires. Your potential collaboration will be greatly appreciated. A questionnaire will take 20 minutes from your time to answer. By completing the questionnaire you are giving consent to participate in this project. You have my assurance that I will not discuss your answers with anyone else except my supervisors. I will ensure that your name is not attached to any data. All the data will be kept secure, password protected and your name will not be included. Furthermore, all data collected will be encrypted using the 7zip software provided by the University of Manchester. I will write a short report, and I will use the data collected for my PhD thesis, and I also am expected to give papers at conferences and to publish findings from the research. All data and the name of the school will be anonymised.

Please, let me know if you wish to participate in the research study, in order to distribute the first questionnaire this summer. My contact details are: By email, Christiana.Karousiou@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk or by post: Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL.

Please complete the questionnaire by [date] and put it into the envelope provided which will be collected by myself on the [date].

Thank you in advance for your time and your contribution.
Yours sincerely,
Christiana P. Karousiou
**QUESTIONNAIRE**

**NAME:** --------------------------------------------------------

**Part 1:** The following set of statements examines teachers’ demographic characteristics. Please tick (☑) the appropriate box:

1. **Sex:**
   - Male ☐  Female ☐

2. **Age:**
   - 21-26 ☐  27-32 ☐  33-38 ☐  39-44 ☐  44-49 ☐  50-55 ☐  56-61 ☐

3. **Post held:**
   - Teacher ☐  Assistant Headteacher ☐

4. **Years of teaching experience:**
   - 0-5 ☐  6-11 ☐  12-17 ☐  18-23 ☐  23-28 ☐  29-34 ☐  35-40 ☐

5. **Highest degree held:**
   - Pedagogic Academy Diploma ☐  BA/BSc ☐  MA/MSc ☐  PhD ☐

**Part 2:** The following set of statements examines the nature of teachers’ work. Please record your level of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2.1 I am responsible for coordinating an area or areas of the curriculum</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>I do not know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.2 I participate in decision-making processes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 I participate in administrative and management tasks</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.4 I share my thoughts about the curriculum reform with my colleagues</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.5 I communicate with the parents regarding issues about their children</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.6 I personalise teaching according to the needs of individual children</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.7 I record the development and progress of children</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.8 I spend time on marking pupils assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.9 I have the opportunity to discuss with other peers about teaching and learning issues</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.10 I spend time planning and preparing lessons/sessions</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.11 I spend time observing other peers’ lessons</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.12 I teach lessons in collaboration with other peers</td>
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<td>2.13 I work with other staff to plan and coordinate work</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>I conduct classroom research to solve practical teaching issues and problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>I exchange teaching materials with other teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>I discuss teaching and learning issues with other teachers</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>I work in collaboration with other teachers to plan school activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>I provide feedback to parents on a pupil's progress at parents' meetings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>I maintain a sense of partnership with parents through regular communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>I attend parents meetings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>I have access to any instructional materials and equipment when I need them</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>Teaching and learning materials are adequate to support my instructional objectives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>There are adequate resources to carry out my work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>There are frequent discussions with the staff concerning the new curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>The work is more intensified now than a year ago</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>There is a greater control in teachers' work now than a year ago</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2.27</td>
<td>I participate in staff meetings</td>
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<td>2.28</td>
<td>I enjoy my work most of the time</td>
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<td>2.29</td>
<td>There is a sense of congruence between personal goals and the school goals</td>
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<td>2.30</td>
<td>Opportunities are given to make full use of existing skills and knowledge</td>
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<td>2.31</td>
<td>Working relationships in this school are characterised by collectivism</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>I enjoy my work more now than I did a year ago</td>
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<td>2.33</td>
<td>I work more now than I did a year ago</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>I spend most of the time on administrative work than on teaching and learning</td>
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<td>2.35</td>
<td>Routine duties and paperwork interfere with my work</td>
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</table>
Part 3: The following set of statements examines the professional identity of primary teachers in Cyprus. Please record your level of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>I do not know</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1 I have enough freedom to teach</td>
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<td>3.2 I am satisfied with the climate within my school</td>
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<td>3.3 The tasks I am responsible for are related to my work</td>
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<td>3.4 Teachers are supported by the management of this school</td>
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<td>3.5 I am satisfied with the ways changes and innovations are implemented</td>
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<td>3.6 I am able to make important decisions about the conduct of my work</td>
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<td>3.7 I am able to impose my own professional interpretations of government policy</td>
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<td>3.8 I am confident to adopt new classroom practices</td>
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<td>3.9 I am able to affect pupils’ learning</td>
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<td>3.10 I make use of critical reflection and analysis to evaluate policies</td>
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<td>3.11 I believe that my work can bring about change in my school</td>
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<td>3.12 I am more committed to my work now than a year ago</td>
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<td>3.13 I have a strong knowledge base on the teaching areas I am responsible for</td>
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<td>3.14 I am flexible with regard to educational innovations</td>
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<td>3.15 I have the freedom to express views on important school matters</td>
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<td>3.16 I need to keep pace with new developments</td>
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<td>3.17 I have the autonomy to develop programs at the micro level of school</td>
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</table>
Part 4: The following set of statements examines your views on the new curriculum reform introduced in September 2011. Please record your level of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
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<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>I do not know</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1 I feel properly prepared with respect to the curriculum reform</td>
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<td>4.2 I am looking forward to the new curriculum</td>
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<td>4.3 I think the Ministry got it right with this reform</td>
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<td>4.4 I am well informed about the new curriculum reform</td>
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<td>4.5 The curriculum reform is a useful innovation in primary education</td>
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<td>4.6 I believe that the new curriculum will improve results</td>
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<td>4.7 The new curriculum will reduce teachers’ stress regarding the organisation of the teaching</td>
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<td>4.8 I am ready to accept changes to the way work is carried out</td>
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<td>4.9 I am aware of the changes associated with the new curriculum</td>
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<td>4.10 I can organise my teaching so as to achieve the aims of the new curriculum</td>
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<td>4.11 I believe that the new curriculum introduces major changes in teaching and learning process</td>
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<td>4.12 I am familiar with the content of the new curriculum</td>
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<td>4.13 I feel comfortable with the new curriculum arrangements</td>
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<td>4.14 With the new curriculum initiatives teachers are granted more autonomy to make decisions at classroom level</td>
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<td>4.15 There are opportunities to develop cross-curricular work with my students</td>
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<td>4.16 Curriculum directives are designed to contribute to the increase of teachers’ motivation.</td>
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<td>4.17 The new curriculum provides greater freedom</td>
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<td>4.18 With the introduction of the new curriculum my teaching methods will be changed</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Part 5: The following set of statements examines your views on training and support. Please record your level of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.1 I receive adequate training with respect to the curriculum reform</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.2 I welcome any support and advice with respect to the reform</td>
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<td>5.3 The training seminars held, cover my needs regarding the new curriculum</td>
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<td>5.4 The Ministry of Education and Culture (MoEC) provides adequate support, guidance and advice with respect to the curriculum reform in terms of training</td>
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<td>5.5 The MOEC offers clear aims and guidelines regarding the new curriculum</td>
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<td>5.6 I attend training events</td>
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<td>5.7 I attend Continuing Professional Development courses</td>
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<td>5.8 I stay up to date with changes and developments in the structure of the curriculum</td>
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<td>5.9 The in-service training courses and activities meet my professional needs</td>
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Part 6: List out the training you have attended the last year:

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

ANY ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CONTRIBUTION
Appendix 8

Primary school Teachers’ Questionnaire May/June 2012

Dear colleagues,

My name is Christiana P. Karousiou and I am a graduate student of the Department of Education (Primary School) at the University of Cyprus and currently a PhD student at the University of Manchester in the United Kingdom. You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Manchester. You will recall you completed this questionnaire in [date] and at that time I informed you that I would get in touch again a year later to invite you to participate again.

The main focus of this study is to examine the way professional identity is developed through teacher’s work by focusing on how teachers engage with an external intervention through a major curriculum reform. Questionnaires are given in two phases: immediately before the implementation of the curriculum reform in May/June 2011 and a year after in May/June 2012 in order to identify any differences in the nature of your work, professional identity, your views on the upcoming curriculum reform and on training and support with respect to the reform.

I kindly ask you to put your name on the questionnaire. This is because I need to link the information provided on both the first and this questionnaire. You have my assurance that I will not discuss your answers with anyone else except my supervisors. I will ensure that your name is not attached to any data. All the data will be kept secure, password protected and your name will not be included. Furthermore, all data collected will be encrypted using the 7zip software.

I will write a short report for the School, and I will use the data you provide for my PhD thesis, and I am expected to give papers at conferences and to publish findings from the research. All data and the name of the school will be anonymised.

It would be really helpful if you could let me know if you will participate in order to distribute the first questionnaire this summer. My contact details are:

By email, Christiana.Karousiou@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk or by post: Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL.

Please complete the questionnaire by [date] and put it into the envelope provided which will be collected by myself on the [date].

Thank you in advance for your time and your contribution.

Yours sincerely,

Christiana P. Karousiou
QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME: ________________________________

Part 1: The following set of statements examines teachers’ demographic characteristics. Please tick (☒) the appropriate box:

1.1 Sex:
   ☒ Male ☐ Female

1.2 Age:
   ☒ 21-26 ☐ 27-32 ☐ 33-38 ☐ 39-44 ☐ 44-49 ☐ 50-55 ☐ 56-61

1.3 Post held:
   Teacher ☐ Assistant Headteacher ☒

1.4 Years of teaching experience:
   0-5 ☒ 6-11 ☐ 12-17 ☐ 18-23 ☐ 23-28 ☐ 29-34 ☐ 35-40

1.5 Highest degree held:
   Pedagogic Academy Diploma ☐ BA/BSc ☐ MA/MSc ☐ PhD ☒

Part 2: The following set of statements examines the nature of teachers’ work. Please record your level of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>I do not know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 I am responsible for coordinating an area or areas of the curriculum</td>
<td></td>
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<td>2.2 I participate in decision-making processes</td>
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<td>2.3 I participate in administrative and management tasks</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.4 I share my thoughts about the curriculum reform with my colleagues</td>
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<td>2.5 I communicate with the parents regarding issues about their children</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.6 I personalise teaching according to the needs of individual children</td>
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<td>2.7 I record the development and progress of children</td>
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<td>2.8 I spend time on marking pupils assessment</td>
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<td>2.9 I have the opportunity to discuss with other peers about teaching and learning issues</td>
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<td>2.10 I spend time planning and preparing lessons/sessions</td>
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<td>2.11 I spend time observing other peers’ lessons</td>
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<td>2.12 I teach lessons in collaboration with other peers</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.13 I work with other staff to plan and coordinate work</td>
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<td>2.14 I conduct classroom research to solve practical teaching issues and problems</td>
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<td>2.15 I exchange teaching materials with other teachers</td>
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<td>Statement</td>
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<td>2.16 I discuss teaching and learning issues with other teachers</td>
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<td>2.17 I work in collaboration with other teachers to plan school activities</td>
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<td>2.18 I provide feedback to parents on a pupil's progress at parents' meetings</td>
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<td>2.19 I maintain a sense of partnership with parents through regular communication</td>
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<td>2.20 I attend parents meetings</td>
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<td>2.21 I have access to any instructional materials and equipment when I need them</td>
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<td>2.22 Teaching and learning materials are adequate to support my instructional objectives</td>
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<td>2.23 There are adequate resources to carry out my work</td>
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<td>2.24 There are frequent discussions with the staff concerning the new curriculum</td>
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<td>2.25 The work is more intensified now than a year ago</td>
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<td>2.26 There is a greater control in teachers’ work now than a year ago</td>
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<td>2.28 I enjoy my work most of the time</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.1 I have enough freedom to teach</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 I am satisfied with the climate within my school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 The tasks I am responsible for are related to my work</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3.4 Teachers are supported by the management of this school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 I am satisfied with the ways changes and innovations are implemented</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6 I am able to make important decisions about the conduct of my work</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3.7 I am able to impose my own professional interpretations of government policy</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3.8 I am confident to adopt new classroom practices</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3.9 I am able to affect pupils’ learning</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.10 I make use of critical reflection and analysis to evaluate policies</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.11 I believe that my work can bring about change in my school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.12 I am more committed to my work now than a year ago</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.13 I have a strong knowledge base on the teaching areas I am responsible for</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.14 I am flexible with regard to educational innovations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.15 I have the freedom to express views on important school matters</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.16 I need to keep pace with new developments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.17 I have the autonomy to develop programs at the micro level of school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Part 4: The following set of statements examines your views on the new curriculum reform introduced in September 2011. Please record your level of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>I do not know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1 I feel properly prepared with respect to the curriculum reform</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 I am looking forward to the new curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3 I think the Ministry got it right with this reform</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4 I am well informed about the new curriculum reform</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5 The curriculum reform is a useful innovation in primary education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6 I believe that the new curriculum will improve results</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4.7 The new curriculum will reduce teachers’ stress regarding the organisation of the teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8 I am ready to accept changes to the way work is carried out</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.9 I am aware of the changes associated with the new curriculum</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.10 I can organise my teaching so as to achieve the aims of the new curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.11 I believe that the new curriculum introduces major changes in teaching and learning process</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.12 I am familiar with the content of the new curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.13 I feel comfortable with the new curriculum arrangements</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.14 With the new curriculum initiatives teachers are granted more autonomy to make decisions at classroom level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.15 There are opportunities to develop cross-curricular work with my students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.16 Curriculum directives are designed to contribute to the increase of teachers' motivation.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4.17 The new curriculum provides greater freedom</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4.18 With the introduction of the new curriculum my teaching methods will be changed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Part 5: The following set of statements examines your views on training and support. Please record your level of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>I do not know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.1 I receive adequate training with respect to the curriculum reform</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 I welcome any support and advice with respect to the reform</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3 The training seminars held, cover my needs regarding the new curriculum</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 The Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) provides adequate support, guidance and advice with respect to the curriculum reform in terms of training</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5 The MOEC offers clear aims and guidelines regarding the new curriculum</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6 I attend training events</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.7 I attend Continuing Professional Development courses</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.8 I stay up to date with changes and developments in the structure of the curriculum</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.9 The in-service training courses and activities meet my professional needs</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Part 6: List out the training you have attended the last year:

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

Part 7: Please tick (☑) the appropriate box according what you have experienced during the year:

- Change headteacher
- Change school
- Change classroom and year group
- Changes to salary
- Being promoted
- Major changes in personal lives (e.g. marriage, divorce, bereavement, having a baby, moving house)
- Other. Please state …………………………………………

ANY ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

________________________________________________________________________

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CONTRIBUTION
Appendix 9.1

Letter to Curriculum coordinators – invitation

Dear [name]

My name is Christiana P. Karousiou and I am a graduate student of the Department of Education (Primary School) at the University of Cyprus and currently a PhD student at the University of Manchester in the United Kingdom. You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Manchester. My supervisors are Professor Helen M Gunter and Professor Mel Ainscow.

I approach you because I would like to interview a person who is being instrumental in constructing the curriculum reform that will be implemented in the primary schools in Cyprus in Sep 2011, in order to obtain your views about the curriculum reform, teachers’ work and identity, as well as on issues like the training and support offered to the teachers.

A participant information sheet is included with this letter and you will see that it outlines the project and your rights as a participant. I would like to stress that your participation is based on informed consent, and you have the right to withdraw. Furthermore, I will ensure confidentiality as I will not discuss what you tell me to anyone except my supervisors and I will not attach your name to any data in any report or publication.

I would like to meet on a date and time convenient to you to talk for one hour on issues regarding government policy, the nature of teachers’ work, professional identity and training.

Could you please let me know a date and time convenient to you, and I will be in touch to make arrangements. My email address is:

Christiana.karousiou@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

I do hope that you can be involved and I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely,

Christiana P. Karousiou
Appendix 9.2

Participant Information Sheet (Curriculum coordinators)

Project title: An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus

Participant Information Sheet

You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking as part of my doctoral studies at the University of Manchester. The research will be supervised by the Professors Helen M Gunter and Mel Ainscow. The scientific quality of the research has been assessed by the Review Panel for PhD/Professional Doctorate students in the School of Education and the ethical quality by the University of Manchester Research Ethics Committee.

Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Please ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

Who will conduct the research?
Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL

Title of the Research
An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus.

What is the aim of the research?
The aim of this research is to examine the way professional identity is developed through teacher’s work by focusing on how teachers engage with an external intervention through a major curriculum reform.

Why have I been chosen?
You have been chosen as you are a member of the Curricula Reform Committee which was appointed in order to proceed with the development of a new curriculum that will be applied in all public primary schools in Cyprus from September 2011.

What would I be asked to do if I took part?
I would like to interview you for one hour at a date and time convenient to yourself. I will ask you questions about the curriculum reform, teachers’ work and identity, as well as on issues like the training and support offered to the teachers. I expect the interview to take place within normal office hours.
What happens to the data collected?
I will ask your permission on the day to make an audio recording. I will transcribe the interview and hand a copy back to you for checking. I will be analysing the data to look for key themes and checking it with documents and other data collected. The data will help form an understanding of the aims of curriculum coordinators regarding teachers’ work and professional identities.

How is confidentiality maintained?
You have my assurance that I will not discuss what you say in the interview with anyone else except my supervisors. I will ensure that your name is not attached to any data. All the data will be kept secure, password protected and your name will not be included. Once the interview is transcribed the actual oral interview will be deleted.

What happens if I do not want to take part or if I change my mind?
It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to yourself.

Will I be paid for participating in the research?
There is no payment for involvement in the project.

What is the duration of the research?
I will interview you for one hour.

Where will the research be conducted?
The research will be conducted in policy-maker’s office or in other public place in Nicosia in order to minimise or mitigate any risks.

Will the outcomes of the research be published?
The findings of the study will be presented to the Cyprus Ministry of Education and Culture. Furthermore, I will use the data you provide for my PhD thesis and I expect to give papers at conference and to publish the findings from the research.

Contact for further information
Christiana P. Karousiou, School of Education, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester. M13 9PL

What if something goes wrong?
Please do contact me if anything prevents you from participating.

If you wish to make a formal complaint about the conduct of the research then you should contact the Head of the Research Office, Christie Building, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester, M13 9PL.
Appendix 9.3

Letter to Curriculum coordinators - arrangements

Dear [name]

Thank you for agreeing to participate with the project.

I look forward to meeting and working with you: date and time.

Attached is a consent form and it would be helpful if you could read and complete it ready for the interview. If you have any questions regarding this or any other aspect of the project please do not hesitate to contact me.

My email address is:

Christiana.Karousiou@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

Yours sincerely,

Christiana P. Karousiou
Appendix 9.4

Consent form (Interview - Curriculum coordinators)

Project title: An exploratory study into primary teachers’ professional identity at a time of educational reform in Cyprus

If you are happy to participate in the interview with Christiana P. Karousiou please complete and sign the consent form below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Please tick the box</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I confirm that I have read the attached information on the above project and have had the opportunity to consider the information and ask questions and had these answered satisfactorily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that the interview will be audio recorded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree to the use of anonymous quotations in the study resulting from this research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree that the data (anonymised) may be archived for future researchers to use.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I agree to take part in the above project:

Name of participant                  Date                  Signature

Name of person taking consent        Date                  Signature
Appendix 9.5

Interview Schedule: Curriculum coordinators

Interview Protocol

- Explain who I am and what I am doing in School and the research project in general.
- Remind the respondent of their rights.
- Remind the respondent that the interview will take an hour.
- Remind the respondent that I am asking them for permission to audio record. Remind them that their name will not be attached to the data. If the person does not give permission to have an audio recording then I will take notes. If this is refused then the interview cannot go ahead.
- I will ask the respondent if they have any questions before the interview goes ahead.

1. Have the teachers received any training? What sorts of training have teachers received in anticipation of the curriculum reform?
2. Have you provided any means of advisement and/or guidance to the teachers?
3. 360 teachers were involved in the planning of the new curriculum. How was this sample selected? Could you outline their responsibilities? What was the weight of their opinions?
4. What is the role of the teacher towards the new curriculum?
5. Are teachers ready to embrace the directives of the new curriculum? In your opinion, are they prepared? Do they have the necessary knowledge and skills?
6. Are there any barriers to the implementation of this reform?
7. Do you see teachers as executive instruments or as the means of carrying educational change into schools?
8. Are teachers treated like professionals in the educational system in Cyprus?
9. Will the teachers be able to make decisions and choices more freely in comparison with the old curriculum? In what aspects?
10. How do you feel about the new curriculum reform?
11. What your expectations are with respect to the curriculum reform?
12. Anything that policymaker wants to say that has not had the chance to say.
## Appendix 10

### Qualitative data coding scheme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CODE</th>
<th>INTERPRETATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AInt1</td>
<td>Alcestis Interview 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AInt2</td>
<td>Alcestis Interview 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AInt3</td>
<td>Alcestis Interview 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AInt4</td>
<td>Alcestis Interview 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ArInt1</td>
<td>Artemis Interview 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CInt1</td>
<td>Calypso Interview 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CInt2</td>
<td>Calypso Interview 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CInt3</td>
<td>Calypso Interview 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CInt4</td>
<td>Calypso Interview 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DInt1</td>
<td>Daphne Interview 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DInt2</td>
<td>Daphne Interview 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DInt3</td>
<td>Daphne Interview 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DInt4</td>
<td>Daphne Interview 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EInt1</td>
<td>Electra Interview 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EInt2</td>
<td>Electra Interview 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EInt3</td>
<td>Electra Interview 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EInt4</td>
<td>Electra Interview 4</td>
</tr>
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<td>PInt1</td>
<td>Phaedra Interview 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PInt2</td>
<td>Phaedra Interview 2</td>
</tr>
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<td>RInt1</td>
<td>Rhea Interview 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>ALOa</td>
<td>Alcestis Lesson Observations Phase a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALOb</td>
<td>Alcestis Lesson Observations Phase b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALOc</td>
<td>Alcestis Lesson Observations Phase c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALOd</td>
<td>Alcestis Lesson Observations Phase d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLOa</td>
<td>Calypso Lesson Observation Phase a</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLOb</td>
<td>Calypso Lesson Observations Phase b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLOc</td>
<td>Calypso Lesson Observations Phase c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLOd</td>
<td>Calypso Lesson Observations Phase d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLOa</td>
<td>Daphne Lesson Observations Phase a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLOb</td>
<td>Daphne Lesson Observations Phase b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLOc</td>
<td>Daphne Lesson Observations Phase c</td>
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<tr>
<td>DLOd</td>
<td>Daphne Lesson Observations Phase d</td>
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<tr>
<td>ELOa</td>
<td>Electra Lesson Observations Phase a</td>
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<tr>
<td>ELOb</td>
<td>Electra Lesson Observation Phase b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELOc</td>
<td>Electra Lesson Observations Phase c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELOd</td>
<td>Electra Lesson Observations</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOa</td>
<td>General Observation a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOb</td>
<td>General Observation b</td>
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<tr>
<td>GOc</td>
<td>General Observation c</td>
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<tr>
<td>GOd</td>
<td>General Observation d</td>
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<td>Meeting Observation 2</td>
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<tr>
<td>MO3</td>
<td>Meeting Observation 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO4</td>
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Appendix 11

Interview feedback form

INTERVIEW FEEDBACK FORM

Section I: Interview data

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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date/Time:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section II: Procedural remarks

1. How well was the interview handled?
   a. Very well: All the objectives were attained; rapport was very good.
   b. Mostly well: All the objectives were attained despite some awkwardness
   c. Improvement is required: Most objectives were attained, but there were several instances of miscommunication, awkward moments of silence, etc.
   d. Badly: The interview was not conducted due to poor communication.
      Why?

2. How did I feel during the interview?

3. What was my impression of the interviewee?

4. What aspects of the interview went well?

5. What aspects of the interview could be improved? How?

6. Did the interviewee have any comments on the process?

7. Other comments:

Section III: Notes

8. a. Did the interviewee make any comments that were not recorded on the tape?

   b. Why was the interviewee reluctant to have these views recorder?
Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction

Herzberg’s two-factor theory (1966) is an important contribution to the conceptualisation of job satisfaction. In the two-factor theory, also known as Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, the American psychologist described two types of satisfaction factors; intrinsic and extrinsic. Factors such as personal development, responsibility, recognition and achievement, the work itself, are considered to be the intrinsic ones (motivators), as they can motivate an individual and can lead to satisfaction, but their absence does not lead to job dissatisfaction. Factors such as policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions and salary levels are the extrinsic factors (hygiene factors) also addressed as job dissatisfiers because they do not contribute to job satisfaction but, if they removed they will cause job dissatisfaction.

Transferring Hezberg's theory in educational settings, it could be said that pupils performance, teacher achievement, recognition from others, personal and professional development, positive relationship with peers, modifying pupils' attitudes in a positive way, being part in a supportive, collegial relationship are satisfier factors, intrinsic to teaching. The impact of educational reform agendas, low levels of support to teachers by the system to implement policy reforms, the diminishing status of teachers in society and their negative image as portrayed in the media, increased workload, new responsibilities for schools, poor administration, changes to promotion procedures, increased expectations on schools to find solutions for social problems are phenomena more extrinsic to teaching (Dinham and Scott, 2000).

Although Herzberg’s work has been challenged many times over the years due to his negligence to define the term satisfaction and recognise the ambiguity and complexity of the term, it has been generally confirmed and utilised in many research studies of teachers' job satisfaction (Hargreaves, 1994; Lortie, 1975; Sergiovanni, 1967). The reason why this theory is popular could be attributed not only to its simplicity and testability but also in its provision of two broad aspects of satisfiers and dissatisfiers as well as its applicability and transferability in different settings.

Evans (1997) addressed the concept of job satisfaction in a qualitative study designed to evaluate the morale and job satisfaction of teachers and respond to a previous study that questioned the applicability of Herzberg’s two-factor theory in education. Her main focus was the examination of satisfaction factors whereby the findings revealed a difference.
between factors the teachers were satisfied by and those they were satisfied with. She defined the former as the factors which teachers considered as fulfilling and motivating and the latter as the factors teachers regarded as acceptable but not fulfilling. Evans (2000) at a later stage referred to the dichotomy satisfied by/satisfied with as job fulfilment and job comfort. Specifically, she defined ‘job fulfillment’ as a ‘state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent of the sense of personal achievement which the individual attributes to her/his performance of those components of her/his job which she/he values’ (pp. 178-179) and ‘job comfort’ how satisfying a job is. The combination of these two components makes up the term job satisfaction which is being defined as ‘a state of mind determined by the extent to which the individual perceives her/his job-related needs to be being met’ (Evans, 1999, p. 6).

Nias (1981) was another researcher who tested the applicability of Herzberg’s theory outside a business setting and examined the applicability of the theory in education by interviewing and observing approximately 100 mid-careers primary school teachers; Herzberg’s theory was confirmed to some extent. ‘Being with children’ and ‘helping pupils learn’ were reported as the main sources of satisfaction which is consistent with Herzberg’s concept of satisfiers however, nearly one-fourth of the interviewees noted that they derived satisfaction from extrinsic factors such as the hours, holidays and the setting. These responses are not consistent with Herzberg’s conclusion that individuals do not derive satisfaction from extrinsic factors. In conclusion, Nias claims the only way for the Herzberg’s hypothesis to be supported in the education setting, many factors that have been regarded as extrinsic should probably be regarded as intrinsic. Evans (1998) questions the claims made by Nias (1981) by drawing attention to extrinsic factors that Nias considers to be satisfiers as these can be mistaken for actual factors the teachers found satisfactory or in Evans’ terms factors teachers were satisfied with but not satisfied by them. This confusion could have resulted by the fact that Herzberg did not provide a definition for job satisfaction or because of participants’ misunderstanding of the terminology used in the research instruments.