Greek Teachers' Perceptions of and Attitudes Towards Teacher Self-Evaluation

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ABSTRACT

This study contributes to understanding teacher self-evaluation as a learning experience by demonstrating how it is perceived, conceptualised and used in the Greek context. Such understanding forwards knowledge with regard to the evaluation of teachers. The research illuminates how features of teacher self-evaluation, such as unconscious thinking and deliberate thinking, can influence the development of understanding and teachers' sense of accountability. Interaction plays a vital role in this process. The study reaches such considerations through investigating the conduct of teacher self-evaluation in primary and nursery contexts, and the perceptions and attitudes of a stratified sample of Greek teachers in randomly selected geographical areas. The findings conclude that teacher self-evaluation, perceived as a personal professional activity and practised in ignorance of what is involved and in a non-supportive environment, provides minimal chances for teachers to realise the full learning potential of the self-evaluation process and the impact on teaching.

Teacher self-evaluation is explored by using an interpretative case study approach and methodological triangulation. Immersion in one primary and six nursery schools provided insights into teachers' self-evaluation behaviour and the implications for improvement of teaching and teacher learning. To address the meaning and value of teacher self-evaluation and its development, the purposes and perceived benefits as well as the processes, strategies and criteria used in its conduct were investigated. To limit the focus the impact of conditions on the conduct of teacher self-evaluation were examined at individual and school levels. Teacher self-evaluation, which is thought to impact heavily on improvement of teaching and teacher learning and development, was approached by examining some of its determinants, internal or external to the teacher, such as teacher disposition and collegial discourse and the ways these interrelated.

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DECLARATION

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

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ABBREVIATIONS

(in alphabetical order)

AO	Administration Officers
C	Circular
CG	Central Government
EA	Educational Adviser
LB	Local Borough
MoE	Ministry of Education and Religions
MP	Ministerial Provision
NC	National Curriculum
PD	Presidential Decree
PI	Pedagogic Institute

CHAPTER ONE
THE IMPETUS FOR THIS RESEARCH

This chapter introduces the study by explaining the background and development. It presents the research aims and questions, considers the relevance of the study to contemporary research regarding the evaluation of teachers and related issues. The structure of the thesis is also outlined.

BACKGROUND

As a practitioner I have experienced varying evaluation schemes while trying to improve my practice or when following directives. Inspectors evaluated me in my early teaching years. Then, as explained in chapter three, I was considered responsible for evaluating my teaching. Later I came across the evaluative procedures of the English appraisal scheme. In each of these evaluative contexts the same questions arose: How should I go about evaluating my practice? Who should set the criteria for my evaluation? How should data be gathered? Who should be informed of the outcomes? Who should I turn to for help and advice? What was the best course of action in my evaluation practice that would give me reassurance that I was doing my best?

It took me years to realise that I had to work with feelings of guilt and uncertainty and accept them as integral parts of my practice. It took me even longer to view my own reflections and the critique of my colleagues, pupils and parents as the ones that really mattered for my practice. For it was these reflections and critique that challenged my perceptions and beliefs, provided me with new learning and pushed me forwards to change and improve my teaching. This change in valuing my own self-evaluation was reinforced when studying for an MA in Evaluation and Assessment. MacBeath and colleagues (1996:11) quoted a phrase from an American document: "we must learn to measure what we value, rather than valuing what we can easily measure" which was striking for me and inspired a previous study on school self-evaluation (Ghoula, 1998). In that study I had the chance to examine a framework for self-evaluation and associated processes, study the implications for the education process and for individuals at institutional level. This experience raised my awareness of the opportunity self-evaluation offered for the development of understanding, thus for learning and development at personal and professional levels. I realised that while self-evaluation was a beneficial process that promoted development, the role of personal

experiences, perceptions and attitudes was crucial to evaluation processes and outcomes. For me it became clear that questioning beliefs about my teaching, while entertaining my own uncertainties resulted in improvement of my practice. I started to question whether other colleagues believed that evaluating one's teaching, and questioning underlying principles, were worthwhile and beneficial for their practice. After deliberate discussions with others I was left with the feeling that although my fellow Greek colleagues were self-evaluating their practice, the form, degree and depth of their evaluations varied considerably. This presented a challenge and a goal to pursue further.

I embarked on this research with the aim of disclosing the Greek teachers' experiences of and attitudes towards teacher self-evaluation. I was able to carry this out through educational leave granted by the Ministry of Education with no specified requirements regarding the way the study was to be conducted or the manner in which the findings were to be presented. As discussed in chapter four, this allowed me to reconsider some initial methodological decisions during the course of the study: one concerns the sample of schools studied. Conducting case studies in both primary and secondary contexts -as I had first planned- would have enabled the investigation of Greek teachers' self-evaluation practice in a wider range of settings adding detail and raising many kinds of issues related to teacher self-evaluation. For example, Nias and colleagues (1989) explored staff relationships and provided descriptions about the complex interactions between perceptions, values and teacher behaviour. They argued that the school culture impacted on the development of interpersonal skills and guided relationships among primary schools staff, in particular. This finding suggested that different school contexts fostered the development of different relations and provided different opportunities for reflection, discussion and critique. On the other hand, secondary schools are more academically oriented than primary schools (Hargreaves, 1994). This difference raises issues with regards educational orientations and their interrelationships with teacher self-evaluation. For instance, there are implications for self-evaluation processes, teacher learning and development. The pilot provided indications that secondary school teachers were more academically oriented compared to their primary colleagues and emphasised the need to use objective means in their self-evaluation practices. With the discovery of these emergent differences, and given the extensive period of time needed in the field to study thoroughly a variety of issues

related to self-evaluation, I decided to restrict the study to the primary/nursery sector. Focusing on contextual characteristics of schools that share more similarities than differences in terms of teachers' initial studies, in-service training, contact time, curriculum aims, school orientation and pupils' age, might facilitate a comparative analysis to feed into the development of theory. My teaching background and training has revolved around experiences in primary and nursery schools; this fact also influenced the decision to restrict the choice to this sector of schools. I assumed that the investigation of teachers in the primary/nursery sector was offering more chances of uncovering self-evaluation practices occurring in subtle, more informal ways and in naturalistic settings. Disclosing the ways that teachers come to an understanding and development of their teaching practice via self-evaluation was central to the aims of this research. These are presented below.

RESEARCH AIMS AND QUESTIONS

This study seeks to explore, in the case of Greek teachers, the rationale for teachers practising self-evaluation and its effect on the improvement of teaching and teachers' own learning and development. Teacher learning and development are related to practices such as teacher self-evaluation (Shulman, 1986; Smyth, 1988; Eraut, 1989; Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995; Reed & Street, 2002). Experiential knowledge fulfils an important role for understanding one's practice (Bredo, 1997; Elliott, 1993c). Such understanding is at the heart of teacher self-evaluation practice, since it guides teacher judgements, choices, decisions and actions. In this study I shall attempt to clarify why Greek teachers self-evaluate and how, what kind of support they get and what kind of constraints they experience. First, I explore the meaning teachers attach to the practice of teacher self-evaluation, by examining their conceptions of the purposes of their self-evaluation practice and the value they attach to it. Second, I investigate ways of conduct. In an attempt to understand these ways I explore the role of interaction and the extent to which it is significant for the successful practice of teacher self-evaluation, and also I examine similarities and differences in self-evaluation practice and associate them to factors, such as the particular setting, age of pupils, the curriculum and the subject teacher focus. Given this attention, I explore the contexts that frame this practice, thus examine the supports and constraints. For example, the organisation and management of schools or the strategies teachers used regarding teaching goals or achievement can

bring about consequences for the development of self-evaluation practice. How has self-evaluation practice developed during the years teachers were granted responsibility for evaluating their practice? What were the consequences for teacher learning and development and the improvement of the teaching practice? What was the impact of the policy, institutional and professional contexts on teachers' perceptions and practices of self-evaluation?

Examining the extent to which Greek schools in their current form and operation can support self-evaluation practice requires awareness and attention of ethical and political issues. House (1973) has argued strongly about the political dimension of evaluation activities. Action research theorists (e.g. Elliott, 1975; Dadds, 1995) have documented the role of perceptions, beliefs and feelings in teachers' evaluation activities and have highlighted the ethical dimension in the evaluation of teaching. I explore the role of politics and values on the conduct of teacher self-evaluation mainly in primary and nursery contexts and the implications for the improvement of teaching and teachers. I consider the opinions of secondary teachers in an attempt to extend understanding of the different ways and circumstances in which the practice of teacher self-evaluation may be promoted or hindered.

It should be noted that complete objectivity becomes a strenuous quest when observing, describing and analysing teacher activity. The interpretations involved assign a personal meaning to what is observed and described. Although it is hard to eliminate all value-judgements (Hammersly, 1990; Woods, 1994) objectivity was striven for during the data collection and analysis. Further, the exploratory nature of this study does not aim to test whether findings from previous research can be found in the context of these particular Greek primary and nursery schools. However, the detection and discussion of parallel findings will help contribute to their validity (or utility). Understanding is promoted by identifying how teacher self-evaluation is perceived, conceptualised and used. Identifying the conditions surrounding self-evaluation practice at individual and school levels reveals their interrelation to teaching and learning outcomes and assists in uncovering teacher attitudes towards teacher self-evaluation. Although the study is located in Greece, which historically, educationally, socio-politically and culturally varies from other countries, the implications drawn from this study could be of some relevance to others who are interested in the subject of teacher self-evaluation. It is by understanding how Greek teachers perceive and

experience self-evaluation and the implications for their teaching and development that others are reminded of their own practices, of the similarities and differences. Similarities were noticed among this research's findings and other studies (e.g. Elliott 1975; Freedman et al, 1988; Rosenholtz et al, 1986; Webb, 2001; Sawyer, 2001).

RATIONALE

The evaluation of teachers' work, as a group or as individuals, involves methodological, political and ethical issues and relates closely to other areas of educational concern, such as the curriculum or the change process. The focus of writers has been in identifying the role of evaluation in curriculum and professional development and learning (Stenhouse, 1975; Eisner, 1985; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Madaus et al, 1991) and the link with accountability to conceptions of evaluation that support learning processes, improvement and development of teachers and schools (Smyth, 1991; Elliott, 1983, 1989; Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Watkins et al, 2002). Such conceptions view teaching as a profession of unique expertise or of special art (Schon, 1987; Woods, 1996; Shulman 2001), which necessitates a transfer of power to teachers and schools to bring about sustainable learning outcomes (Apple, 1996; MacBeath et al, 1996; Elliott, 1998). Such conceptions stress the need for teachers' active engagement in the evaluation process. Self-evaluation, whether referring to individual or group processes, is grounded in such engagement to improve teaching and learning, to forward professional learning and development and to satisfy accountability demands (McCormick, 1982; Adelman & Alexander, 1982; Clift et al, 1987; Reed & Street, 2002). It is a fact that many decisions that teachers make require evaluation, so this research starts from the premise that teachers engage in a more or less continuous process of evaluation. Teachers are considered as competent professionals able to give reasons for their decisions and actions and are expected to be introspective and capable of disclosing how objective their perceptions of self-evaluation are. The study is based on the view that making sense occurs in practical, quotidian and often tacit ways; that interpretation is achieved through one's inner world as this is situated in a specific social context (Rogoff, 1990; Resnick, 1991). Teaching is "discipline-specific, age-specific and to some extent, context-specific" (Shulman, 2001:11).

The way teachers self-evaluate are influenced by the dynamic interrelationship of the personal and the contextual. Schon (1983) has discussed how a reflective practitioner reaches understanding of her professional situation. His descriptions point to the value and worth of self-judgements, also to the role of individual characteristics and context in their formation. Kremer-Hayon (1993) has outlined the importance of specific characteristics of the self-evaluating teacher, which include attitudinal dimensions such as cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects. This means that the recognition of the value of self-evaluation, the willingness to engage and the actual engagement in self-evaluation activities are considered fundamental. A characteristic of self-evaluating practitioners is their awareness and distinction of their reactions to their daily encounters, including their responsiveness to teaching problems. She describes two contrasting ways of reacting. Some teachers who favour the 'by you' approach consider school problems 'light-heartedly' and often disassociate their professional role from their solution. This approach results in disengagement and diffusion of responsibilities. Teachers who favour the 'through you' approach embrace and consider the application of solutions to problems raised from teaching practice as their responsibility. They are committed, deeply engaged and accept problem solving as their responsibility. To this effect a factor identified as important is teachers' sense of accountability; another factor is teachers' awareness of the dynamics that occur as a result of developmental trends, for instance, their particular understanding of the implications of career cycles on teaching. For these reasons she stresses, like others (e.g. Day, 1990; Airasian & Gullickson, 1997), the role of teachers' pedagogical knowledge, including the theoretical aspects of educational evaluation and the acquisition of self-evaluation tools and ways of using them. The conditions surrounding the school environment influence the particular approaches that are adopted; a non-supportive school environment could cause disengagement and feelings of being used.

Elliott (1983) has offered a categorisation of self-evaluation practices: unreflective self-evaluation, self-evaluation as practical deliberation and self-evaluation as explicit knowledge of technical rules. He describes the first type (unreflective self-evaluation) as based on tacit practical knowledge. This presupposes that teachers possess and exhibit practical knowledge and have the capacity to evaluate their own decisions and actions and their fit for particular circumstances without implying that they are able to justify their evaluative judgements with reference to the principles

underlying them. He describes the second type (self-evaluation as practical deliberation) as exercised when teachers' practical knowledge does not sufficiently produce a solution to a problem, that is, when no exact rules or principles can be applied. An ethical dimension characterises teachers' deliberate thinking when choosing voluntarily to search for the appropriate means to match an end under specific circumstances. A degree of personal judgement is involved which necessitates the outcomes of deliberation to be open to critique to facilitate and advance teachers' understanding of specific situations. As for the third type of self-evaluation, he argues that this is based on teachers' explicit knowledge of technical rules. Teachers rely on exact rules and principles when checking their own activities.

An issue raised by such categorisation is the extent to which formality influences the practice of teacher self-evaluation. Teacher self-evaluation carried out through well-planned and well-structured processes may justify its functioning and existence (Kremer-Hayon, 1993); however, attaching formality to such processes may be incompatible with the nature of self-evaluation (O'Hanlon, 1993). Increasing teachers' technical efficiency and control over their own evaluation may not result in better self-evaluation practices. Elliott (1983) argues that it does not ensure the development of teachers' capacity for making reflective decisions. The differences in personal experiences, the complexity of teaching itself and the influence of context may result in a gap between what is attempted and its actual outcome (Tuohy, 1994).

The study explores the connections between elements at different levels of the system and the relationships among them that affect teachers' understanding and practice of self-evaluation. Giddens's (1984) contention that systems operate not solely as constraints on human agency but may also constitute enabling conditions for exercising a certain kind of agency is an important premise of this research. The 'cultural' and 'competence' factors that Elliott (1994) has identified as important for self-evaluation practice, and which may hinder or even distort it, are of special interest in the context of this study. 'Evaluation' has only recently been considered as a subject to be taught in Greek teacher training and is rarely discussed in in-service training courses; the majority of teachers may well be unaware of the self-evaluation methodology and issues important to educational evaluation.

The next section presents how the thesis is organised.

STRUCTURE

Chapter one has introduced the impetus for this study and the insights that gave rise to its development. The research aims and questions were described along with the study's relevance to discussions on the evaluation of teachers. A critical review of the literature referring to the evaluation of teachers is offered in chapter two. The uses of evaluation as a means of enhancing decision-making and/ or understanding, and for control purposes (Harland, 1996) are examined. The focus is on teacher self-evaluation. The importance of promoting evaluation schemes that allow teachers to be accountable while fostering the improvement of teaching and learning outcomes and assisting teacher development is considered fundamental. The literature review helps to identify and clarify the research aims; as well as to reflect and specify decisions made on the research methodology.

Chapter three outlines the context of the research, presenting the Greek education system and analysing evaluation issues, policy and practice. Relevant legislation is discussed in relation to developments from research in the field of evaluation. Chapter four presents the research methodology that is employed, discussing the research decisions and procedures and the principles that were followed.

In chapters five and six the data from the interviews and observations of teachers in one primary and six nursery schools is analysed and reported to answer the research questions of why and how teachers self-evaluate. In chapter seven the research questions are further addressed by analysing the findings of a postal survey that was delivered to teachers in the primary and secondary sectors of education. Chapter eight analyses all findings, detecting critical issues, similarities and differences across cases. It describes the implications of Greek teachers' self-evaluation practice, and explores and reconsiders this practice in the light of relevant literature. This undertaking is concluded by comments on the whole process and outcomes, which are drawn together in chapter nine. Suggestions based on the findings are articulated.

CHAPTER TWO

IDENTIFYING THE FIELD OF TEACHER EVALUATION

This chapter reviews literature relevant to the study's aims and the questions it seeks to answer, so that they can be understood and justified, while the research design can also be reconsidered. The meaning of teacher self-evaluation is conceptualized and the worth of this practice is discussed in terms of important issues.

EVALUATION AND SELF-EVALUATION

Many writers have tried to identify what makes good teaching (e.g. Mortimore et al, 1988; Creemers, 1994; Scheerens, 1992). 'Good' teaching is more than measures of students' performance. Students need to be taught to learn how to learn. Teachers need to deal successfully with other issues, such as curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation (Shulman, 2001; Iwanicki, 2001), organisational and management factors (Blase & Anderson, 1995) and other dimensions, such as perceptions and biographies and the varied expectations of different audiences (Holly, 1989). However, the control of such issues is often orchestrated beyond teachers who are left with a minor role when making decisions about them (Sarason, 1971; Smyth, 1988). All have their share in successful teaching. Notably, there are variations of 'good' teachers created out of different visions pursued over time and a prudent solution might be to seek to develop many kinds of teachers (Cruickshank & Haefele, 2001). Nonetheless, who ought to decide what kind of teaching is 'good'? Who should evaluate teachers' work? Is it wiser for practitioners to judge themselves, or are there others who know and could judge teaching better? Answers to such questions are not simple. They depend on what one considers 'good' teaching; this subsequently determines one's view about its evaluation.

Smyth (1988:47-8) tends to sum up the tensions that exist in the variety of standpoints taken: "at different times and in different places persistent contradictions have characterised the debate over the evaluation of teachers' work; over bureaucratic control versus the dialectic of power; over the concept of teachers as workers versus teachers as professionals; over conception versus execution of teaching; and over the resurgence of managerial notions of accountability". The distinction made by Scriven (1967) between summative and formative purposes of evaluation reveals the different

concerns and emphases driving evaluation. The line of thought, the focus and the means to achieve these purposes vary among writers. For instance, school effectiveness research focuses on ways that quality and efficiency could be maintained in schools; the belief is that agencies external to the school can detect effective practices and if these practices are applied, effective change can occur (Sammons, Hillman & Mortimore, 1995). School improvement research emphasises a process-oriented evaluation through an analysis of practice; value is placed on bottom-up changes to induce improvement and development (Adelman & Alexander, 1982; Elliott, 1983; Simons, 1987; Clift, Nuttall & McCormick, 1987). Self-evaluation is seen as a force for improvement and development of students, teachers and schools (Hopkins, 1989; White, 1997; MacBeath, 1999). The belief is that teachers and students create a unique context that affects the conduct of teaching, the decision-making process and the resulting learning. Research has described the impact that teachers and schools have on student's learning (e.g. Rutter et al, 1979; Fitz-Gibbon, 1992; Thomas et al, 1999). The evaluation activity ought to focus on learning (Iwanicki, 2001; Reed & Street, 2002). In teaching contexts learning works both ways: besides students, teachers learn also what, when and how, works best for their teaching practice. The self-evaluation activity, as part of a continuous process of renewal and development, provides a basis for teachers to use this learning to make informed choices and decisions. Such decisions are more likely to bring about change and lead to improvement (Elliott, 1998; Sawyer, 2001).

The issue is whether teachers can evaluate their own teaching adequately. This issue seems to be one of validity or -from another perspective- of utility that relates to the ethics (Elliott, 1983) and politics (House, 1973) of evaluation. Can a teacher act as the judge and the jury? (Nuttall, 1981). What is the hidden agenda? (Smyth, 1991). Is it better if external teams (e.g. inspectors), or a combination of external with internal evaluators (e.g. staff appraisal interview, peer review) evaluate teachers, or should teachers be trusted and supported in evaluating their own work? Exploring the terms evaluation, teacher evaluation, teacher self-evaluation and reflective practice as used in the relevant literature and other cognate topics helps clarify these questions and highlight their relevance to this study.

Stake (1989:14) conceives *evaluation* as "a process of judgement" leading to decisions; the methods to reach this judgement can involve the use of different criteria and standards, disciplined introspection or subjective data. *Teacher evaluation* for

Shinkfield and Stufflebeam (1995:86) is "the systematic assessment of a teacher's performance and /or qualifications in relation to the teacher's defined professional role and the school district's mission". Teacher evaluation is not about judging teachers' personalities, or styles of teaching, but the way teachers carry out the defined assignments of their role. Stake (1989:13) agrees with this definition; he stresses that it should occur only when it promotes education. Scriven (1994) similarly argues that teacher duties ought to be the content of evaluation. Authors stress that teachers' performance should be judged in teachers' natural settings and are qualitatively assessed (Elliott, 1989; Adelman, 1989). Airasian and Gullickson (1997:viii) define *teacher self-evaluation* as a "process in which teachers make judgements about the adequacy and effectiveness of their own knowledge, performance, beliefs, or effects for the purposes of self-improvement". For Elliott (1994:6) *teacher self-evaluation* is an activity not separate to teaching but "a particular mode of teaching which operates at the level of discursive consciousness", "a form of moral/ social discourse, (which) involves the generation and testing of action hypotheses about which a course of action in the situation is ethically consistent with one's educational ideas and values". He stresses that teaching competence and methodological competence (as self-evaluators) should not be construed separately. All these definitions imply that reflective enquiry is part of the evaluation process. Schon (1983:299) regards *reflective practice* as an engagement "in a continuous process of self-education" in which the practitioner is a researcher-in-practice and is renewed through such practice. Smyth (1991:109) explains that reflection should not be seen as "passive deliberation or contemplation" but as "active and militant... concerned with infusing action with a sense of powers and politics... which reintroduces into the discourse about teaching and schooling a concern for the 'ethical, personal and political'.

Each conception highlights important aspects concerning the evaluation of teachers. The evaluation of teachers ought to aim to advance teacher understanding and promote learning in the setting, to base judgements on defined professional assignments and to consider situational data and experiences. The evaluation of teachers is about trusting professional judgements, understanding the value for learning that the process of evaluating unique situations can bring for teachers and teaching, and facilitating teachers to use this learning to improve. Teacher self-evaluation offers opportunities for these to happen. It is concerned with evaluating or judging the 'worth' or 'value' of

one's performance in a particular situation in search for the strengths and weaknesses of one's practice for the purposes of learning, improvement and development. It is not only an exploration of perceived problems arising out of particular situations and in need of solutions but also an investigation of beliefs and their relationship to practice. Through the self-reflective process, each evaluated situation provides an opportunity for new learning and therefore for self-education.

In teacher self-evaluation the producer and the receiver of the evaluative information is the teacher; "individual self-evaluation is a process of finding out about and judging one's own activities for one's own purposes" (Adelman & Alexander, 1982:24). The teacher decides how, when, with whom to share her thinking and evaluative comments and how to disseminate the evaluative information she gathers. This raises issues, for instance, that concerning the management of power in accountability relationships, of the implied self-criticism and of outcomes, which is knowledge that affects decision-making. The way such knowledge is used and the power to act on the learning outcomes are crucial issues in self-evaluation practice. Teachers have to cope with feelings of threat and tensions related to networks of power or professional relationships (Nunan & Lamp, 1996). Besides, evaluation entails human judgements, which, as expressions of personal value, as ethical statements rooted in experience, cannot be reduced to rules or defined as true or false (Adelman & Alexander, 1982; Wiggins, 1989). That is why the self-evaluation process must be seen as opportunity for professional growth (Simons, 1987) and judgements must be kept 'open' and 'checked' through dialogue or 'reflective discourse', first with oneself and then with others (Adelman, 1989; Burgess, 1989; Elliott, 1993c; Smith, 1993). The dialogue can serve to open up 'the lens of reference' each one holds; positive perceptions and feelings facilitate viewing reality from another perspective (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995; Murphy, 1996). This view allows one to question thinking, to renew and develop it and to justify or validate judgements (Moyles, 1988; James, 1989). When teachers' own understanding of their situation is sharpened, clarified and extended their evaluations have better chances of becoming more accurate. Further, political, personal and professional interests and assumptions can be questioned through interaction with others. Such interests and assumptions need attention (Shipman 1983; Smyth, 1991; Eraut 1994).

The meaning of teacher self-evaluation as used in this study, the purposes driving the evaluation of teachers and their relation to the self-evaluation process are now examined.

EVALUATION OF TEACHERS: PURPOSES

The review of the literature shows that the evaluation of teachers serves purposes of accountability, learning, improvement and development, conceived to be neither rigid nor exclusive of one another. The different functions of evaluation relate to different modes of investigation and are useful to different decision situations (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995). At the level of the teacher, evaluation needs actively and purposefully to focus on learning, which in turn provides the ground for satisfying accountability demands, improvement and development.

The association of inspection systems to the evaluation of teacher performance against external criteria followed the attempts of appraisal schemes to serve simultaneously accountability, improvement and development purposes. It has been argued that the evaluation of teachers in such schemes is conceived within a commercial and managerial perspective (Smyth, 1988; Eraut, 1989; Burgess, 1989) primarily devised for administration control (Adelman, 1989; Winter, 1989) and accountability purposes (House & Lapan, 1989). Learning, improvement and development seem to be conceived as add-ons included in the schemes' rationale to justify a broad perspective, or as a defence to alternative views. A conception of evaluation that focuses on under-performance and predetermined standards, presents a limited view of the teaching situation that does not adequately address the supports or constraints on action (Winter, 1989; Darling-Hammond, 1997). It fosters the assumption that pressures and measures on teachers and schools would make teachers accountable and induce improvement and development (Adams & Burgess, 1989). However, pressures and measures may act as barriers in teaching and hinder development (Carr & Kemmis 1989; Smyth, 1989). For instance, loss of one's labour control combined with increasing measures to maximise performance may cause caring and knowledgeable individuals to become alienated from their work, and weaken their sense of responsibility (Apple & Teitelbaum, 1986; Eraut, 1994; Apple 1996). Such teachers can easily give the impression that they lack willingness and capacity. This may not be a personal matter but rather reflect "a failure of the system to grapple with and confront contradictory demands" (Freedman et al,

1988:61). These demands may have arisen out of officially promoted ideal types, such as a type of school or teacher. For instance, Gani (1999) examined Greek teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards the 'whole-day' (oloemero) school (a newly introduced type of school that extends pupils' attendance time through a range of learning activities). She found that although the majority of teachers held a positive attitude towards such schools, their answers on substantive questions (e.g. need for training) had no relevance and logical consistency among them. She concluded that this inconsistency demonstrated "the 'schizophrenia' that shows in the field of teachers" (ibid:33). She compared these findings with research data she collected two decades ago, and noticed a change for the worse in teachers' perceptions with regard to their sense of professional responsibility, their professional expectations and willingness for training. Eraut (1994) argues that the internalised norms of the profession create a form of 'professional conscience'. He argues that this is based not on 'working realities' but on the profession's preferred view of itself. He notes that this results in guilt in conscientious individuals who realise that they cannot exhibit the 'ideal type' at work, or the impact might act reversibly, as 'cover your back' against liability or criticism. This becomes worse if the profession's claims are taken for granted and espoused capabilities dealt as reality (ibid:227).

The issue of teacher accountability becomes acute with such observations. However, there is accountability for teachers' performance but also accountability for the support given to teachers. The performance effects (e.g. teachers meeting a target) need equal attention, and consideration, with the design effects (e.g. the system's contribution to such achievement) in the evaluation of teachers' work (Smyth, 1991). Acknowledgement of the right of stakeholders (e.g. officials and parents) to check via evaluation whether socially desirable outcomes are produced in schools ought to simultaneously recognise their share of responsibility in these outcomes. One group has an obligation to account to others (McIntyre, 1989; MacBeath, 1999) but power relationships influence the actions and development of group members (Burgess, 1989; Winter, 1989). Teaching should be judged after careful consideration of the factors that define, steer and affect this obligation while sensitively considering the context as experienced by the teacher. Such judgements ought to be considered valid (Stake, 1989; Elliott, 1989). An evaluation that works only one way by holding teachers accountable for limited measurable outcomes, and without giving them a voice and power over

important decisions, represents a 'bureaucratic model of educational improvement' (Darling-Hammond, 1990). Such a model raises issues of fairness (Norris, 1990) and may easily result in restraining teachers from reflecting in creative and critical ways (Darling-Hammond, 1990; Stoll & Fink, 1996). It considers teachers as 'the tool' to overcome economic problems (Smyth, 1991) which can have negative effects on teachers and hinder learning and development.

However, one evaluation cannot serve all goals (Nevo, 2001). In the education of pupils there are expectations to be fulfilled, resources to be secured, consequences to be dealt with long after pupils complete their schooling. Having the same person conduct both formative and summative evaluations may 'present problems' (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995:378). In the context of this research, evaluation is explored at the personal and professional levels. The emphasis is placed on formative evaluation, which is regarded as an integral part of educational practice and an ongoing learning process that is improvement oriented. Formative evaluation refers to the selection of suitable information for systematic review, aiming at showing teachers how to change and develop. In such evaluation feedback plays a central role. Feedback must be seen as a reciprocal flow of information that can cause and result in learning (Senge, 1990). This means that the evaluated situation should not be seen as static, isolated and with a definite end. The continuous feedback teachers get in their daily interactions challenges their understanding and offers potential for continuous and unexpected learning. This requires teacher self-evaluation practice to be an ongoing activity, determines its formative nature and makes it an integral part of teaching. Freedom to make choices is important in this context (Elliott, 2000) since it reflects the 'autonomy' element that nourishes self-respect (Meyers, 1989), empowers teachers in the evaluation process and offers possibilities for attachment, self-awareness and critical thinking. Such components forward the restructuring of teachers' understanding during the course of teaching and learning, which gives a developmental character to teacher self-evaluation. Moreover, the acknowledged interrelation of the personal and the contextual can provide teachers with knowledge to become wiser and help others grow. This assigns an improvement orientation to self-evaluation practice.

The evaluation of teachers should be regarded as a means of maintaining effectiveness and efficiency only when it promotes teacher's learning. The focus of evaluation ought to be on the learning value of its processes and on the need to assist

teachers to see the merit of questioning and judging their own learning (Watkins et al 2002; Watkins, 2003) without neglecting to critically respond to accountability pressure. Sustained improvement and development can depend on whether evaluation is meaningful, useful and fair to teachers, as well as, it aims for social utility. Teacher self-evaluation conceived as an "instrument...to improve performance" can be also "a way of addressing demands of accountability" (Norris, 1990:140). For example, according to Becker, Eraut and Knight's (1981) description of accountability, teachers who self-evaluate to advance students' progress in learning exhibit moral responsibility towards pupils, parents, and society; by questioning the principles of the teaching profession, they exhibit professional accountability; and by acting according to their duties they show accountability towards their employers and to society for the education of its young.

Stenhouse (1983) has argued a strong case for giving primacy to teacher judgements. The shift from a passive to an active role advances teachers' control over the perceived needs of their situation without excluding their responsibility to demonstrate accountability. This shift also allows a questioning of power relations affecting practice and extends teachers' awareness about their learning and development. Teacher self-evaluation, conceived as a merging of values and feelings to actions, can serve the retroactive outcome of self-evaluation that can satisfy accountability demands, while its formative functioning, as proactive processes undertaken for learning, can facilitate development. Reed & Street (2002:5) identify learning as a purpose of evaluation arguing "school evaluation will not become truly school self-evaluation until it fully enables learning and meta learning to become a more conscious, consistent and deliberate aspect of its process". This applies to teacher evaluation. Teachers need to be engaged in processes of reflective and reflexive questioning. Reflective thinking is fundamental: it allows "the recognition of error, with its resulting uncertainty, (to) become a source of discovery rather than self-defence" (Schon, 1983:299). Reflexivity is crucial too: it assists one not just to consider the implications of the consequences of one's own action in a specific context but to understand one's own 'actions and knowing' (Witkin, 1977:33). An evaluation process aimed at learning and development ought to protect teachers from reaching self-defensive or self-delusive behaviours that distort the need for self-expression. A break of trust, for instance, may drive one to a self-defensive position, or uncertainty about

one's impact on outcomes may affect a conscious and willing improvement of practice. It ought to assist teachers to challenge their conscience, compare promoted ideal types with their experiences and question policy principles related to their judgements. It is the learning that emerges from such processes that can provide teachers with a better chance to reveal the 'ideal' and the 'real' in their situation, makes it valuable and necessary, and reassures that essential cues are provided for teaching improvement. Conceiving the evaluation process this way demands to accept teachers as responsible practitioners, to respect and trust their judgements and support them to develop understanding. Assigned responsibility should not be equated with accepted and felt responsibility; feeling responsible refers to an internally perceived need, not to an externally imposed one. Felt responsibility can lead to commitment and development (Rozenholtz, 1990; Day, 1990).

Teacher self-evaluation, conceived as a self-developing professional system that serves teacher autonomy, knowledge and professionalism (Norris, 1990), places the locus of accountability at the personal and professional levels. Its purposes include: increased personal and collegial responsibility for teacher's own and students' learning, intrinsic motivation for improving teaching and critical dialogue with peers and others for personal learning, professional improvement and development. The learning or educative role of evaluation (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Reed & Street, 2002) requires attention to the form and uses of self-evaluation based on the way teachers construct and reconstruct meaning in social contexts and on the conditions required for its success. The following section discusses the relationship of teacher self-evaluation to learning; at its heart are knowledge, reflection, interpretation and understanding and their connection to teacher and pupil development and school improvement.

SELF-EVALUATION AND LEARNING

The literature review on learning theory indicates different perspectives about what learning is or how it happens. Learning viewed as an individual phenomenon (e.g. cognitivists) or a social act (e.g. situational learning theorists), dependent upon something being done to the learner or accomplished by the learner (Philips & Soltis, 1998) implies that thinking consists of clearly related logical ideas or that it is a process of a person's beliefs, decisions and actions (Olson, 1997). Bredo (1997:39) suggests "conceptions of learning are both socially constructed and socially constructive" which

can explain why teachers' thinking and learning has been perceived as simple or complex, as involving acquisition of knowledge or mastery of skills, occurring with or without help. It can justify the multiple perspectives in the evaluation of teachers.

The view that predetermined rules and procedures can facilitate teachers' problem solving, and assist their quest for learning, stems from the view that regards knowledge as static and being composed of true facts. Elliott (1998) notes that this view considers thinking as passive speculation and reflection as a matter of copying the established features of objects in order to acquire knowledge; this way theory production becomes disassociated from practical judgement and the practical activity considered as not producing knowledge. Such a view is challenged by another that sees theory and practice as inseparable: judgement and decision-making in the practical activity is producing knowledge that is open to redefinition and reflective thought is a search for understanding experience and deciding for intelligent actions (Elliott, 1998). Learning occurs when a problem arises and a solution is found. The individual has to clearly formulate the problem; examine its elements and choose what is useful and relevant; then draw on prior knowledge and connect it with his own situation; hypothesise and put solutions to the test (Schon, 1987; Bredo, 1997; Olson, 1997; Elliott, 1998; Hudson, 2002). Ross (1993:284), based on Aristotle's thinking (Appendix 4), formulates the process of thinking to action as 'will' (epethemia: επιθυμία) leading to 'thinking' (skepse: σκέψη), then to 'perception' (adelepse: αντίληψη), then to 'proairesis' (proerese: προαίρεση) and ending in 'action' (praxis: πράξη). In this formulation when an individual wants thing 'A', he thinks about 'B' as the means to achieve 'A', 'C' as the means to achieve 'B' and so on. Then the individual perceives that 'B' or 'C' (and so on) offer possibilities for action at a specific point of time and place. The individual chooses to select 'B' or 'C' and then puts in action 'B' or 'C'. This process highlights the role of meaning in problem solution: solution comes only if the problem and the ingredients of its solution are meaningful to the individual. Also, the teacher interest to solve the problem is central in the development of understanding and hence in the emergence of new learning (Phye, 1997; Philips & Soltis, 1998). Elliott (1993c) notes that interests in realising values condition understanding, making teacher judgements and decisions not simply technical but ethical in character and the standards employed dependent on consciousness.

Notably, teachers embedded in social networks and faced with complex information have to respond to different and often diverse meanings, and to make intellectual connections in practical situations that can be problematic and loaded with value issues and dilemmas resistant to clear solutions (Elliott, 1998). They have to construct and reconstruct the way they make sense of their teaching. For Kelly (1963:120) a construct is not a reality but an 'abstraction', this means "a property attributed to several events", while interpretation and interaction are vital ingredients in the process of changing it. His theory of Personal Constructs implies that the development of understanding is dependent upon the way the evaluated situation is constructed, and significant elements associated to particular purposes/ circumstances are interpreted. Elliott (1993a) stresses that personal constructions shape, and are shaped by, teachers' acts, which as personal constructions refer to qualities of value concepts, manifested or not in available evidence. Personal constructions are a synthesis of a meaningful whole; they form a personal theory. O'Hanlon (1993:246) notes that teachers develop a personal "informed theory which forms the basis of professional confidence with its confirmation in action". Such theory is based on formal knowledge of principles and the empirical knowledge of facts (Hayson, 1985; Day, 1990; Schon, 1991; Elliott, 1993c). This theory is informed by the content of knowledge (the 'knowing what'), the ways and forms in which it is acquired and used (the 'knowing how') and situational knowledge (the 'knowing with') (Shulman, 1986; Kremer-Hayon, 1990; Hudson, 2002). One's personal theory reflects the way one understands one's own practice, thus a task of one's self-evaluation is to surface and question knowledge that is tacit. Such knowledge is common sense information from personal experimentation, is useful and powerful and used even if it might have little connection with teachers' formal knowledge (Elliott, 1983; Lambert, 1984). Schon (1983, 1987) has discussed the way professionals make sense of the subtleties that occur in their particular situation and arrive at informed decisions by making connections. He indicated why reflection is valuable: it allows individuals to construct new theories out of unique cases. Garrison (1999) notes that for Dewey, all thinking is 'self-reflective'.

Elliott (1993c:198) distinguishes two forms of action-oriented reflection: one serves a technical interest, the other serves a practical interest; interest refers "to contexts of human action, such as predicting and controlling their consequences, or ensuring their fidelity to the values one is committed to". According to Elliott, teachers

who use reflection to serve a technical interest employ 'clear and unambiguous standards' that are 'impersonal' since they refer to 'means-ends rules'; they use instrumental thinking. The implication for their self-evaluation is that such thinking urges teachers to adopt a 'by-you' approach to teaching (Kremer-Hayon, 1993). Such thinking disassociates one from acknowledging personal responsibility in the progress of learning and avoids teaching creatively and being critical about one's own contribution to practice. For Elliott (1993c:198) however, teachers, who use reflection to satisfy a practical interest, view the standards they employ as 'intrinsically problematic' and consider themselves as the source of these standards; they use 'critical self-reflection'. This allows them to adopt the 'through-you' approach to teaching (Kremer-Hayon, 1993) which involves accepting responsibility for their teaching, questioning critically and searching actively for ways to understand better and bring progress to their practice. Questioning practice critically means questioning thoughts and intentions, contrasting guesses, hunches hypotheses, and convictions with attitudes, that is, beliefs and feelings. This permits teachers to understand the meaning they attach to their interpretations, since meaning "refers to intention whether in action or in speech" (Olson, 1997:496). A systematic thinking upon their knowledge and intuitive reasoning (including the assessment of similarities and differences between their formal and informal, past and current knowledge) and the synthesis of these into a new perspective, allows teachers to become 'good thinkers' without having to be 'rational' or 'logical'. For Aristotle, 'what reason asserts is what desire pursues" (Garrison, 1999:297) and individuals act based on their capacity of 'correct thinking' (phronesis) for themselves and for others (Ross, 1993; Dune, 1993; Pelegrinis, 2001). This capacity for 'correct thinking' provides the basis for what authors (Phye, 1997; Olson, 1997) have termed 'meta-cognitive' awareness and allows teachers to oversee and regulate their learning.

Besides, it is 'phronesis' that allows self-evaluating teachers to exhibit personal virtues, that is, to exhibit their virtue of character: virtues designate a moral character to their doings. For Aristotle, personal virtues concern feelings and actions; virtues relevant in the case of action, as this is expressed in the self-evaluation activity, are wisdom (σωφροσύνη:sofrosene), truth (ἀλήθεια:alethia) and magnanimity (μεγαλοψυχία: megalopsechia) (in Nicomachean Ethics:1108a30-b6 and Ethical Efdemia:3, 7). Magnanimity when expressed in action reveals one's claim for honour

(respect) while the truth in social relations reveals what is considered truthful (Ross, 1993:288). A wise and magnanimous (respectful) action comes by teachers judging their situation after considering the limitations of their thought and the influences of the different elements in their environment, by exposing their thoughts and taking into account the judgement of others. In this way, teachers' actions reflect the virtue to act truthfully and wisely while being respectful to their own selves and others when making the best possible decisions under their circumstances. Advocates of regimes of external accountability tend to diminish the role of virtues by assuming that teachers may not, or cannot, be virtuous in the case of their own evaluations. This, while it disregards teachers' basic right to reflect and make sense of their experience, raises issues of respect and trust. If teachers cannot be respected for wise action, and be trusted as having the capacity to evaluate the way they make sense of their teaching, then, there is a question of the role they are called to fulfil with their teaching. Such a role is passive as I explain in the section on identity; practitioners are assigned a technical role (Habermas, 1976) that conceives learning as explicitly impersonal (Salmon, 1988; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Bowring-Carr &West-Burnham, 1997).

The relation of critical thinking to beliefs connects to Aristotle's association of reason to desire. Feeling and values condition the process of reflection and the interpretations made (Witkin, 1977; Dadds, 1993; Garrison, 1999). Garrison (1999) says that for Dewey, when feelings and values are in conflict with concrete practical situations that demand solutions, they become open to revision and reconstruction. Reflecting upon criteria used for judgements, searching for their origin and connecting them with some social frame of reference, allow understanding the ethical consistency of the values that define the ends to the decisions taken. Elliott (1993c:202) stresses that when teachers use reflection, there exists a "connection between the personal, the practical problematic and the critical in the reflective process" they adopt. Such points indicate the provisional character of teachers' learning and the possibilities it offers for change. Every time teachers reflect on practice (e.g. on strategies employed) they clarify and develop their conceptions, thus become aware of new strategic possibilities (Elliott, 1993b). Reflection raises teachers' awareness of the meanings given to situations; this allows justifying why their preferred interpretations make better sense than others do (Elliott, 1993c). Such justification (or practical judgement) is distinct from offering a rational explanation, which implies an understanding with no moral

judgement. Such justification can include a search for understanding how the 'knowing' of the action differentiates from the action (Witkin, 1977). Such understanding empowers teachers since it enables them to distinguish what is 'good' (or 'legitimate') for them from that of others. To be able to do this, teachers need to realise the temporal nature of their interpretations and decisions, that these are processes that inform one another, which enables them to improve the quality of their decisions (Elliott, 1993a).

The discussion so far has provided indications that reflecting on practice is not always all that is needed to induce improvement. The personal, temporal and provisional nature of understanding resulting from reflection cannot eliminate the possibility of perceiving erroneously the situation, which in turn would affect judgement and decision-making (McLaughlin, 1999). This in combination with the influence of the surrounding context might result in reflections that provide a preferred image of one's own actions. Such issues highlight the importance of shared learning. It is the relationship of teacher self-evaluation and situated learning that is discussed next and the crucial role of the social environment in the understanding teachers develop and the way learning evolves.

TEACHER SELF-EVALUATION and SITUATED LEARNING

A genuine inquiry that allows learning and development to occur together fosters reflective practice and values situational understanding (Elliott, 1993a). Situated learning theorists place due emphasis on the social activity which permits identifying the origins of reflective thinking without presupposing the content and processes of higher order thinking. Thinking is a form of acting and learning is "collaborative and meaningfully related to the activities of others", thus their proper functioning is radically dependent on the acted situation (Bredo, 1997:31). In this view, teachers are seen as active social actors, located in a specific point in time and space, acting upon their environment but at the same time being influenced by it.

Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that learning is embedded in the activity, is not an isolated or special event, but occurs continuously since it is located in processes of co-participation and not in the individual's head; therefore, it is expedient to the different perspective of co-participants. This implies that learning concerns the

improvement of predefined tasks, defines one's future role performance, and contributes to the performance of others in the activity. Bredo (1997:36) says that Vygotsky with his conceptualisation of the zone of proximal development implies that the 'only good learning' that strengthens growth is the individual learning that is situated "in the context of an evolving role in a social activity" while the social activity is itself "situated in an evolving form of social life"; this also implies a link between learning and development. Bredo (1997:34) notes also that Dreyfus views people as flexible and able to make the situation what they want it to be. For Dreyfus notes Elliott (1993a:72-4), situational understanding involves four mental capacities: the recognition of the situation's components, the differentiation of relevant components and their synthesis into a whole and the decision making of the appropriate strategies for action. The development of these abilities depends upon the teacher's experiences.

Teacher self-evaluation is best understood from such theoretical perspectives on learning and development that suggest that the reflective thought can surface, be questioned and acted upon, without attaching a specific content or form to it. Such perspectives illustrate that learning and development are nurtured by the social activity, and that teachers' actions are collaboratively and meaningfully related and influenced by context. This position implies a sequence in teachers' learning from experience. For instance, drawing from Dreyfus's stage model, Elliott (1993a) formulated four developmental phases of experiential learning, which indicate different learning needs. These phases are: the 'advanced beginner teacher' who distinguishes a variety of relevant situational and non-situational aspects involved in practice through observation and use of theoretical knowledge; the 'competent teacher' who reflects on her own experiences to recognise a variety of relevant aspects to the situation and is able to handle it competently; the 'proficient teacher' who acts intuitively to differentiate the relevant aspects and goals of situations and synthesise them into a whole; the 'expert teacher' who intuitively is able to draw from her accumulative experiences and make intelligent decisions.

Progress in learning ought not to be seen as linear. Limited past experience requires teachers to move to previous stages in order to handle their situations more competently; they have to unlearn and relearn beliefs and practices (Elliott, 1993a; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1996). This implies that experience alone might not be enough to assist teachers in making the best decisions (Airasian & Gullickson, 1994).

Experience allows one to have a clear aim in mind (what Dewey called an 'end-in-view') and the desire to resolve one's own doubts (Garrison, 1999). This allows anticipating consequences, enhances one's ability to perceive holistically the situation when making plans, it provides skills for recognising problems on the spot, and it facilitates connecting possible solutions. It cannot ensure however the 'wiser' or 'more appropriate' decision; "schemes of interpretation become established through use but require... confirmation by the defining acts of others" (Woods, 1996:33). Such confirmation adds meaning and value into the decision. The fluidity in experience and dissimilarity of needs produces feelings of uncertainty without implying incompetence in teachers that need remedial actions taken by others. Garrison (1999:294) notes that uncertainty is inevitable for Dewey: 'the context of all inquiry involves need, doubt, and the desire to relieve the need and remove the doubt". By differentiating teachers' needs in understanding particular situations, the focus shifts in finding suitable remedial ways that make the presence of these feelings manageable, while the decision for remedial actions remains on the teacher to have an impact on beliefs and behaviour.

Eraut (1994:13) discussing the problematic character to work-based learning notes that such learning depends on perception, itself dependent on cognitive frameworks, also expectations, time for reflection and capacity to link specific experience with prior knowledge. Interest for learning and assistance in a specific context can push one to deliberately reflect on personal feelings and beliefs, to question the impact of external influences on one's practices, and to open one's own judgements to the scrutiny of others. It is meaning constructed with others that increases one's reflective capacity since it requires one "to take the role of the other, to put oneself in the position of the other, and to interpret from that position" (Woods, 1996:33). Making reflective thought explicit, and involving others in judging it, is an advanced step that self-evaluating teachers have to take. This step is the one that makes the teacher self-evaluation concept broader than that of the reflective practitioner and that ensures effective professional development. Such development refers to teachers both 'as learners and as teachers' and accepts teachers' struggle with feelings of uncertainty (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1996). Teachers need to become 'professional learners' (Eraut, 1994) thus frameworks for professional learning/ development need to be holistic, and to attend to processes and procedures in the learning setting that offer appropriate support (e.g. time for consultation, reflection, experimentation,

collaboration, resources), thus build on the learner's capacity to take advantage of available opportunities (Eraut, 1994; Watkins, 2003). Before outlining how learning progress may be fostered best and development enhanced, I discuss the teacher's role and identity in relation to teacher self-evaluation.

TEACHERS' ROLE and IDENTITY

The development of thinking and learning relates closely to role frames, this means to personal perceptions and beliefs about one's own self and of what is expected of one (Day, 1990; O'Hanlon, 1993). Self-evaluation becomes relevant to indicate the relationship between teachers' perceptions, aspirations and expectations since these determine the level of effort, determination and commitment devoted when teachers try to develop particular skills, acquire knowledge and act in a certain way or change behaviour. Determination and commitment to understand practice is shown when teachers deliberately act to find out what means are suitable to match the ends of practice in their own situation. By acting spontaneously and intuitively they allow their learning to evolve and their actions to be deliberately and consciously driven by the professional role and what they think this role entails (Rogoff, 1990; Phye, 1997). This makes their self-evaluation a genuine enquiry that advances their learning experiences.

O'Hanlon (1993) argues that once teachers accept their role they personally choose how to perform it, which allows them to be reconciled with their own selves. For instance, the evidence of the Ford study suggests that identity relates to teachers' professional role (Elliott, 1975; O'Hanlon, 1993). Phye (1997) argues that understanding and insight arise from historically conditioned and socially situated selves that cannot be disconnected from cognition. Besides, identity evolves and changes within the different roles teachers play in their lives and may not be discovered until teachers become aware of the underlying values, feelings and attitudes that inspire their actions (O'Hanlon, 1993; Mitchell & Weber, 1999). Such awareness can bring transformation of the teacher's self. Such transformation applies to the self as a whole (Dadds, 1993). Teachers, who self-evaluate to improve understanding or justify the decisions made, cannot disassociate their thinking from their feelings and impressions of their situation. Mind and soul are inseparable for Aristotle (Ross, 1993; Cooper, 1998; Pelegrinis, 2001) and Dewey (Garrison, 1999). The implication is that teachers ought to be regarded as professionals or artists, instead of considered as social and cultural agents

acting as technicians with limited autonomy (Woods, 1996; Berliner, 1999). House and Lapan (1989:61) argue that these roles provide "for higher delineations between levels of success", thus the assumption that pre specified skills can lead to successful practice has to be replaced by the assumption of the different or even unique patterns of performance. They note that teachers develop a 'causal inference structure' confirmed continuously in action and which may be assessed by examining one's active experimentation with teaching, the level of explanation of one's teaching actions and in situations in which exchange of views occurs.

The confirmation of one's 'inference structure' can be an educative activity if it alerts teachers to aspects that they had not previously been aware. Realising new aspects is crucial; it is the definition of one's own situation that guides one's perceptions, actions and interaction (Woods, 1996). Elliott (1993a) argues that judgements justified through interaction allow teachers to express their thinking, interpret, evaluate and decide based on an awareness of the self as an active agent in their particular situation to be understood, and as one that can influence others. In this context, the professional or artistic roles offer opportunities to teachers to understand and derive authority from the knowledge they are expected to have, to be authentic when showing their sense of accountability, to be committed to pupils' progress and their own growth (Kremer-Hayon, 1993; Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000). Such roles allow teachers to express their thinking and feelings, to develop coherent interpretations and shared understanding. Thus, consensus can be easier to achieve (Elliott, 1993a) while shared judgements may be value biased and divergent without being invalid (Bridges, 1989; Elliott, 1989). Such roles recognise and allow space for one's need for 'self-acceptance' (becoming reconciled with oneself) self-awareness, evaluation, and self-actualisation (the self's need to find expression). Such needs make learning meaningful and are integrally linked to professional development and should be fostered in professional contexts (O'Hanlon, 1993; Bredo, 1997). Professional development refers to a teacher's change and improvement and is potentially affected by various conditions. Teacher self-evaluation becomes relevant to provide a supportive context for improvement that promotes change both at personal and professional levels. It accomplishes that by linking the self-study of a teacher's belief system with the experienced situation and the influences from the environment thus disclosing to the

teacher the limits and constraints that affect her judgements and actions. Such disclosure can bring self-development.

CHANGE

Nowadays, curriculum and pedagogy change often; new conceptions of education's role in society and fresh views about pupils' learning appear, parents' evolving role emerges. Teachers are asked to implement changes without being given an active role in their generation and without being given opportunities to alter the structures that shape their practice. For Elliott (1998:184-88) such structures ought not to be assumed to exist externally and independently of teacher activities. Drawing from Giddens' (1984) theory of 'structuration' he notes that systems (e.g. school) are 'generalised patterns of conduct discerned in the activities of different individuals over time', so individual activities are structured by the principles and properties inferred from such patterns; these structural properties are the general procedures (rules) applied in teachers' practice and the capabilities of the system to control material and human resources. This analysis allows him to conclude that systems do not constrain teachers' actions since they are not the source of power over their activities; power resides in the principles that underpin systems. Eraut (1994:140) argues that change will come through "recognition of other possible arrangements...because people begin to understand more about professional learning and...capacity to learn".

Self-evaluation practice cannot avoid questions related to principles. Whether teachers have been able to develop their capacity to learn from such questioning is dependent upon the support or opportunities provided to them, which raise their interest and need to become aware of different possibilities. Both can mobilise the questioning of one's own motives and capacity, this pushes towards a search for better judgements, provides satisfaction and develops understanding. Such evaluation has the potential to advance performance. Quality performance should be the focus of evaluation, not minimum competence (House & Lapan, 1989) but cannot be achieved until inconsistencies in practice with regard to espoused values are realised and questioned. The 'wishful' has to be distinguished from the 'actual' (Eraut, 1994). This is important because teachers use intentionally their own consciousness as a resource when explaining their activities to others to bring about certain effects; as such, teachers'

consciousness either imposes limits or enables them to do what they want to do (Elliott, 1998).

Principles guiding judgements and decisions need not only be scrutinised via reflection but also through the constructed meaning to be shared with others. Such sharing allows "the internalisation of meanings and the stimulation of thought through language (which) increases teacher's ability to reflect and see (the) self" (Woods, 1996:33) as an object to reflect on. This makes possible the change in teachers' value systems and advancement of moral qualities, cognitive and social capacities. For Elliott (1988:188) change at individual level 'implies system change'. Besides, values are positional as well as educational and the criteria of judgement reflect personal and group views about fairness (Adelman & Alexander, 1982; Darling-Hammond, 1990; Elliott, 1998). This requires group conversation with an aim to challenge and reconstruct value positions. Such reconstruction is what Cuban (1990:73) calls 'second-order' change, which is change that alters significantly the individualistic way teachers perform. The way such conversations are handled (e.g. in the case of criteria, McIntyre, 1989), and the context in which they occur (e.g. the purpose of conversation being to validate accounts, James, 1989) need attention.

Practices and personal characteristics (e.g. self-confidence), also structural arrangements (e.g. acceptable rules) present problems that cannot be overlooked when aiming for change via self-evaluation. Simons (1987) has identified kinds of structural properties, ('hierarchy', 'territory', 'privacy') which do not allow the establishment of conditions that can facilitate change processes in schools. For instance, the hierarchical organisation of schools and the isolated positioning of teachers in classrooms reinforce teachers' sense of territoriality and do not facilitate teachers to legitimise changes in their practice with others. As Elliott (1998) notes these properties interlock teachers' roles and responsibilities; thus individual change requires simultaneous changes occurring in the school. Besides, the occupational culture influences teachers' personal qualities; such qualities however, designate the moral qualities of their actions. As Eraut (1994) suggests the professional conscience teachers develop impacts on their practice. Elliott (1994) argues that the traditional professional culture does not require teachers to be reflexively self-aware (to put the 'self' itself as the object of reflection), nor does it provide support to enhance their methodological competence for evaluating their practice. Thus the occupational culture and the school's structure allow the

teaching profession to create and transmit traditions, such as beliefs and knowledge, which are shared and reinforced by the teaching workforce, acting as enabling conditions that allow teachers to exercise power over their situation but do not assist in its transformation. Further, practitioners might not be able to wield their power responsibly and change their practice due to reasons such as inadequate initial training or in-service support (Berliner, 1999).

Change is also prohibited by conditions particular to the individual. As Garrison (1999) notes, creative practical reasoning depends on three conditions for Dewey: the power of desire and choice, one's ability to carry out plans and one's capacity to change them. For instance, variations exist among individuals regarding one's tolerance of criticism or diagnostic capacity; thus one's self-evaluation practice can have a different quality and effect from another. In this respect, the collaborative examination becomes crucial in challenging one's thinking and values, providing a stimulus to raise one's doubts and supporting one's attempts to restructuring own thinking (Hargreaves & Dawe, 1990; Schratz, 1993; Darling-Hammond & McLauglin, 1996; Hargreaves, 1997). When 'self-determination', 'co-determination' and 'solidarity' become the foci of support to teachers (Hudson, 2002), no matter how partial and subjective teachers' self-evaluations might be, change is involved, as structures, processes and beliefs are made explicit challenging self-identity and values (Elliott, 1998; K. Peterson, 2000). In such a context, teacher commitment has a better chance to increase (Rosenholtz, 1990). Educational improvement depends on teachers developing a meaningful understanding of the conditions that shape and constrain practice (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Rozenholt et al, 1986; Carr & Harnett, 1996). Such understanding needs to include the consideration of quality problems (e.g. level of performance on the task) and aims to alter fundamental design problems of teaching and review their fitness to local conditions (e.g. critical peer review of policy initiatives). The former refers to Cuban's (1990) 'first-order' changes while the latter refer to 'second-order' changes.

Change can depend on the evaluation approach adopted, since each approach is defined by its appropriateness for different circumstances and presents its inherent problems. Limitations related to teacher self-evaluation, such as all stakeholders' right to know, the assumptions connected to reflective practice and the role of teacher personality follow.

LIMITATIONS

Teachers might be "the best judges of their own professional development" but they are not the only judges (MacBeath, 1999:6). Schools and authorities need systematic data on how teachers perform and about the capacity of the school as a place encouraging and sustaining professional growth. Teachers, due to reasons internal (e.g. lack of knowledge) or external factors (e.g. lack of resources), are not always in a position to offer such data. These factors need to be explicitly identified and seriously considered because they can be problematic in self-evaluation practice.

Reflective practice is initiated by the free mind and good will of the individual; the recognition of its worth cannot be forced but its value has to be discovered and appreciated by the individuals themselves. Smyth (1991:118) notes that this practice is "not about ensuring neat and system-wide uniform dissemination of packaged arrangements" but about individual interpretations and meanings of unique and fluid situations. This means that meaning cannot be predefined and standardised, and also teachers need to appreciate reflective practice. Teachers' reflections can give rise to several questions about their nature and development, about the value teachers attach to them and how they relate them to action. McLaughlin (1999) points out the possibility of mistaken valuations in reflective practice. Self-evaluations based solely on teacher reflections cannot exclude the possibility of mistakes. Further, as Smyth (1991:118) notes, there is 'an in-built assumption' in the notion of reflective practice that "teachers will necessarily want to become self-aware and act in ways that promote their own interests and those of their students", that they would prefer reflection to "the forces of dogma and irrationality that blind them to the nature of reality". He stresses that this might be an 'erroneous presumption' and a 'dilemma'. This is reinforced by Eraut's (1994) comment about the traditional ideology of professionalism, under which the professional conscience is based on a preferred view of itself, making possible espoused capabilities to be treated as reality. This might result in practitioners adhering to what the profession aspires instead of questioning it.

Even if these issues can be overlooked, the fact is that teachers, who commit themselves to reflective and self-evaluative activities, and put their practice under the judgements of others, have to cope with feelings of uncertainty and loss (O'Hanlon, 1993). This requires interpersonal qualities. Such qualities need to develop to accommodate every role the teacher takes on in her life (Holly, 1989). For instance,

empathy and care for others are capacities that have their roots in the history of each individual, therefore their degree of tolerance, appearance and range differ for every individual. This implies that not all individuals can exhibit the same capacity for reflective and self-evaluative practice or explore values in the same depth. This does not deny that such capacity cannot be developed, but rather indicates that personal histories play a determining role in accounting for differences in reflective and self-evaluative practice, and that this practice might be more insightful in some teachers than in others. All interpretations of events/situations might not be equally valid, as Elliott insightfully notes, "reflection is a value concept and different theories of reflection manifest different views of human nature: of its worthwhile potentials" (1993c:203). However, embarking on self-evaluation practice is a valuable process for teachers, a process that reveals responsibility towards oneself and others.

OVERVIEW

This chapter reviewed the literature relating to the evaluation of teachers and the impact on teaching and teachers. Teacher self-evaluation was suggested to be a form of evaluation that is a cause and effect of teacher learning, that contributes to the change process at individual, professional and school levels and thus can promote improvement in educational practice. It was viewed not as a static event but as a process requiring a spiral action, moving backwards and forwards, involving specific steps for the teacher, such as to identify problems, to gather information, to reflect and feedback to the process of change, to apply decisions and to monitor expected change. Preceding steps were seen as affecting the undertaken steps that lead to this course of action. Teacher self-evaluation was suggested to be a matter of free will and personal choice affected by the way the teacher views the 'self' as defined by her and influenced by context. The teacher needs to choose the area that needs examination; to select and use methods that she perceives as suitable; to define and employ standards that she perceives need to be applied. This makes the engagement in the self-evaluation a purposeful action that reveals the teacher's commitment and willpower to uncover her practice; this ensures that outcomes will be used for action.

Putting oneself as the focus of evaluation produces self-judgements but self-judging does not necessarily lead to negative self-judgements. Indeed it might be

carried out in order to reassure the person of her current position, in terms of values, beliefs and practices. The self-evaluating teacher needs not only to examine practice but also to try to uncover the values attached to this practice. Change achieved after introspection may lead to self-improvement but not necessarily if the self-evaluating teacher does not fully realise why a course of action taken was wiser and what values underpinned that choice. Self-awareness is a necessary step before real change and self-improvement occurs. The occurrence of self-awareness is facilitated when meaning is shared; making judgements explicit and involving others in the self-evaluation process helps reveal the character, nature and intentions underlying judgements. Others question and validate self-judgements that aim to improve practice and their engagement in the self-evaluation process acts to reassure that the action resulting from the judgement serves the interests of the situation not just those of the individual. In this respect teacher self-evaluation is carried out for the purposes of accountability and is a process in which the teacher willingly and purposefully self-examines and self-judges the adequacy and effectiveness of her own knowledge, beliefs, actions and their effects to achieve self-awareness for the improvement of teaching practice. This practice of self-evaluation forwards teacher learning.

The interrelation of teacher self-evaluation to teacher learning and development and the influential role of context are stressed in the literature but it seems to be ambiguous as to whether teacher self-evaluation should be carried out in formal and well-structured ways or informal ways. This research examines teacher self-evaluation in a context, where teachers are being asked to accept evaluation by a hierarchical scheme, after having experienced a tight inspection system, and then being treated as professionals capable of evaluating their own practice. For many years, they have not been given any special knowledge or training (pre-service or in-service) about how to evaluate their teaching practice. This study focuses on the formative nature of self-evaluation, how teachers self-evaluate and the effect on learning outcomes. To discover the potential of teacher self-evaluation in such a context I have investigated teachers' conceptions, experiences and attitudes towards self-evaluation. I have studied teacher self-evaluation in action and the context within which it takes place. What follows is a description and analysis of the Greek educational context in relation to evaluation.

CHAPTER THREE
THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Any piece of empirical work needs to be contextualised in order to be understood fully. This chapter outlines some features of the Greek educational context and evaluation policy to advance understanding of the influences exerted on teachers and the impact on their perceptions of, and attitudes towards, the evaluation of their work.

EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

This section provides general information about the Greek educational system. It outlines cultural features, the system's structure and management, issues related to teacher status and initial training, to schools and curriculum, and associates them to evaluation.

Features

The Greeks' homogeneity of language-religion-nationality rests on an ancient culture, a cohesive religion and attachment to family life (OECD, 1997). The conservation of traditional values, the conflict between local and imported customs from abroad and a 'race' for the creation of a modern society, all constitute the character of Greek society, which is reflected in its educational system. Historically, education has always been valued by Greek society and considered as a direct causal agent for cultural and economic development and political democracy (OECD, 1982). The educational system has been considered as unsatisfactorily geared to the needs of the economy; however, education continues to be valued by Greek parents as enhancing the life chances of their children (OECD, 1997). The Constitution describes education as an 'obligation' of the state to 'all citizens having the right to it'; this explains its 'free provision' at all educational stages (Greek Constitution, 1975:Article 16). The public character of education has been challenged lately. The growing influx of immigrants has created diversity in schools in terms of race, religion and ethnicity; this has been associated with a rise of private schools that challenges the public role of education (Kathimerini, 2001). The 'public character' does not seem to have been able to sustain by itself the 'class free' character of education implied by the constitutional provisions.

For instance, recent research of the Pedagogic Institute (Pedagogiko Instituto) revealed that 'one in ten students' does not complete compulsory education'; student 'leakage' has reached in some schools 30% of their student population due to students' financial difficulties (Eleftheria, 2002). Such findings raise concerns that are relevant to this study's interests. Were teachers facilitated (e.g. through in-service training) to understand, accept and accommodate this new reality in their practice? Or did the problems that it caused (e.g. the students' 'leakage' or low performance of minority groups) form the rationale for the government to present the evaluation of teachers as a solution to raising achievement in schools? Societal changes have an impact on teaching practice and teachers need to be prepared to face new realities (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1996).

Structure and Management

The educational system is highly centralised, driven by priorities set by the political state; the control of the central government (CG) extends from general policy to daily practice (Oliver, 1982). For instance, the Ministry of Education and Religions (MoE) generates and executes educational policy. MoE plans and issues directives in the form of parliamentary laws, executive acts (including presidential decrees and ministerial decisions) and circulars regulating issues such as the curriculum, assessment, recruitment, promotion, school functioning and expenditures. Also, institutions (e.g. the Pedagogic Institute (PI) operate under ministerial approval, preparing curricula, textbooks, guides, assessment and evaluation material, and proposing ways to improve learning. At regional level, Administration Officers (AD) supervise schools; their responsibilities are to act as mediators between CG and local communities. For example, complaints or locally produced documents are forwarded hierarchically to the Ministry while directives are communicated to schools through these offices. Teachers participate with elected representatives in official procedures (e.g. teacher placements) for auditing purposes. Educational Advisors (ED) organise in-service training, 'offer scientific and pedagogic' guidance, check via occasional visits that the statutory curricula and textbooks are used (Law 1566/1985); recent legislation (MoE, 2002) assigned them the responsibility to evaluate teacher performance but this has not been enforced, due Teacher Union opposition.

Such organisation reflects the ways and means used by the CG to keep control over education and exercise power over teachers who have a minimal role in influencing decisions at central or regional level. It has been argued that such control aims to enforce the prevailing ideology (Mavrogiorgos, 1993) and deprive teachers from exercising any autonomy (Stavrida, 1990). However, the hierarchical organisation and means should not imply that teachers have no control, or that the CG's control is effective. As Broadfoot and colleagues (1993) say, central control is hard to 'police'. Control at classroom level relies on teachers. They have responsibility for pedagogy, assessment and evaluation. The case chapters indicate how this control is practised and the consequences for teaching, learning, improvement and development.

The awareness of such consequences, and the global trend for decentralisation (e.g. accountability, cost effectiveness ideas) (Handy, 1994; Codd et al, 1997), prompted the CG to delegate school funding to the Local Boroughs (LB) and to introduce parental participation in schools' financial committees (Law/1566/1985). In practice these changes have not resulted in parental involvement. This remains passive without affecting educational or evaluation practice. Decentralisation is relocation of hegemonic power to local community (Codd et al, 1997) but with minor effects: the CG keeps control over important areas such as the curriculum. For example, the Head's role consists mainly of procedural duties and as a link between teachers and the AO for issues concerning pupils, school operation, punctuality of teachers and official information. Reporting to AO involves evidence needed for statistical purposes. No formal reporting regarding evidence of pupil and teacher performance, or school achievement, is required. The Head decides on issues concerning the function of the school, for instance the timetable, while decisions on issues involving school activities (such as visits) require co-operative decision-making with the teachers' council. Heads do not evaluate teachers' pedagogical approaches, behaviour or fulfilment of duties. Recent legislation (MoE, 2002) assigns Heads with such responsibility but this is not enforced. A formal, holistic school perspective on assessment or teacher evaluation is absent. Pedagogy, assessment and evaluation are the responsibility of the class teacher. Teachers have control over class procedures and outcomes; however, pupils' performance is often brought up in informal peer and teacher-parent discussions. In this context, the Head's role is largely bureaucratic. There is a lack of school ability to foster initiatives, cater for teacher support and focus on progress in learning which

creates a climate of fragmented relationships and a lack of consensus. Effective teacher self-evaluation is dependent on the school climate.

Teachers, Schools and Curriculum

Teachers in state schools are civil servants; after 1997 their appointment occurs after public exams. Teachers acquire permanency after two years, and are allocated to schools by AO. Promotion to other posts is based on various criteria, some of which are seniority, further degrees, publications and involvement in official procedures, (MoE, PD/ 25/2002). Teaching is described as 'leitourgima', which implies that teachers offer a valuable service to the country along with doctors and priests. Authors have argued that Greek teachers have been traditionally assigned the role of assisting to preserve traditional values of the Greek culture; the teachers' origin from the rural and working classes has been associated with facilitating this role (Massialas et al, 1988; Stavrida, 1990).

There are nursery schools (pupils' age 4-5, non-compulsory), primary schools (pupils' age 6-11, compulsory), gymnasiums (pupils' age 12-14, compulsory) and lyceums (pupils' age 15-18, non-compulsory). Curricula are centrally designed, mandated and described as complete guides to educational practice. Objectives, the content of subject matter, directions for the methods and the means of instruction for units in all subjects are included. The national curricula (NC) emphasise a progressive pedagogy, stressing the need for a child- centred approach and the state-edited books (for students and teachers) are essential supplements to them (MoE, PD/200/1998 and PD/201/1998). The intentions of the NC are to give a new mission to schooling that matches a changing vision of society as perceived by the government. A mismatch between the declared pedagogy and classroom reality exists (Mavrogiorgos, 1983a; Mavromatis, 1995); teachers maintain a teacher-centred approach, often involving memorisation (OECD, 1996, 1997). Factors, such as teachers' low salary, lack of transparency in official decisions and the low quality and inadequate in-service training, do not encourage teachers to strive towards excellence of practice. The NC was forced upon schools assuming that teachers would come to see its worth through compulsory use and was not associated with measures that would release power on schools or teachers to decide (e.g. departure from the one compulsory textbook).

The latest development termed 'flexible zone', which began regionally in 1996, focuses on initiating alternative forms of teaching. It introduces a holistic approach to teaching and learning (theme-based) that stresses the role of interactive, situational and creative learning and promotes initiative and creativity. Such an approach is new terrain for the majority of practising teachers (in terms of the knowledge acquired from initial or in-service training and the ways of acquiring information or support). Thus the understanding of its philosophy and value rests on the individual's interpretations and skills, and also assumptions related to its voluntary nature. The voluntary principle may seem to present a dilemma to which teachers are called to respond, and which contradicts the previous assumption concerning the compulsory use of the NC. Without questioning the value and necessity of teacher choice, I would argue that the voluntary principle alone (e.g. without support to teachers) cannot help teachers understand the merits of an approach that sees thinking as a process and not a product. For instance, how will teachers come to realise that it advances their teaching or ensures better learning outcomes? How will education be promoted if teachers refuse? Wade (1985:51), in a meta-analysis of research, found that when teachers were given a choice to attend in-service training or were required, contrary to popular opinion, it did "not make a significant difference in training effect size". Such indications and questions need investigation to examine the impact on teachers' self-evaluation practice. As Dimaras (1982:152) has argued when reviewing the aims of the Greek education, verbal statements do not define an education system; stated aims move away from being 'dead letters' and acquire flesh through school practice, including the way the system functions through the activities of the participants.

EVALUATION CONTEXT

This section considers policy relevant to the evaluation of teachers. It discusses the means used to ensure teaching quality and legislative Acts concerning the evaluation of teachers.

Means for Teaching Quality

A means used to ensure teaching quality is through initial training. State universities offer specialised teacher training. Great variations exist among departments regarding the emphasis they place on pedagogical and evaluation knowledge; for

instance, departments that train exact science teachers offer pedagogy as an optional subject, while the ones for primary teachers consider this subject as a prerequisite. With regards evaluation there has been a shift from a focus on training for assessment to evaluation, which is now considered in the training programme but is not taught as a specific subject.

Until 1986 the course of study depended on the area of subject-speciality, for instance, in the primary sector two years of initial training were required for all including AOs and Heads. Today it has been increased to four years. Massialas and colleagues (1988) argue that the variety of years in initial training can partially explain teachers' underpayment and low social status.

A traditional means of improving teaching quality has been the provision of courses (MoE, PD/101/1994, PD/145/1997, PD/45/1999; Fragos, 1993; Salteris, 1993; Mavrogiorgos, 1994). Attendance at courses organised by the AO became impossible at times due to the termination of specific training courses or due to the selection procedures, such as selection by draw. The course qualifications (MoE, C/Γ2/1993), and their use for promotion, functioned as a motive for attendance. The high demand for participation, indicative of teachers' interest, does not equate with course success or improvement of practice. Open and longitudinal course evaluation would help but only selective findings were communicated to interested parties, such as teachers. Not making the evaluation of courses an issue of public discussion implies that the government might not be interested in finding out whether courses have met the needs of education and teacher expectations, or resulted in any actual improvement in schools. The impact on self-evaluation practice is examined in this study. Such interest is crucial since school-based in-service training (Law/2530/1997) is absent. There is in-service training at regional level, which presents variations depending on the EA's plans. For instance, in the school year 2003-04 I was called (as a nursery teacher) to attend two meetings (beginning/ end of school year). Not only the frequency but also the regional basis raises issues. There is a problem associated with the unequal access for teachers working in remote schools. The length of such training is usually 5-6 hours, the evaluation of teachers is rarely addressed, neither are the ways of advancing self-evaluation practice. It usually consists of lectures from EA who has read about it in books, and has been trained at one-off seminars at national level.

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Despite the latest measure (MoE, PD/130/1990) to equate teachers' years of initial studies through courses and teachers' high interest for participation, the variation in length of years of initial studies has had an effect on people's beliefs about teachers' roles and their contribution to the education of students. The commonly held belief that two years were adequate to specialise as a primary/ nursery teacher while a secondary status 'demands' more, still persists. Although the political state presents all teachers as professionals of equal status (which is reflected in regulations concerning wages, grade scales, working conditions) the variance in initial training has partly accounted for the different status attributed to teachers working at different education stages. This is expressed in informal ways and reflected in the variety of names that describe the post held, such as teacher (primary school), professor (secondary schools), and infant educator (nursery school). Teachers' training experiences and perceptions of their status are important: the way teachers' exercise their professional power is grounded in these perceptions. Such power is important in the context of teacher self-evaluation: teachers' feelings of autonomy relate closely with judgements and decisions teachers make with regard to the quality and effectiveness of their practice (Coushenour & Dimino, 1999). The implications of feelings of autonomy concern teaching/ learning processes and outcomes and teacher development (Jones, 1986; Webb, 2002; Zembylas, 2003).

Monitoring standards in the educational system occurs by regulating input in the form of standardised curricula and textbooks (OECD, 1997). Standardisation focuses on the prescription of contents and assessment but less on the modes of instruction. School performance is not an issue for comparison; pupils' satisfactory performance is teachers' responsibility. Assessment criteria prescribed by the NC are vague (Moutsios, 1996); criteria and standards for teachers to use in self-evaluation have no formal origin. It could be argued that teachers have been given the 'freedom' to form and exercise their judgements as responsible, autonomous professionals. The study investigates the context and consequences of this 'freedom'. I would argue, the lack of formal schemes for evaluating teachers does not mean that the CG has understood fully teachers' need to form their judgements freely and to exercise their decisions autonomously. The debates and Acts regarding evaluation that followed the abolition of the inspection system (1982) indicate the CG's interest and emphasis on regulating evaluation. This has been criticised as an attempt of the political state to control the system and to police educational practices (Stavrida, 1990; Mavrogiorgos, 1993; Noutsos, 1999). The

combination of social background, the unstable and inadequate in-service training, teacher unfamiliarity with evaluation issues, and the CG's failure to provide a convincing rationale for the proposed changes can easily result in creating confusion and insecurity for teachers.

Legislation

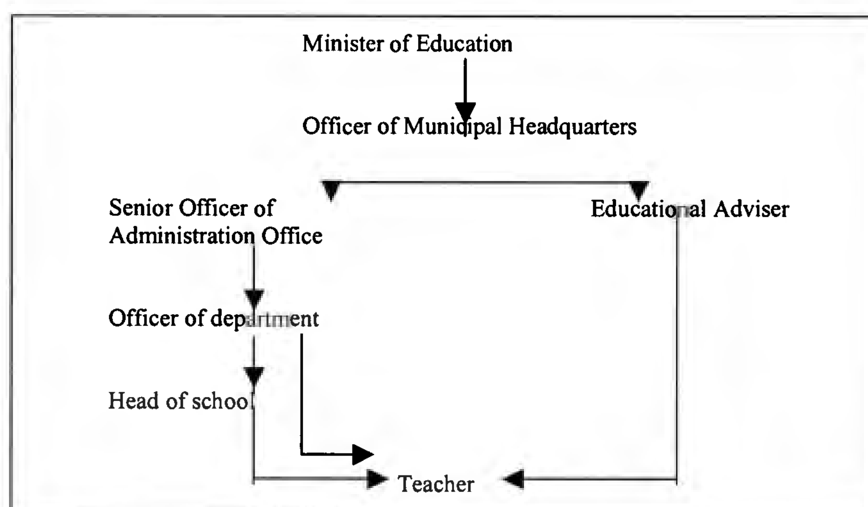
Among recent Acts referring to the evaluation of teachers was the legislation (Law 2525/1997:article 8) that focused on teacher competency, school performance and the effectiveness of the educational system. A seven-member evaluation committee (appointed by the MoE) and a body of four hundred permanent evaluators were to conduct evaluations. These evaluators, in committees of three, were to evaluate teachers for permanency, professional advancement, assess teacher's objections and the school's self-evaluation report (discussed below) and refer teachers for disciplinary punishment. The AO, the ED and school heads were also to evaluate teachers. The first policy directive to deal with school self-evaluation was circulated soon after with the declared purpose of "the improvement and quality upgrading of all contributors to the educational process". The goal for evaluating teachers was to "boost their self-awareness…get a picture of performance", also "point out their mistakes… recognise training needs…recognise good practice" (MoE, MP/D2/1998:article 1). How an external evaluation would achieve teacher self-awareness is an issue in question, however, the accountability element is clear. A descriptive version of this provision reached schools, explaining the rationale, aims and process of the school's self-evaluation committee and proposing guidelines on the conduct of school self-evaluation and the content of a school self-evaluation report (MoE, C/Γ2/1998).

The Act that followed (MoE, PD/140/1998) described conditions and processes for permanency, advancement (wage-related) and promotion (post-related), and teachers' right to write (voluntarily) a self-evaluation report "on the basis of the in-force teacher evaluation issues" to support their application for promotion to executive posts (ibid: article 4). Teacher self-evaluation was perceived as "providing guarantee" (ibid: article 4) in the process of the evaluation of teachers. The concept of teacher self-evaluation in these documents is optional, antagonistic and defensive, and this is not representative of what the concept of self-evaluation is capable of offering. It reflects

an intention connected to bureaucratic purposes (e.g. connection with promotion) and which can devalue and distort the whole process. As Shinkfield & Stufflebeam (1995) note self-evaluation does not respond usefully to particular processes that require critical decision-making about schools. Selecting teachers for executive posts is one such process. Teacher self-evaluation is a formative process. However, the government with this Act has recognised the importance of teacher self-evaluation: it acknowledged teachers' entitlement to express publicly their experiences. The context in which the concept of self-evaluation was introduced with the proposed implementation strategy may have influenced teachers' perceptions of their self-evaluation practice. This legislation was never enforced; the reason being that whilst an agreement had been reached on the necessity to evaluate schooling processes and practices (Vema, 1998), teachers opposed the implementation of the so-called 'super-inspectorship', seen as worse than the inspectorate of 1982. They argued that 'the new oppressive form of evaluation led to domination of teachers' autonomy' and was 'used as a vehicle to enforce undemocratic mechanisms, aiming to serve as always bureaucratic autocracy' (DOE, 1998). The CG by using different means (e.g. raising the issue through the media seeking public consent) has tried to resolve the matter.

Lately evaluation was connected to the structure of administration offices, training and selection procedures (MoE, C/Γ2/1998; MoE, 2002; MoE, PD/25/2002).

Figure 1: The evaluation of teachers in MoE 2002



The PI and the Educational Research Centre (Kentro Ekpedeftikis Erevnas) were entrusted to create special evaluation indicators for the evaluation of teaching practice

and teachers. Thirteen Municipal Headquarters (MH) were created all over Greece with Officers appointed for three years directly by the MoE (Ethnos, 2002b). These would evaluate the EA and the Senior Officers of the AO. Senior Officers would evaluate the Officers of departments who would evaluate the school Heads under their supervision. The school Heads would evaluate the teachers in their school who would be also evaluated by EA (Figure 1).

This legislation has not been enacted. However it raised teachers' opposition and created a climate that causes concern (Croustallis, 2002). Its basic difference from the scheme of 1997 is the replacement of the body of permanent evaluators by the officers of the MH. Restricting the number of those involved in the evaluation of teachers reflects a cost saving. Bureaucratic purposes are again reflected in the rationale which supports the need to reward teachers, evaluated as 'excellent', with "quick promotions, priorities in the use of educational leave and moral rewards" (Ethnos, 2001:44); the notion of 'bonus' for good performance is underlined. The Assistant Minister of Education declared the concern: to uncover 'teachers' problematic practice' in order to provide training or remove the "problematic teachers" from classrooms (ibid:45). The focus is on the newly appointed teachers during their first two years (permanency issue), the teachers who apply for promotion (selection issue) and teachers who want to be evaluated for personal reasons (Ethnos, 2002a). In an attempt to enforce a scheme for the evaluation of teachers without raising great opposition the CG targets novice and career-track teachers. These groups are the focus of evaluation in many newly developed systems and represent a trend (Danielson, 2001). While there is no guarantee that the voluntary principle for evaluation will be kept, this Act attends only to the evaluation of teachers' performance without evaluating any other aspects of educational provision.

The burden for the evaluation of teachers is placed on administrators; that is, evaluation is seen as an activity done to the teachers. This easily leads to holding teachers responsible for bad performance in schools. It is indicative of the policy-makers' intentions to be in control of the work produced in schools ignoring the implications for teacher learning and development. However as Danielson (2001:12-5) suggests the best teacher evaluation merges "professional development with quality assurance". This is not evident. For instance, the reward principle gives evaluation a marketable character: successful practice functions as a trade for 'something' else, this

being conceived as a moral reward or a bonus for career advancement. Not only does this not provide incentives for retaining good teachers in the classrooms but also it implies that good classroom practice is all that is needed for being able to perform well in administration posts. This could be quite an erroneous assumption. Shulman (2001:10) makes a distinction between rewards and incentives when arguing that what is needed in an evaluation system is provision of "incentives for good teachers to become better through improving their own competence and documenting it with students' achievements". The new scheme includes rhetoric about teachers' improvement but does not appear to incorporate procedures and processes to ensure its accomplishment. An issue is raised for example, as to how teachers are going to improve via the evaluation conducted by the school Head. At present the law does not include a clarifying description; maybe follow up directives will. EAs are assigned with contradictory roles, called to act as consultants as well as evaluators. It is questionable whether teachers will turn to advisers for help in improving their teaching when they know that advisers might use the information for evaluating their performance. Besides, the persistence in using hierarchical structures draws memories of past experiences in which such structures had been officially declared to be ineffective. The underlying intention is interpreted as an attempt to remove the power teachers were assigned in evaluating their performance twenty years ago and to transfer it back to government officials (Croustallis, 2002; Typos Kiriakis, 2002). The results this Act will have on teachers and on teaching and learning outcomes has to be seen in time.

OVERVIEW

Greek teachers need to cope with the values prevalent in their culture and the duties of their practice. Their experiences influence their learning and development and impact on the improvement of their teaching. The means used by the CG to assess performance in schools, and the explicit or implicit ways used to communicate them (e.g. legislation), impact on teachers' self-evaluative judgements, decisions and actions. In this respect teachers' perceptions and attitudes regarding teaching and its evaluation are outcomes of the interplay of their identity and ideology and their societal context. Local research attempting to study the socio-political aspects of the Greek education was rarely accompanied by empirical data (OECD, 1997) but provided such indications.

Teachers' Unions have made public their views (DOE, 1991, 1997, 1998; OLME, 2002a, 2002b). Local research has examined the impact of the centralised curricula, assessment and evaluation on schools, teaching and pupils' learning (Mavrogiorgos, 1983a; Fragos, 1991; Mylonas, 1993; Solomon, 1992; Pedagogic Institute, 1998; Kouzelis, 1999; Bagagis, 1999; Papadopoulos, 1999; Pasoula, 2001); the school climate and the implications of school organisation for teaching, teachers and pupils (Makrinioti, 1982; Mavrogiorgos, 1983b; Kavouri and Ellis, 1998; Gani-Pamoukchoglou & Stratikopoulou, 1998; Ghoula, 1999); teacher attitudes towards attempts to restructure schools (Gani, 1999). Research studies focusing on the evaluation of Greek teachers are scarce, as is documented research of the way that teachers experience their self-evaluation practice. The aim of this study is to examine how teachers understand the self-evaluation process, how they seek to incorporate it into their professional practice, and why they think that this is of value to the quality of their teaching. The study investigates the factors that shape perceptions and understanding of self-evaluation. Do teachers engage in 'practical deliberation' or are they at the intuitive stage? Does technical knowledge guide their self-evaluations? (Elliott, 1983). What particular conditions do they think support or hinder their development? What do they do to take advantage of, or to overcome them? The next chapter discusses the methodology employed in the quest of uncovering Greek teachers' self-evaluation practice.

CHAPTER FOUR
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study reported here explores through a naturalistic perspective the complexity of teacher self-evaluation processes, the limits and constraints to implementation, the effect on teaching, teacher learning and development. The interpretivist approach and the use of methodological triangulation are intended to ensure that the purpose and focus of this research are comprehensively approached. This chapter discusses why methodological triangulation and grounded theory were chosen. The approach adopted for fieldwork, the analysis and ethical considerations are reported. Fieldwork procedures and the constraints of the study are also included.

METHODOLOGICAL TRIANGULATION

The decisions a researcher makes are influenced by several factors. My decision to use methodological triangulation was influenced by the research aims and questions, timing and funding (Robson, 1993) and my views and assumptions about the ways the research questions could be answered (Light & al, 1990; Caracelli & Greene, 1993; Woods, 1996). To explore the meaning and value of self-evaluation activity in a context where formal regulatory evaluation frameworks are not in operation, my attention was focused on how teachers understand the process of self-evaluation, why and how they practise it. I was also interested in why they think such practice is of value, how they integrate this type of evaluation into their professional learning and what conditions promote or hinder their efforts.

A case study approach is appropriate and preferred when 'how' and 'why' questions are posed, and when the focus is on real-life events. Narrating the stories of the actors studied and giving voice to their interpretations is vital to theories derived from research (Yin, 1994; Strauss & Corbin, 1994). The view adopted is that individuals have their perspectives of their actions and those of others, that any activity affects perspectives, and in turn, perspectives affect the activity (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Strauss & Corbin, 1994; Woods, 1996). Teachers' views are seen as temporal interpretations that change depending on conditions; apprehending any activity studied requires examining how conditions relate (Strauss, 1990; Layder, 1993). Explanation

operates at different levels of the social life; for instance, Layder (1993) assumes that the level of 'history' is applied to other levels, such as the 'self' and context. Seeking to trace patterns of action and interaction on self-evaluation practice requires a focus on the 'self' and on conditions that operate at micro and meso levels. The aim is to uncover influences either internal or external to the process of self-evaluation. Such influences are explored within and between, the individual, institutional, professional and policy contexts. In the field of evaluation, contradictions and tensions often relate to these contexts. The commitment to investigate the ways in which teachers, as social actors, understand their evaluation experiences under the influence of such contexts is fundamental to educational research.

The 'elasticality' of the case study approach (Janesick, 1994) serves the research's aim to study and interpret findings within the context of present knowledge (Morse, 1991) but is not sufficient to give many teachers a voice to present their conceptions and practices of self-evaluation. The ongoing debate concerning the distinction between the conceptions and underlying assumptions of qualitative and quantitative research, and the resolutions offered about the relationship of chosen method to strategy (Overton & Reece, 1973; Bulmer, 1986; Scott & Usher, 1999) were considered. Research methodologies may be seen as tools used for understanding and although research paradigms may be mutually exclusive as idea systems, they may use both qualitative and quantitative methods appropriately (Morse, 1991; Strauss & Corbin, 1994; Miles & Huberman, 1994) and considered as a 'paradigm of choice' (Patton, 1980). Layder (1993) proposes the encouragement of using quantitative data to complement qualitative analysis. This research's aims and context necessitated the use of other available methods. Methods, depending on the way they are used, reveal different insights and provide the link that allow the researcher to examine what appears "most useful or intuitively most satisfying" (Bulmer, 1986:27-8). This link "determine(s) the types of results… (their) usefulness… (and) pragmatic application" (Morse, 1994:223). Convinced that the interpretations of any study must be given justice to multiple perspectives (Strauss & Corbin, 1994) I incorporated a technique (postal survey) into the design to highlight the experience of the self, as presented by the teachers. I directed attention on its distinct use and analysis (Scott & Usher, 1999).

The purpose of using multiple research strategies is to strengthen the results with corresponding and complementary findings that contribute to theory and knowledge development (Morse, 1991; Caracelli & Greene, 1993; Scott & Usher, 1999). My purpose reflects my stance towards the teachers I want to study, also the need for and value of using triangulated evidence; triangulation aims for 'convergence, corroboration and correspondence' (Caracelli & Greene, 1993:196) and its use helps rectify the shortcomings of research approaches and methods. This need was checked and balanced. Firstly, the division of research questions into content and form groups provided an accessible overview that allowed assessing the kind of answer each approach and method could give. Eliciting meanings and values, uncovering processes, observing influential factors could be explored in depth in the case studies. The postal survey could examine the breadth of the self-evaluation activity, the attitudes towards it by a larger sample, and trends in such practice. The checking of the relative distribution of issues identified in the case studies in the larger population (Simons, 1995) of teachers is possible with this design, and also the comparison of practices and attitudes and the examination of the level of agreement of findings. This enriches the description and helps draw valid conclusions. It makes clearer the meaning and value attached to self-evaluation practice since the evaluation of findings from each method requires an "interpretation... not accomplished using a mathematical formula to weight the findings... rather it is an informed thought process...(which) includes the privilege of creating or modifying theory" (Morse, 1991:122).

Secondly, I conducted a pilot study to check the usefulness of methodological triangulation in this study. Researchers (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Oppenheim, 1996; deVaus, 1996; R. Petterson, 2000) suggest that pilot work should be carried out to test the research design and to clarify issues, such as the feasibility of methods in terms of practicality, to facilitate later analysis. The pilot experience helped clarify Greek teachers' understanding of concepts related to the practice of teacher self-evaluation and to adjust the questionnaire items to relate more effectively to the research questions. It provided a sense of the context and important issues to attend before the main study and it clarified the way the data collected through different methods linked. It indicated differences among teachers working in different settings that reinforced the choice to use methodological triangulation to enrich the findings.

GROUNDED THEORY

Teacher self-evaluation is a complex phenomenon that needs to be analysed from different perspectives to describe it comprehensibly, to understand the processes involved and its value attached. Grounded theory is a theoretical approach appropriate when exploration, understanding and explanation are sought. It offers the possibility to theorise from data and develop a theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1994; Morse, 1994). It allows the testing of theory in intimate relationship with data. This "dialectical" relationship allows the research methods to be adjusted (Scott & Usher, 1999:43). For instance, the emerging theory during fieldwork indicated that the educational orientations of the case study teachers influenced their self-evaluation practice. A short questionnaire was constructed to explore these orientations further (Appendix 2F-G).

The general procedures followed when building grounded theory allows focusing and refocusing during data collection. This offers flexibility in the research activity and allows in-depth exploration of the way self-evaluation activity interrelates to events and incidents. For instance, sampling events and teachers in the light of emergent theory facilitated constant comparisons among structural arrangements, activities and teachers. This led to examining and connecting multiple categories, properties, and relations by posing generative and concept-relating questions to reveal features and dimensions of the self-evaluation activity. The impact of structural arrangements and of other individuals on the practice of self-evaluation was also studied in this way. Analysis guided the research activity.

Through coding procedures, such as open and axial coding, propositions are developed which are tested to see if they are sustainable. For instance, my proposition that 'teachers' interpretation of official documents remains unquestioned' led me to focus on the ways teachers communicated judgements about policy and the implications for their self-evaluation. Authors suggest that when analysing data and developing theory this way, conceptual density, integration and variation is achieved (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1994). These procedures allowed the development of theory relevant to what I had seen and heard. The interacting, fluid and provisional character in the theory under development demanded that I was constantly open to alternatives when making decisions.

APPROACH

This section outlines the rationale for using the case-study approach, the need for, and contribution of, the pilot study. The implications for action are mentioned and the rationale for using the postal survey is discussed.

Case Study Research

The case study was chosen for developing a portrayal of what is actually going on in schools with reference to teachers' self-evaluation practice. As a 'set of procedures' (Scott & Usher, 1999:87), the case study allows the significance of the single instance to be captured, authentic accounts to emerge (Simons, 1995), conceptual categories to be indicated (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). These contribute to the researcher's reflectivity. The need was to answer questions that focus on values, perceptions, processes and their interrelation in a certain context. Thus the complexity of school culture, the dynamics of the processes, the relationships and interactions that occurred between different levels needed consideration. Case study research allows one to consider the complexities of reality (Stake, 1995). Layder's (1993) conceptualisation of 'levels', such as the personal experience and the social involvement, the situated activity and the setting, helps this study examine how teachers' experiences of self-evaluation within specific settings connect to other activities and to forms of interaction.

Hammersley (1990:87) argues that different types of research "utilise the concept of a case" the treatment differs. This enquiry is a collective case study which is "an instrumental study extended to several cases" (Stake, 1994:237). That is, the phenomenon of teacher self-evaluation is examined in the context of both primary and nursery education. The aim is to provide "both provisional and experiential knowledge" (ibid:240), and to understand the practice of teacher self-evaluation rather than to generalise about it. Each case as an 'object' to study (Stake, 1994) was defined by a concern for the specific settings and their possible impact on self-evaluation. The uniqueness of these settings does not make them irrelevant to others. Paradoxically by examining the unique features of particular cases we come to understand parameters that are universal (Simons, 1996). The cases are treated as "configurative - ideographic studies" (Scott & Usher, 1999:86): the collected evidence provides descriptions of the complex meanings of each case, highlights processes and influences. Further, my

interpretations are made clear allowing readers to draw their conclusions (Stake, 1994; Strauss & Corbin, 1994).

No direct comparison between the cases was made during data collection; the analysis of each case was separate since this "diminishes the opportunity to learn" and "substitutes the a) 'comparison' for the b) 'case' as the focus of the study" (Stake, 1994:240). Nonetheless, common issues were studied. This allowed for a cross-site comparison of cases (Simons, 1995). Since the study examines perceptions and attitudes, it confronts underpinning beliefs. Interviews and informal discussions, observation of teachers and school activities, questionnaires and analysis of documents were all used to reveal the impact of beliefs on self-evaluation and to get an insight into the conditions and teachers' attitudes towards the school as a workplace. Examining the interaction between conditions, beliefs and attitudes further understanding of the implications of the professional world for the practice of teacher self-evaluation (Kremer-Hayon, 1993; K. Peterson, 2000).

Pilot Study

My readings on the evaluation of teachers and related areas had given me an idea about the issues that I should examine. However, the evaluation of teachers is a broad area that can be examined from different perspectives. A critical analysis and synthesis of other people's ideas is required to be able to distinguish what is appropriate and relevant for one's research purposes (Hart, 1998). Several contexts (e.g. policy) influence interpretations (Ball, 1990); this necessitates framing meaning. Based on reading but also on my own experiences and background, I believed that I needed a pilot to clarify how Greek teachers understood main concepts, such as reflective practice, to develop questions and construct the questionnaire, and to check the comprehensibility of techniques and modifications of items before applying them (Oppenheim, 1996; R. Peterson, 2000). A pilot facilitates the conduct of the main study because unforeseen issues can be diagnosed and dealt with (e.g. Miles & Huberman, 1994; de Vauss, 1996). In my case, the pilot provided indications of appropriate ways and means to examine the practice of self-evaluation. The procedures followed, their impact on the research design and the implications for action, are discussed in Appendix 1. Here, after having explained the rationale for conducting a pilot study, I summarise its contribution.

The pre-testing of three phases (the question development, the questionnaire development and the refinement of the pilot testing (deVaus, 1996) helped this study to progressively focus. In terms of:

1) methodological issues that enhanced my awareness of the way the research methods linked and the implications for findings;

2) methods to be included, it led me to include unstructured interviews as a data source;

3) the need to make new sampling decisions became apparent as I altered the number and type of case study schools, the number of teachers receiving the postal survey and reconsidered the merits of delivering it to a group distinctly different from the teacher groups under focus;

4) selecting the most appropriate ways to approach the research activity and the teachers under study;

5) limitations and unexpected constraints , for instance, it indicated the effect of neglecting timing and management issues such as the exclusion of the follow-up questionnaire response;

6) issues to attend to in analysis and write ups, such as the need to keep a log documenting procedures and incidents to assist analysis when the fieldwork ended.

I discuss here only one implication for action (the pilot's effect on the sampling design) to highlight the benefit of considering the pilot study as a part of the study's overall methodology. The initial design included four case studies –nursery school, primary school, gymnasium and lyceum- and a postal survey administered to all geographical areas (52) in the previously described schools (number of teachers receiving it: 520). The pilot fieldwork (1-week) was conducted in a nursery and a lyceum chosen on the basis of their heterogeneity (e.g. academic orientation). The pilot clarified the need to modify the research focus to free time for the in-depth exploration of one education sector thus both the number of cases to study and number of the postal survey sample were reduced. Influenced by the pilot's indications about homogeneity of actors' beliefs in primary settings, I focused on primary and nursery schools, which have a closer match in terms of curriculum, pupils and teacher training in Greece. I assumed that these common features would impact on teachers' reactions to encountered problems the more similarity in incidents experienced could provide more certainty with which

conclusions could be drawn. Also, variance that could be detected by examining extreme or deviant cases could reveal whether these were due to internal factors or factors external to the self-evaluation process. Authors suggest that examining extreme cases advance understanding (Patton, 1980; Strauss, 1987; Miles & Huberman, 1994). My familiarity with the primary sector reinforced this choice, which however, raised a problem. The nursery personnel consist usually of one or two teachers; this raises the issue of what is considered a 'school'. The consequences for self-evaluation are discussed in chapter six. I tried to overcome this problem by finding six nurseries that share building, equipment and co-operate in activities, such as celebrations, and by treating the collected data separately during fieldwork and initial analysis. The findings were brought together in the final analysis and are presented as one case.

Further, I minimised the distribution area for the postal survey: the pilot indicated that managing a large number of responses required more time than was available. I decided to include primary and secondary schools on the basis of the pilot responses that indicated considerable differences among secondary and primary teachers. Many data sources ought to be used not only when evaluating teachers' practice (Peterson et al, 2001) but also when trying to develop an understanding of it.

Postal Survey

This study seeks to describe what self-evaluation means to teachers and the ways they practise it in different settings in Greece. Such description elucidates the meaning of self-evaluation as identified by teachers; as such, it is particularly useful information at policy level. What counts as self-evaluation for teachers can provide policy officers with an understanding of teachers' pre-dispositions towards evaluation practice, and thus inform the planning and application of an accepted evaluation scheme. Something the government has attempted to achieve for the past decades. Such a scheme has to consider accountability along with teacher autonomy and professional development (Nivρ, 2001). Using the original accounts of a predetermined and wide-spread sample of teachers can help trace patterns of self-evaluation behaviour observed in the case studies, cross-checking the reasons for self-evaluation to reveal the factors closely associated with this practice. A postal survey is a technique that can provide such information and allows comparisons of teacher responses in different settings. It is used

widely and is described as 'the best form' of survey in educational research: it minimises social desirability responses and is the most viable way to reach a geographically dispersed sample (Cohen & Manion, 1994; deVauss, 1996).

The use of a postal survey serves the purposes of 'complementarity' and 'triangulation'. Caracelli and Greene (1993:196), when discussing the value of mixed-method evaluation designs in theory and practice, argue that the purpose of 'complementarity' is used to indicate "overlapping but different facets of a phenomenon". To elicit the views of teachers of different backgrounds and settings to describe the standpoint of Greek practitioners I balanced the usefulness of evidence not acquired from the case-study sample. Delivering the postal survey not only to primary, but also to secondary teachers, could provide data that I could use to illustrate and clarify different aspects of self-evaluation practice, such as to highlight contextual influences not detected in the case studies or not applicable to the primary sector group. Administering the postal survey to case study teachers before fieldwork allows a comparison between sets of questionnaire data (e.g. nursery case study teachers' responses against science teachers' responses). Triangulating evidence can "strengthen the validity of empirical evidence" (Bulmer, 1986:32) but using quantitative and qualitative methods can bring divergent results. In this case "one set of findings is invalid and / or the end result of the total study inadequate, incomplete or inaccurate" (Morse, 1991:122). The data reported in chapter seven provide information in terms of consistency of appearance of the phenomenon of self-evaluation in the population of Greek teachers and the degree of consistency of response on certain issues (e.g. self-evaluation purposes).

When constructing the questionnaire I paid attention to match the key factors indicated by the literature on teacher self-evaluation as interrelated. Cohen and Manion (1994:85) refer to key factors as the three 'prerequisites'. That is, I formulated the questionnaire to be in accordance with the purpose and concerns of the study. These include: its central aim (such as, meaning, purpose, benefits, role of feelings, ways of conduct, constraints) and auxiliary topics identified and itemised (such as, the role of others and the relation of self-evaluation practice to professional development and policy), the focused population (primary and secondary teachers) and the resources available. 'Linguistic comparability' (Deutscher, 1986) was assumed to occur since I

shared a cultural background (demographic, professional and linguistic) familiarity with the individuals under study. The constructed questionnaire has seventeen questions (closed, open-ended and attitude statements) spread over three parts (Appendix 2A-B). The steps I followed in its construction are described in Appendix 1. Thirty-one questionnaires were delivered by hand in the case study schools before fieldwork and two hundred and four questionnaires were mailed in other geographical areas (see sampling). To enhance the response rate, keep the costs low and save time in locating respondents, I decided to ask the Heads to distribute the survey (Appendix 2D-E). In total I received one hundred and twelve responses. No follow-up procedures to track undelivered questionnaires were used.

TIMING

Figure 2. The 'arithmetic' of fieldwork

Case-Study 1 (Primary school)	**Case-Study 2** (Six Nursery Schools)	**Postal Survey**	
17 September -30 November 2001 *(11 weeks)*	3 December -1 March 2002 *(11 weeks)*	October 2001	
Fieldwork duration	11 weeks x 7 days x 2sites	**Days** 154	**Total** 154
Analysis of fieldwork, Transcribing and coding: Of interviews Of observations	 (16 x 2 sites) x 3: 96) (10 x 2 sites) x 3: 60)		156

Time pertains to every research activity. Miles and Huberman's (1994:46-7) suggestions helped to calculate the time needed for data collection and analysis (Fig. 2). This guided the planning of weekly activities in case study fieldwork. The frequency of visits to schools changed progressively: the first six weeks I collected and simultaneously analysed data every day; then, data analysis informed further data collection (Strauss, 1987).

ETHICS

Research involves making ethical decisions. Writers suggest areas in need of attention, such as informed consent, the dynamics developed from the researcher's presence in the site and the influences exerted on subjects and data (Simons, 1977;

Pring, 1984; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983; Barrett, 1995). The way I tried to ensure confidentiality and informed consent are discussed below after considering the impact of my assumptions and the influence of my presence on the research activity.

The Researcher's Role

My long teaching experience had an impact on the way teachers perceived my role. There was a tension created regarding my status as a teacher and as a researcher that seemed to have confused some teachers as to how to address me. Most teachers seemed to see me as an 'insider', as one posing no threat to them. For example, they expressed openly judgements about officers and discussed problems with planning, pupils and parents. They offered instances of their own and others' teaching and evaluation practice. These were painful, either because teachers perceived them as unethical or because teachers lacked the capacity to deal successfully with them, but they were particularly helpful. For instance, the comment of a primary school teacher CH about the way teaching was avoided by extending the break periods and his feelings of guilt years later, urged me to ask others who confirmed the tendency of teachers to extend break time on a daily basis. I focused on examining the impact on teachers' reflectivity; observation notes and teachers' comments were examined to ensure that such impact occurred before making assertions.

Being a practitioner helped me to resist judging teachers' work. However, my familiarity with teaching situations and evaluation problems gave rise to assumptions. I assumed for example, that being open and sincere and facing teachers as individuals striving to achieve their best would make them open up and facilitate the research process. This proved erroneous with a few teachers who had declared they wanted to contribute; however in their cases I needed to devote extra effort and time 'chasing' them to discuss the emergent issues. My own background, while assisting communication with teachers in ways they were familiar and helping to address issues that concerned them, might have foreshadowed issues that needed investigation. I felt that what is called in the literature 'going native' could happen without realising it easily. A rewarding outcome of my pilot experience was the awareness of the conscious efforts needed to retain a critical stance, stay alert and interrogate situations constantly. The method of analysis helped since concepts, and not individuals, drove the data

collection process (Strauss, 1987). Noting down comments as they were expressed, keeping quiet and 'listening', trying to ensure a flow of information from different teachers, withdrawing and trying to observe solely, helped too (Sprandley, 1980; Robson, 1993; Adler & Adler, 1994).

Acting completely as an observer was difficult. For example, in classroom observation my presence influenced pupils who to begin would turn and smile at me sitting in the back, or in the staff room, when teachers asked for my opinion. Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) stress that individuals are part of the worlds they study. Being neutral when conducting research is difficult. Research is a personal activity. Consider for example selecting the topic or information for analysis: both point to the researcher's interests and influences. Research relates to the researcher's characteristics and biography and is influenced by the relationships developed during research. Nevertheless, researchers need to move towards objectivity and strive to behave 'neutrally'. I tried to be objective and avoided influencing the situation and the teachers with my comments. This was not always possible so I acted according to what I thought the situation required. For example, in the frequent questioning regarding developments in teacher evaluation or my beliefs on such issues, I occasionally escaped conversation; however, when I thought this would advance conversation, or help teachers open up, I offered alternative viewpoints and recorded teachers' answers.

Negotiations and Rapport

This area of study is sensitive and in the context of my research, a personal business; the pilot study confirmed this. To this effect, key informants proved a valuable source of information and help (Ball, 1984), facilitating the selection of the cases to study and my presence at schools. An Administration Officer for instance directed me to schools of potential interest while teacher V provided me with valuable information regarding teachers' interests in the primary school. Developing relations of openness was important: I needed instances of self-evaluation practice that were sincere expressions of routine practice and not descriptions made up to please me. This could happen if teachers trusted me and acted reflectively when discussing the issues I examined. 'Sharing' experiences (Ball, 1984) restricted the possibility of being misled so I became active at times. For example, I shared with Year One teachers my ideas for

a Christmas celebration, provided the play and helped prepare it; I helped rearrange play areas in nurseries, occasionally introducing games that teachers adopted and used with enthusiasm. Participating in activities prohibited me from being a detached observer. I believe however that it developed my relations with teachers and provided insights that advanced my understanding about their self-evaluation practice.

I believe it is ethically correct to have informed consent ahead of intervention so I tried continuously to make sure that teachers understood the voluntary participation and its rationale, the confidentiality and anonymity offered, and the opportunity to clarify my interpretations of their accounts. I was open about the means used to achieve the study's aims thinking this honesty would be appreciated and gain teachers' trust. Teacher self-evaluation has many threatening aspects, such as feelings of guilt created from unsuccessful experiences; I thought this might become easier if teachers participated wittingly and conscientiously. Teachers seemed satisfied with my explanations, wanted to know about the research and asked a series of questions. My overall impression is that most teachers welcomed the notion of having a chance to state what they believed and were willing to discuss evaluation issues. Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) note that giving a full picture of the research to everyone involved should be done when relationships based on trust have been established. I tried to give information gradually to teachers about implicit messages and evolving issues; some issues were new to me, so my explanations might scare teachers away or make them reserve information, thinking they would look bad in my eyes. Miles & Huberman (1994) suggest that participants might want to know what the benefits would be for them; this study could promise the chance to reflect on practice, thus help teachers clarify their ideas and discuss them with others. My presence had an impact on the setting and my area of investigation, no matter how well hidden or underestimated it might have been it raised chances for reflection and group discussions. This was beneficial for teachers and influenced the quality and reliability of the findings.

DATA COLLECTION and ANALYSIS

This section delineates the procedures for collecting and analysing data. It considers sampling, the data collection and sources, data management and coding and data analysis.

Sampling

Authors' suggestions (Strauss, 1987; Hammersley, 1990) and the aims and context of my study influenced the selection of cases. I aimed to use cases that have relevance to other teachers' situations, be 'typical' of their types as opposed to 'extreme' or 'special' (Patton, 1980), while covering some dimensions of the population heterogeneity (Hammersley, 1992). A multiple case study design was preferred to a single case to develop theory through comparative analysis between cases that have similarities and differences (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Influenced by research on evaluation and self-evaluation (Elliott, 1975; Ademan & Alexander, 1982; Clift, Nuttall & McCormick, 1987; Simons, 1987; Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995; MacBeath et al, 1996) I wanted to look for similarities and differences that relate to contextual factors.

For the selection of the site of the case studies I used purposive sampling to ensure their appropriateness for the exploration of the research aims. The sample was chosen according to certain criteria (Scott & Usher, 1999), that is, they were schools of the primary education sector that share the following. They are state schools with the same organisation and management structures, offering similar conditions regarding teachers' years of initial studies, permanency, promotion procedures and salary. They are subjected to the same teacher evaluation policy. They differ in teacher subject speciality, age of pupils and curriculum offered. This sampling allows the examination of variant cases and the indirect cross-site comparison (Simons, 1995) and confirmation of the conceptual properties suggested from each case (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). One primary and six nursery schools were selected after visiting, discussing and evaluating teachers' interest for participation in the research (Appendix 1). The schools were located in my hometown Larissa (an urban city); this facilitated access to schools, participation of teachers and reduced costs.

Within each case further sampling occurred; when sampling for a whole school, a single researcher must of necessity sample (Ball, 1984) since choices need to be made about incidents, issues and teachers' actions that are of more relevance and interest than others (Stake, 1994). For example, when I observed that teachers accepted policy without explicitly questioning the rationale I could directly discuss this with teacher NI because she had mentioned it when reflecting on her teaching. I could not do the same with teacher P who avoided speaking openly. Thus, most in-depth information that I elicited from the interviews came from teachers with whom I established rapport. As

theory emerged I made new sampling decisions of "what data to collect next and where to find them" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967:45). This means that a 'dialectic' process was in place, in which the emerging theory drove data collection and vice versa (Scott & Usher, 1999:43). During data analysis selected documents and texts were compressed as being more relevant and revealing for presenting each case.

In the postal survey, all case study teachers, plus others from sixty-eight schools, were selected (Figure 3). I used random sampling for selecting the seventeen geographical areas to administer the questionnaire. The schools and teachers were selected by 'systematic– disproportionate sampling' (Scott & Usher, 1999:70). This means that the number in the sample is not proportionate to the total number of teachers in each category. This sampling strategy serves the focus of this study on specific groups.

Figure 3. Sampling in the postal survey

Teachers completing the postal survey			Number	Time
Case-Study 1 (Primary School)		All teachers in the school	18	Before fieldwork
Case-Study 2 (6 Nursery Schools)		All teachers in the school	13	Before fieldwork
68 Schools distributed in 17 geographical areas	*Nursery*	2 teachers x 17 schools	34	October 2001
	Primary	2 primary teachers x 17 1 physical education teacher x 17 1 foreign language teacher x 17	34 17 17	October 2001
	Gymnasium	1 physical education teacher x 17 1 exact science teacher x 17 1 pure science teacher x 17	17 17 17	October 2001
	Lyceum	1 foreign language teacher x 17 1 exact science teacher x 17 1 pure science teacher x 17	17 17 17	October 2001
Total n. of teachers			235	

Schools were divided into four strata representing educational stages. Schools are attached to AO identified by number: the questionnaire was administered to the fourth school of every second AO in the chosen area. This choice reflects schools located both in suburbs and villages and ensures that the chosen number exists, for example primaries are more than ten in a district but secondary schools can be less. A sample of six groups was selected according to teachers' specialised subject (nursery, primary,

pure sciences, exact sciences, foreign languages and physical education). Subject speciality determines the type of school to which teachers are appointed, for example a physics teacher is appointed only to secondary schools while foreign languages teachers teach in primary, gymnasium and lyceum. So, differences in types of settings, curriculum taught and age of pupils are also reflected in this sample. Based on personal understanding of the Greek culture and influenced by my readings, I wanted to consider the implications of such differences for teacher self-evaluation. I attempted to offer at "least a known probability of all members being selected" (deVauss, 1996:108); that is, within the financial and time constraints of this research I tried to ensure participation of schools located in cities and villages, of experienced and novice teachers. Most teachers working in town schools are experienced while most novices work in the provinces.

Data Collection and Sources

Figure 4. Data Sources

	Interviews	Observation	Short Questionnaires	Postal Survey	Documents
Case-Study 1 Primary School	16 interviews: (8 Semi-structured 4 Focused 4 Selective) Daily Recorded Informal Discussions	15 Observations (in playground/ classroom/ staffroom)	13 short questionnaires about teacher professionalism/ environmental conditions/ attitudes towards formal S-E/ educational orientations;	18 questionnaires	Policy Directives Nat. Curriculum Registry Teacher records Leaflets from Teachers' Union
Case-Study 2 Nursery Schools	16 Interviews: (8 Semi-structured 4 Focused, 4 Selective) Daily Recorded Informal Discussions	15 Observations (in playground/ classroom/ staffroom)	13 short questionnaires about teacher professionalism/ environmental conditions/ attitudes towards formal S-E/ educational orientations;	13 questionnaires	Policy Directives Nat. Curriculum Registry Teacher records Leaflets from Teachers' Union
68 Schools distributed in 17 geographical areas				204 questionnaires (see figure 3)	

Data collection was an on-going process that was built upon earlier steps. I progressively focused on issues that needed further clarification to fill gaps in the

derived theory and selected information to develop it. This way a 'chain of evidence' (Yin, 1994) was gradually being shaped. Data collection continued after fieldwork, for instance when I visited the schools at celebration times. I used methods of data collection in conjunction with each other to balance the element of person dependency resulting from direct interaction, to elicit more data, to allow triangulation, to increase validity and consistency (Cohen & Manion, 1994; Adler & Adler, 1994; Breakwell, 1995). The methods I employed were interviewing, observation, short questionnaires, document analysis supplemented by the postal survey (Figure 4).

Interviewing

I needed a suitable method to elucidate perceptions, beliefs and attitudes. Interviewing gives access to a person's thinking and knowledge, preferences and dislikes, allows examination of the motivation of respondents and the reasons for their responses. In interviews complex and filter questions can be used to examine topics in depth (Cohen & Manion, 1994; deVaus, 1996). I started fieldwork with semi-structured interviews to explore what teachers thought, believed and felt towards teacher self-evaluation. I had prepared and piloted my questions but I also sought to be flexible to new impressions. After multiple and lengthy sessions I progressively focused and selected specific issues related to teacher self-evaluation to elicit perceptions of how it was used, what supported or constrained its use, aspects that were valued and the impact on learning and teaching. Verbal responses were recorded and supplemented by notes concerning non-verbal items of the interaction that took place.

Informal discussions and questions asked 'on the spot' informed the study. Valuable data were gathered through non-arranged discussions in the course of my daily contact with teachers or within daily situations; I was looking for explanations so I asked for comments when unexpected information provoked my interest. I kept notes soon after, commenting on issues raised that needed further clarification. As I gradually immersed myself into the field I realised that I was learning a lot from unsolicited accounts (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983). These accounts, combined with the continuous analysis of data, directed my attention on what to focus. At this stage, I introduced cues to get further insights on issues; I used discussion time to elicit information. This process allowed me to share teachers' concerns, advanced my understanding, and helped me consent to their world (Fontana & Frey, 1994) and

opened up silent issues involved in self-evaluation practice. This way it was possible to recognise whether and why teacher self-evaluation was practised, was valued, was influential and to comprehend sensitive issues, such as teacher F's feelings of disappointment. I felt that while teachers were interested in our discussions, some were less open or wanted a clear agenda before hand; using short questionnaires was particularly useful with these teachers. I noticed that multiple explanations would take the discussions further and make issues more explicit.

The validity of interview data depends on whether teachers say what they think or mean what they say or have thought about what they say (MacDonald & Sanger, 1982). I tried to overcome this through my efforts to establish rapport. Interviewing involves person-dependency, which might result in subjectivity and bias on the part of the interviewer (Kvale, 1996). Kvale argues that to overcome this the interviewer has to be viewed as a 'methodological tool' and the direct interactive aspect of the interview to be regarded as 'communication with' and 'action on the social world' (ibid:284-9). I tried to have a sympathetic ear and say as few words as possible. To restrict my influence and to minimise subjectivity I kept reflective notes about the process, consulting and questioning them continuously.

Observation

I needed to examine what occurred in the school. Teaching processes and the climate are the driving forces behind a self-evaluation practice (Kremer-Hayon, 1993). Isolation of the teacher from these elements would leave the description of teachers' self-evaluation practice incomplete or unjust. Observing teachers' actions ought to include an examination of the time, place and interaction (Sprandley, 1980; Strauss, 1987; Hammersley, 1990). I used observation as an integrated 'supportive and supplementary technique' to explore what lay beyond words (Robson, 1993:191-2). I focused on teachers' judgements of their actions, checking contradictions or gaps between what they said they were doing with what they were observed doing. The type of observation employed was a mixed approach both structured and participatory, the focus was on teacher/s' behaviour (Sprandley, 1980; Robson, 1993; Adler & Adler, 1994). The needs and possibilities of each situation were considered while acting as a participant observer; this allowed asking questions and clarifying issues, such as feelings raised because of an incident and how they affected teacher's thinking. To

examine implicit aspects of teachers' behaviour I had to immerse myself into the situation teachers faced, thus I started with unfocused observations (general in scope) using broad descriptive questions, which became 'focused' and 'selected' as the study proceeded (Sprandley, 1980; Adler & Adler, 1994). I tried to be open, adjust to particular circumstances and although I could officially enter in any place, respecting teachers' wishes I observed classrooms only when the teacher agreed. I thought my presence in the school was enough to allow teachers to reflect without raising worries, so I oriented my attention on the dialogue that occurred and the comments teachers made, for instance, about pupils' performance. My presence could disturb teachers (Adler & Adler, 1994); this effect could turn out to be an advantage for the purposes of this study since it could lead teachers "to a more analytic reflection about processes and group functioning" (Robson, 1993:197).

In the staffroom I did not keep notes; as a teacher, I have been part of valuable conversations that I did not want to prohibit or shadow with my note keeping. This occurred when I was alone. Such conversations had been valuable in directing my attention to various important issues, such as judgements about others' teaching. In the classroom I kept notes continuously. When none of the issues in which I was interested occurred, I wrote about the individuals and the interaction between them, drew sketches of classroom arrangements or noted down inferences. Sometimes I would keep a distance, other times I would help the teacher or the children. In the playground I took notes of observed action and recorded my reflective comments separately.

Short questionnaires

During fieldwork, I used questionnaires containing two or three statements or questions as a strategy for approaching the interview process. The intention was to make the teacher, and myself, feel at ease, to make explicit my agenda, to enhance active participation on behalf of the teacher and to provoke thinking. These questionnaires were a starting point for discussion that gave the teacher an idea about the issues to be discussed, allowed her to comment on the question/ statement she found of most interest and the interviewing session to be on course. I used such evidence (e.g. interest towards a certain question) in analysis. My impression is that providing a choice to the teacher empowered the situation she was in and gave me a focus.

In the light of emerging theory I found myself needing to acquire specific information. I constructed and used short questionnaires to get information about specific issues (Simons, 1995), such as educational and professional orientations, teacher professionalism, teachers' perceptions of their school's environmental conditions and their attitudes towards formal self-evaluation procedures (Appendix 2F-G). These issues are suggested from the relevant literature as having an effect on the practice of teacher self-evaluation. Such issues were examined through other means but the collected data indicated that I needed additional information to form a complete picture about them. Teachers completed these questionnaires at their own convenience and answers were clarified in follow-up discussions.

Document Analysis

I noticed that directives arrived at school daily but teachers were not always informed about them, sometimes because of their disinterest or because the Head did not provide them. I decided to examine some records that schools keep, for instance the pupils' records and the register, which I used to examine the kind of information that was delivered or left the school. Some records revealed how teachers thought of their practice and allowed me to discuss their interest to understand and question official legislation. State schools do not issue documents of regulations or principles attended, so I investigated leaflets from teachers' unions to extract principles that teachers' unions associated with 'good' teaching. At classroom level I examined documents, such as textbooks, teachers' feedback on pupils' worksheets, assessment tests (official and constructed by the teachers), and parts of the NC.

Management and Coding

Data management is important for the outcomes produced (Strauss, 1987; Miles and Huberman, 1994; deVaus, 1996). In learning to use a statistical program for analysing the postal survey results, I focused on developing a way of layering and structuring the collected data and the conducted analysis. Field notes, transcribed interviews and tapes were headed with the name of sites, dates and persons involved [nursery4:16/1/02:A] and stored. Lists of categories (e.g. PURP for purposes) were referenced to the field notes they were derived from and coded according to topics (e.g. L/PURP for learning purposes) and along with memos and diagrams were stored in

files, which included an index page. For example, the second diagram about purposes was filed: D2-L/PURP:nursery4:20/1/02. I made a 'code-book' (deVaus 1996; Oppenheim, 1996), that is, a file including the questionnaire, the coding I used, labels for every question, answer categories with code values and a list of numbers allocated to variables. I kept a reflective diary and a log documenting thoughts and procedures during data collection and analysis. Also 'segment-files' in which record sheets linked segments together to be used to support arguments during write-ups. False initials were given to teachers within the text. The method from which information was yielded is described in various ways (e.g. while observing...; the case study teachers' response in the postal survey...) to ensure clarity about where data came from.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is not a distinct stage of the research but a continuous process that starts before fieldwork and lasts until the last comments are added for presenting the findings (Strauss, 1987; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Barrett, 1995). Analysis began with the formulation of the research problems and questions when making the first choices about the sites and subjects to be investigated. It continued through out the pilot and main fieldwork, especially when collecting and analysing data in order to decide about adjustments in the research design, or when reflecting on my field notes and thinking about where to look or what to do next to acquire the information I needed. For descriptive reasons data analysis is discussed in separate phases.

In the initial phase I explored the relevant literature; this familiarised me with areas of concern, allowed the identification of important issues and the formulation of research questions, and informed methodological choices regarding the sites, subjects, data sources and collection procedures. At this stage I thought that research aimed at exploring, understanding and explaining teachers' self-evaluation practice would be well served by grounded theory. Flexibility, openness, fluidity were characteristics of this approach; theories grounded in the data collected examine consequences, tactics, interaction and conditions that surround a phenomenon (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The next phase concerns the pilot work in which I tested the research design for its feasibility and the developed measurements for their effectiveness in yielding useful information. I became familiar with grounded theory procedures and guidelines and realised how they worked in my study; for instance, the pilot experience and analysis

had implications for action, some of which were described earlier. These procedures guided analysis, clarified my thinking and provided reassurance about outcomes.

The following phase concerns the analysis during the main fieldwork. It includes compiling the collected information (interview transcripts, field notes, memos, diagrams, reflective notes, questionnaire response) into a database (Miles & Huberman, 1994) and storing it in separate files; postal survey response was kept separate from similar responses of the case study sample. As Strauss (1987) suggests I started with open coding using a microscopic approach for analysing data. In the first three interviews I moved from line analysis to phrases and paragraphs, questioning words or phrases to reveal dimensions of the concepts I extracted from my data. In coding these concepts I tried to use in-vivo codes (that is, terms found in my data), when this was not possible I came up with a code; in-vivo codes are for example 'self-restriction' and 'jockeying', constructed codes are 'formal discourse' and 'acceptable discourse'. Then, I moved to a macroscopic approach by comparing several indicators for similarities and differences; categories emerged which were continuously compared with old and new indicators in order to generate new properties and dimensions for coded categories. Simultaneously I looked for subcategories and constructed diagrams, which indicated interrelations. 'Formal' and 'informal' types of teachers' discourse for example were categories, which included subcategories, that is, distinct types of teachers' discourse, one of them including two subcategories in its own -'positive' and 'negative' discourse. In this process, conditions, consequences, strategies were identified and were included in diagrams to create a visual picture. Writing memos occurred when I thought of how the evidence was connected with my knowledge of the literature and when questions were raised that guided me towards other directions.

When several categories emerged, I focused on each one doing an intense analysis around it. For example, when identifying the category 'determine teaching and learning needs' as a core category, I focused on conditions and consequences associated with it. Looking at how categories related (ibid:32) led to drawing conceptual maps picturing this relation. Strauss (1987:64) defines these procedures as 'axial' coding. When core categories became distinct I coded systematically around ones I thought useful for the study, for example, when coding around self-evaluation purposes, I focused around three core categories, 'determine teaching and learning needs',

'clarifying understanding', 'accountability'. Limiting coding to only those codes that related to core codes allowed me to focus on topics relevant in significant ways to the study; this is what Strauss (1987:33) terms 'selective' coding. These core categories led to my sampling of individuals, incidents, processes and so on. Sometimes selective coding and open coding occurred together to "minimise the overlooking of important categories" and develop "a conceptually dense theory", both verified and qualified (ibid:31). Using open coding was necessary when conceptual maps and diagrams redirected my attention to gaps; however, in selective coding I was aware of where I was going (e.g. when investigating the impact of what teachers identified as 'self-restriction') and as a result my memos became focused progressively. During the coding process I tested my propositions in several situations to see if they were sustainable, such as the proposition 'teachers' self-evaluation practice depends on teachers' interest for teaching' was tested with teachers who declared their enjoyment of teaching and others searched for ways to escape teaching. Making constant comparisons between categories, connecting them, rearranging memos and codes resulted in more elaborate diagrams. I focused on finding the main pattern or theme that could sum up what was happening and how, what things were associated with it, as well as why it was happening, which led to integrating categories to achieve theoretical saturation and provide density to the analysed concepts. This required consulting the literature to confirm and further my understanding of issues I attended to or might have missed.

The next phase concerns the iterative reading and rewriting of each database. Data were organised more systematically into subsets. I paid extra attention to data that pointed at diverse self-evaluation practices and highlighted issues and factors that had an impact on it. When writing each case I tried to move from description to inference by positing some explanation, occasionally using references to previous studies. Chapters five and six present the case studies that I conducted in one primary school (case-study 1) and six nurseries (case-study 2). Emergent issues regarded as important for the topic under study and each specific case guided the organisation of chapters.

The study was interested in using statistics to examine relationships in terms of correlation, not causation (Light et al, 1990:32). The content and face validity of the questions were tested in the pilot study by seeking teachers' 'subjective judgements' to determine the appropriateness of the measurement; the construct validity of the

measurement was based on in-depth interviews with teachers, personal experience and knowledge derived from readings on teacher self-evaluation and related areas. The pilot sample was very small so only the collected data from the main study were subjected to statistical analysis using SPSS (ed. 11.0). This analysis included only responses to closed questions and attitude statements; the open questions were analysed using grounded theory procedures. The scaled questions were tested for validity and reliability. They were treated by item analysis, computing coefficient alpha and item-to-item correlation in order to investigate the internal consistency of the scales. The Principal Components Analysis with varimax rotation was performed to see if the produced constructs agreed with the theoretical model that I had in mind, when developing the questionnaire. This way the validity of the constructed scale measurement was checked (Kim & Mueller, 1978). The following criteria were applied to determine items that served to measure a construct: only items with high factor loading on the factor and items with factor loading more than 0.50 were attended to in analysis. Chapter seven discusses the findings of the postal survey.

The final phase involved reading each case and identifying important issues, similarities and differences across cases. A revisiting of the literature in the field occurred in an attempt to find information about issues and concerns raised by the study that could help me to maintain a critical stand towards my field experiences and decide on ways of presentation. Both the reading of cases and of the relevant literature helped me understand, compare, conceptualise abstract categories and make theoretical propositions. The cross-case analysis in chapter eight refers to the analysis of the case studies and the analysis of the findings from the postal survey. I checked if the data fitted propositions and the overall frame developed and drew the final conclusions.

CONSTRAINTS

Time has been a major constraint given the fact that I was a single researcher limited by the timeframe of educational leave. Considering the complexity of the issues studied and the number of persons involved the time spent at schools was limited. Immersion into the life of one primary and six nursery schools, exploring deeply the situations trying to get a detailed insight of teachers' self-evaluation practice and transcribing recordings required more time than the six months I spent in the field. The

study lacks in this sense the richness, depth and validity of long-term full-scale ethnographies (e.g. Elliott, 1975; Ball, 1984).

The relationships I developed, the number of staff in each school, and the school functioning presented further constraints. For example, some teachers were more open and willing than others to share their self-evaluation experiences, or exhibited the capacity to elaborate and raise issues that provoked my thinking and directed my search for data. This resulted in the development of closer relations with them (e.g. teachers CH and V), which might have acted restrictively in approaching more distant or seemingly indifferent teachers and in yielding more data and possibly distinct pictures of self-evaluation practice (Hammersley, 1990). The number of school staff seemed to play a role in the relationships developed. In the nurseries for example, where I had the chance to interact with fewer teachers at a time, the development of relations was easy. In all cases the range and variety of data and my own viewing of the schools were influenced by the relations developed or the way classrooms operated (Ball, 1984). It is true that different teachers directed my attention towards varying important issues; however, in nurseries almost all teachers exhibited willingness and contributed equally to my knowledge of these schools. Nursery classes were familiar with hosting outsiders (such as parents); this made my presence a natural process for teachers and pupils. This was not the case in the primary school where the sense of classroom isolation and feelings of territoriality were mostly observable.

Constraints derived from a number of validity issues. For example, my effect on the collected data and on the situations in which I participated, the effect of the relationships I had developed and its effect on the emphasis and orientation of the issues discussed with participants have influenced the research outcomes. My efforts to minimise errors and bias through consistency in the methods and tools that I used during data collection and analysis were my armoury for avoiding bias and mistakes. I tried to stay detached and critical during fieldwork and made my interpretations and assumptions clear when writing up the findings. Nevertheless, I was investigating sensitive and implicit issues, such as how teachers' judgements were formed, the origin of teachers' decisions and the nature of teachers' reflections. Given the implicit and complex nature of the issues under study, at times it was not fully possible to suspend my perceptions and assumptions. Our viewing of things is coloured and limited by what

we are (Ball, 1990; Hammersley, 1990; Woods, 1996). Thus, my personality, assumptions and value system interfered with my practice and this needs considering.

Moreover, the language used during data collection differed from the one used in the presentation of the findings. The research was conducted in Greece, the dialogues were in Greek; this means that, apart from my field notes, the collected data were interpreted from Greek to English. Accurate translation of meanings was difficult (Smith, 1999; Hudson, 2002). Especially in the case of idiomatic expressions and when words had an ambivalent meaning, translation could change significantly what a participant said. For example, many teachers used the word 'diathesi', which could be translated as 'disposal', 'availability', 'mood', 'disposition' and 'intention'. An experienced translator would have distinguished easily the different context each translation would fit; however it took me longer to find out that the accurate translation was 'disposition' instead of 'intention' that I thought and chose initially. Translating from English to Greek presented problems too. The meaning attached to concepts in different linguistic contexts appeared to be a constraint. Ball (1994) argues that when texts change contexts new meanings are applied to them; the same seems to stand with concepts changing in a linguistic context. For instance, the meaning attached to 'reflective' practice by the English literature cannot be translated easily using the relevant word in the dictionary. Such use suggested deliberate contemplation, a high-ordered kind of thinking and questioning as met in Aristotle and Plato and these confused teachers. I had to spend time and energy in discussions to find which word corresponded best and was meaningful to teachers.

The consideration of the constraints closes the discussion on methodology. The next two chapters present the case-study findings. Data are organised and presented in sections indicated by the literature and my own field experience as central and important for the topics under discussion. These sections concern the aims of the case and the context of the schools, purposes of teacher self-evaluation, processes and development in self-evaluation practice and supporting and constraining conditions. Sections include subsections; for example the section 'purposes' includes two subsections, 'developing understanding' and 'accountability'. Data were divided into subsets, which should not be viewed as static lists of distinctly separate items. Concepts, their features and dimensions cannot be accurately depicted if they are seen as fragments and not as a unity, as inextricably interrelated. Categorising data might have obscured the rich,

interactive and complex dynamics of concepts but organisational, descriptive and analytical reasons necessitated using categories for identifying and presenting the concepts, their properties and interrelations.

CHAPTER FIVE
THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

This chapter presents the case-study of a typical urban primary school in terms of student and teacher population, teachers' qualifications, school organisation and management, pedagogy and curriculum. The case-study is constructed using content analysis of school documents and interpretative analysis of interview, short questionnaire and observation data. The aims of this case-study are followed by a description of the specific school context and the analysis of findings.

AIMS

The main aim is to reach an understanding of teachers' conceptions of self-evaluation and how those conceptions are enacted in practice. This study seeks to explore what meaning and purposes teachers' self-evaluation practice fulfils and what value teachers attach to such practice.

The question of how teachers self-evaluate their practice is examined by analysing the role of interaction and feedback in the self-evaluation process. To understand fully the process of teacher self-evaluation the constraints and supports are analysed in an examination of this practice over time.

CONTEXT

The school

This primary school was located in a building at the centre of Larissa, surrounded by blocks of flats and busy roads. The lack of space was not only evident from the size of some classrooms and the cemented playground but also from the fact that two primary schools shared this building in shifts. Teachers appeared dissatisfied with the school accommodation:

> 'From my first day in this school I hear that they are going to rebuild it; I hope it will happen in the ten years that I have to retirement' (Teacher CH)

Desks in all classrooms were arranged in three rows, a table and blackboard were at the front; a few posters and students' work were displayed. The staff-room was also the Head's office. A separate computer room was available for teaching purposes however during my time in the field I observed only two teachers using it. I asked teacher CH to explain why others did not use this room:

'Why should teachers bother? You need to want to do more than asked to change your practice'

Registry records indicated that one hundred and eighty-eight students attended the school, coming from a variety of educational (e.g. one third of the parents held a higher education degree) and ethnic backgrounds (e.g. 8% were minority students). The student population seemed typical since according to government statistics, 601,186 students attended primary schools in 2000; 40,653 of them belonged to ethnic minority groups (Express, 2001:p14). There were two classes for each grade (six grades in total), each having fifteen to twenty-three students. Eighteen teachers worked in the school, fourteen primary teachers and four subject specialists, foreign language (1), music (1) and physical education (2), a typical combination for urban primary schools. Years of teaching experience among subject specialists ranged from three to twelve, while all primary teachers had more than seventeen years of experience. Teachers taught up to twenty-two hours per week but classes, depending on grade, were taught twenty-two to thirty hours; this extra time was supplemented by the Head and two teachers, as prescribed by legislation for this type of school.

Relationships

When I first contacted the school to negotiate participation in the research I was left with the impression that a supportive climate existed and teachers discussed openly their problems. However, on the second day in the staffroom I was warned not to sit in a particular area because the seats were 'occupied'. Throughout that day I observed that nobody sat there. Later that week I observed that a group of five teachers met up on a regular basis. For example, they had coffee together in the playground when only one of them was on duty and excluded others from their conversations. In the second week I heard teacher NI (a member of that group) shout at the Head '*Who changed the timetable? You know that I asked to be on duty with R!*' The Head explained that he would look into it and consequently changed teacher K's timetable. Next day he responded to teacher K's complaint: '*You know how things are; let it be*'. Another teacher (Teacher N) who had taught at this school for four years explained that this tension started when the current Head replaced the former Head (teacher R). The micro-politics of this situation became evident when I interviewed R:

'I self-evaluate for me because no matter how well you perform, they (AO)

> throw you in the waste bin. Look at me, they illegitimately appointed him (the Head)...I am still upset... it was not easy to take court action...'

Nias and colleagues (1989) researching relationships in primary schools have discussed the impact of subgroups on the school environment. In this case study tensions emerged from comments or claims this sub-group made. Like the Head, the remaining teachers seemed unable to confront this group's claims. Such tensions in relationships created a climate that constrained open dialogue.

Qualifications

Most teachers had two years of initial studies, two held a second university degree, six had attended in-service training that lasted more than six months. From the first staffroom discussions that I witnessed, some teachers persistently claimed that in-service training was not for them either because they planned to retire, were unwilling to learn new things or had family problems. From later discussions I found that none of these teachers had received more than two days in-service training yearly. Why did some teachers perceive further education and training, as a necessary pursuit while others did not? How did teachers' perceptions of improving their own learning impact on their judgements and decisions about their teaching? How did they affect teacher understanding? These teachers were the sole evaluators of teaching; its improvement depended on informal daily evaluations of their own teaching situation. Why and how these teachers self-evaluated their practice follows.

SELF-EVALUATION PURPOSES

Teachers appeared to self-evaluate for understanding and for accountability.

Developing Understanding

Self-evaluation for understanding teaching practice is discussed below with reference to determining teaching and learning needs and clarifying teacher understanding of appropriate ways to act. Self-evaluation for identifying one's strengths and weaknesses in teaching, for assessing and diagnosing needs and attainments, for achieving awareness of practice were subsumed under this purpose.

Determining teaching and learning needs

Self-evaluation for identifying one's strengths and weaknesses in teaching was possible through one's monitoring of judgements and decisions and their effect on pupils' learning. I use the example of grade 2 teacher N (who I observed in her class the second week and also during the focused phase of fieldwork) to indicate the way she did that. In the second observation of her teaching, N was teaching geographical concepts such as plateau, mountain, valley and swamp in the subject 'Study of the Environment'. She used sketches, books and drawing pads. First she invited pupils to recall the previous lesson, asked them to look at pictures and to read silently the description underneath. Then she asked pupils to share experiences, provided definitions and connected facts between this unit and past topics offering additional information. At the end she asked pupils to draw scenes of the concepts learnt. She was circulating in the classroom, asking for attention and insisting on all expressing a view. She used prompts to initiate pupils' response. She seemed to encourage pupils to answer. Pupils appeared familiar with the process, were calm and disciplined, answering in order. She did not raise her tone of voice for the duration of the thirty-five minute lesson. In her teaching, elements of the 'advance organisers' teaching model developed by Ausubel (1963) were evident. At the end she was anxious to comment:

> 'I think the majority have reached a basic understanding. I am not very pleased. Looking at their faces and reactions, I kept thinking that I am not going to teach these concepts again without the use of multiple teaching aids... children should have a physical experience to what they are taught... I should talk to the Head to order play dough, slides...'

She used the feedback she received during teaching to evaluate her performance. The assessment of her behaviour and pupils' reactions revealed the need to use concrete material and multiple aids to facilitate learning, to use a more experiential approach to learning when teaching abstract concepts. It was the awareness she reached by reflecting on her teaching that urged her to make judgements regarding her pedagogy, instruction and assessment. Such judgements had directly influenced her understanding of the way pupils experience learning. Most teachers in the interview associated the assessment and diagnosis of classroom needs with the recognition of their strengths and weaknesses in teaching; such a combination appeared to allow teachers to feel confident about their judgements (e.g. to exclude methods, aids and strategies) and to motivate them to search for new ones in order to *'move forwards'* (teacher K). However:

'Progress is not only up to me...(but also) on the pupils I've got' (Teacher H) Self-evaluating attainments with a focus on pupils' capabilities, not equally on teachers' intervening efforts, had implications for teachers' expectations of their practice. In the staff-room teachers often made comments such as, '*these pupils are not as capable as last year*' (Teacher H), or *'this class is 'flying' (excellent), I need to reconsider what I can do*' (Teacher K). These suggested that they compared intake and learning outcomes of class groups over the years against their own efforts, which implies that teachers changed expectations by drawing from personal and professional knowledge.

Clarifying understanding

Teacher K described in the first interview what she did when realising that there were gaps in pupils' understanding and inability to achieve a set target:

> 'When I realised that pupils kept cutting words in syllables when reading I said to myself 'stop panicking' and see how you can 'steal time' –I usually do that; I started explaining... I didn't want to discourage them, I made jokes, read in funny ways... My explanations were not working -the problem continued for weeks. I kept wondering what I was doing wrong. One day, I started making the sign of scissors, saying... Everybody laughed... When I went home I thought about their reaction and realised I used to cut words into syllables in reading, this might have caused the problem. The next days every time a pupil spoke in syllables I did this sign; at this age, pupils look at you to make sure they are doing OK... I did not interrupt reading. In a few days the problem was solved. It was my mistake that I didn't anticipate such an outcome, to be ready to face it immediately.'

This teacher clarified her understanding of the problem and this appeared to help her identify her mistakes and achievements, set new targets and try new strategies to advance her performance. Similar examples in the interviews made apparent the role of reflexivity. Understanding the cause of misunderstandings did not seem to be an easy and straightforward process. Continuous reflections were needed, strategies were used and decisions of a tentative nature were taken before teachers became aware of what caused misunderstandings. Time was an important dimension in this process:

> 'When I see that children are 'blocked' (confused) I think what other subject I can steal time from' (Teacher C)

The teacher started rating subjects when pupils' misunderstanding alerted her to the need to deal with them. 'Finding time' seemed to be common practice. Teachers K and H often 'stole time' for subjects (e.g. maths) they described as 'first-rank'. Pursuing

this further, they explained that they did not question that '*all subjects contribute to pupils' development*', however, '*the school's aim is to promote academic knowledge*' and '*all pupils nowadays attend private classes for music, physical exercise...*' The higher status given expressed interpretations of what pupils needed to learn without fail in school. This represented a pedagogical decision based on teachers' understanding of priorities, of what they believed was asked of them rather than a devaluing of the lower-status subjects. The emphasis attached to different subjects seemed a stimulus to self-evaluate and suggested a different focus when evaluating subjects described as 'second rank' (e.g. arts). Awareness of the time needed to cover units and of pupils' capabilities seemed important in such decisions:

> 'I know which units are difficult; I save time from topics that children understand easily to spend on difficult topics' (Teacher N)

Similar comments in the staffroom highlighted that prior experiences are important for the evaluation of appropriate further actions. This implies that the development of understanding would present variations between novice and experienced teachers (Airasian & Gullickson, 1994; Kerrins & Cuching, 2000). In the interviews, when I asked teachers CH, N, and K if they considered the views of others when self-evaluating, they all agreed that prior experiences with problems had taught them that listening to parents' remarks helped when deciding about intervention. Valuing feedback from varying sources enriches the evaluation and decision-making process with valuable information. The successful use of such information also required confidence about one's own capacity to solve problems:

> 'To act you need to feel confident that you can find ways to overcome differences' (Teacher V)

Awareness of the actions suitable for the situation seemed vital; teachers might:

> 'make the same effort but achieve different things at different times ... You can't overlook what is available, pupils' level, the resources...' (Teacher N)

What was perceived and felt as the right thing or what could be accomplished at a specific moment affected the choices teachers made. Aristotle's 'proairesis' interpreted by Ross (1993) as 'preferred choice' under specific circumstances, becomes central in self-evaluation. Such choices seemed grounded in beliefs, such as:

> 'The mistake comes from the child; it is for the child. (She) needs to know what she did wrong to make an effort... to find ways to correct it. Otherwise, your judgements can mislead you...' (Teacher H)

> 'I discuss mistakes openly… stress each one; if you don't activate pupils by making them aware of their progress you won't have results...' (Teacher NI)
> 'I systematically try to make pupils participants. When we face a problem we all know about it, we all try to solve it' (Teacher CH)

Teacher beliefs about feedback appeared to drive judgements about active learning, outcomes and the need to develop a sharing community. Observing teacher L twice, I noticed that he did not reply to pupils' comments by usually saying '*stop now*' or '*we'll talk about this later*'. Looking at pupils' notebooks I could see that he had looked through them (e.g. there were corrected mistakes) but no commentary was made. When teacher NI brought pupils' notebooks in the staffroom to correct them I noticed she made extensive comments. Teachers provided different feedback to pupils and this seemed to relate to their beliefs about teaching and learning, affecting directly the kind of interaction they pursued when teaching. I decided to examine teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning through a short questionnaire on educational orientations. I constructed and delivered it to twelve primary teachers. I excluded the Head to focus on classroom teachers. Ten teachers returned it shortly; the rest (although reminded twice) did not. The analysis indicated that teachers valued the social aims of teaching and classroom climate (100%), but some assessed pupils' ability to memorise and comprehend without looking at pupils' ability to evaluate, synthesise and apply ideas. For instance, three teachers reported that pupils' recall of what they were taught and their comprehension of it provided a full picture of pupils' cognitive level. A restricted knowledge of pupils' assessment became evident, which however was important for the way they tried to understand their teaching and for the judgement they made about it.

Accountability

Accountability is discussed with reference to accountability towards the government and the profession. Moral accountability appeared to be fulfilled through the standards teachers had set for their teaching, based on duties and felt responsibilities.

Contractual Accountability

From the first interviews I noticed that teachers focused on fulfilling the NC targets; this suggested a link between self-evaluation behaviour and fulfilment of duties:

> 'The state has put their learning into my hands; the curriculum asks of pupils to read by Christmas... There are certain rules; if you follow them you achieve that' (Teacher K)

Self-evaluating with such a focus could solidify teacher understanding of practice rather than extend it. Self-evaluation for 'contractual accountability' (Becher et al, 1981) implied that teachers examined means (e.g. methods) to match ends (e.g. targets). A focus on given ends can result in reliance on standardised methods, while a focus on class targets can limit attention to individual needs. The four teachers that I observed in seven classroom observations used whole class teaching and provided students with different work only in terms of the number of assignments. Visiting other classrooms, I asked about group teaching; only two teachers said they allowed pupils to work in groups in certain subjects (e.g. arts). All these might reflect an unquestionable acceptance of external targets, thus a denial to disrupt a 'habitual functioning'; for Dewey, however, such "disruption... sets the context on inquiry" (Garrison, 1999:293). Such denial could lead to a devaluing of self-evaluation processes.

When interviewing teacher H and CH on the way they self-evaluated they said:

> 'I decide what I need to do in my classroom. I consider the NC targets and set my own' (Teacher H)
> 'I can't say that I follow the curriculum targets; I set my own when I realise that children haven't assimilated what I think they should learn' (Teacher CH)

Their sense of professional autonomy (Webb, 2002) is obvious. So too is the role of personal interpretations and beliefs in judging and deciding appropriate action. Self-evaluation seemed to rely on the blend of the standards teachers had set for their practice and their interpretations of official targets. Targets, which are concrete and clear points of reference, provide a measurement against which teachers can judge their efforts. The clearer the target the easier it becomes to evaluate the extent of one's achievements, and thus realise the efficiency of one's actions. I often heard teachers when discussing their teaching with others making explicit their targets:

> 'I must talk slowly and clearly...'
> 'I must get more reading done...'
> 'I must help (him) organise his thinking...'
> 'Misunderstandings and failure to achieve learning targets pinpoint my mistakes... omissions... need to make choices' (Teacher V)

The process reflects teachers' sense of professional accountability.

Professional Accountability

All interviewees agreed: self-evaluation was 'teacher's business':

> 'I don't do it for the government; it's my responsibility to know how my pupils are performing' (Teacher H)

Teachers' 'professional' accountability (Becher, Eraut, Knight, 1981), their sense of responsibility towards the professional status, appeared to motivate teachers to search for ways to understand their practice before making decisions:

> 'I self-evaluate for me... to find out how I am moving on and decide what I need to do ...' (Teacher NI)
> 'It helps me see if my teaching makes pupils learn' (Teacher H)

An internal need for knowledge seemed to drive engagement in self-evaluation, supporting Eraut's point (1993) that accountability to oneself is an inherent part of professionalism and central to teachers' development. The conduct of self-evaluation seemed to be valued for the chances it offered to judge the appropriateness of choices and the implications for action, suggesting that self-evaluation could be valued as an end but also as a means to other ends.

Observing teacher L twice and having many informal discussions with him afterwards, I could say that he was a quiet and compassionate teacher; he spoke nicely to pupils, offered advice and solved conflicts. However, the pressure of accountability appeared to mislead his awareness of his own effectiveness. For example, in my sixth week at school, when teacher K brought up in the staffroom her pupils' difficulty to understand what she taught, he said:

> 'I try to 'pass' whatever possible; ...I said a few extra things...I could see that they (children) didn't pay attention but I continued. I need to say some things...even if what I say 'stays' with one pupil, if there is only one listening, there is a profit'

In the discussion that followed, three more teachers reported similar reactions. Beliefs of appropriate professional behaviour appeared to obscure teachers from valuing the needs of their situation. Such needs could become evident if teachers attended to pupils' feedback and realise its importance for teaching. McLaughlin (1999) draws attention to the possibility of reflective thinking leading to misunderstandings.

I started examining whether teachers' sense of accountability towards parents had a similar influence on their awareness of situational needs. I had noticed that teachers communicated class rules to parents, insisting that this was necessary for

pupils. Their notions of professional responsibility and parents' role in supporting their work seemed to urge them to use parents as a means to achieve the end of discipline. I started to explore what happens when parents did not respond to teachers' suggestions. I focused on observing staff-room discussions about pupil's problems and noticed that when parents did not meet teacher expectations, teachers interpreted it as parents denying responsibility. Consequently, when self-evaluating such situations the critical stance towards their own actions was difficult to adopt:

> 'I told them, they didn't listen, it's their problem now' (Teacher X)

Teacher F agreed, '*they want everything from teachers*'. When discussing this observation with X she said that self-evaluation inevitably involves subjective judgements, which can cause '*overestimation of the work one offers*' and affect '*the joy one can draw from evaluating one's own work*'. Teachers might be '*too severe or too flexible*' or make '*irreproachable judgements*'. The bias element underlying self-judgements seemed inherent in teacher self-evaluation when practised privately.

SELF-EVALUATION PROCESSES

Evaluating one's practice could be an unconscious or a conscious practice involving internal (monologue) or external (dialogue) speech (logos) to examine and appreciate the value or worth of one's own actions. Observation, recording and interactive dialogue fed back to this 'speech'.

Unconscious thinking

In interviews when I asked teachers if they evaluated their performance during teaching they looked surprised; for example, CH said '*I cannot do that... my job is to think and decide in seconds*'. Practitioners reflect spontaneously trying to 'frame' their situation using their capacity to 'see-as' and 'do-as' (Schon, 1983:140). Such reflections allow relevant and quick decisions to be made (Gilliss, 1988; Schon, 1987), and seemed to occur when unexpected events '*troubled*' teachers:

> 'Aims have been set up-front; I think about the outcomes when something troubles me' (Teacher N).

Unexpected outcomes made teachers think about the need to '*look back, repeat*', '*observe intensely*', '*give explanations*', '*change method*', '*reflect on reactions*' *and*

'assess pupils'. Such reflections serve pedagogical purposes of decision-making. When I asked teachers N and V why they cannot self-evaluate while teaching they replied:

> 'If I constantly wonder about what I said or did, I'll be lost, the class will be lost.' (Teacher N)
> 'During the lesson I can't go about wavering… (so) time isn't wasted; whatever I don't believe or know, children don't learn' (Teacher V)

Thinking was regarded as interruptive. 'Questioning' and 'wavering' about one's own decisions while acting, was perceived as negatively influencing teaching. Observing teachers D, K and P while preparing for the Christmas' celebration I noticed that when pupils did not understand their instructions each teacher reached different conclusions as to what steps were necessary in order to elicit better understanding. When I asked how they reached such conclusions they said:

> 'It's wise to use what has been effective in the past; it saves time, energy…it's a guide of how to proceed' (Teacher P)
> 'I usually improvise. I have seen that you achieve no results by insisting, on the contrary you do by stimulating their imagination' (Teacher D)

Both teachers operated with what they understood as the best course of action. The first teacher's reflections focused mainly around the strategies of problem solving, not problem setting. The second teacher's attention was directed to discovering how things would turn out testing her reflections before determining the cause and the appropriate strategies. For both teachers, their preconceptions (Schon's 'appreciative systems') guided interpretations acting as 'self-reinforcing systems of knowing-in-practice' (Schon, 1983:268-83). Problems appeared to be the catalyst for reflection for both teachers who however used different ways to make sense of the same event.
Observing N the second week I noticed that she described four times the fighting of two pupils to colleagues; I also heard her saying to pupils:

> 'I remember my feelings when I was your age; a girl hit me, and my teacher did not do anything…. Would you like me to do the same?'

When asked, she could not explain why she acted this way, it *'troubles me'* she said. Her willingness to find a solution led to sharing personal memories. She was trying to form a satisfactory account of the event based on, to use Schon's (1983:273) term, her "overarching theory". That is, she used her understanding of past examples, testing her intuitive knowledge with the one produced during action aiming to find a solution. This however did not seem enough to make her spend time deliberating on the aim and course of her actions. Elliott's (1983) type of unreflective self-evaluation, which

involves not-questioning the principles that underlie decisions, was suggested by similar incidents. 'Searching' for principles and their effect on decisions and 'acting' might be difficult when restrictions of time apply. However "practitioners do frequently think about what they are doing while doing it" (Schon, 1983:275). Garrison (1999) notes that for Dewey 'doing and thinking' are complementary to one another.

Conscious thinking

From the analysis of the first interviews it started to emerge that teachers thought consciously (some teachers used the world 'deliberately') about their teaching when they were faced with persistent problems. I asked teachers what they considered most when self-evaluating. I received answers such as:

> 'I think: what caused the misunderstanding? Who is to blame? I take into serious consideration the child's history and background..' (Teacher K)
> 'I am alert in Maths; I don't want them to feel as I did' (Teacher P).
> 'I think mainly if I did something that affected pupils', especially if I feel that I have hurt their feelings; I have bad memories from my early years' (Teacher N)
> 'I deliberately think about what I did and if I act as if these children were my own' (Teacher D)

Criteria for judging one's own actions seemed related to one's sense of accountability and consciously drawn from biographical memories and feelings. Disconnecting personal memories from professional behaviour seemed difficult (Ayers, 1993; Mitchell & Weber, 1999). A merging of the 'personal' with the 'professional', of internal motives with external incentives was implied. A frequent answer in the semi-structured interview was '*No matter what a person does, one needs to evaluate own actions*'.
A universal value providing incentive for self-evaluation was implied. When searching for differences between the teachers who used the term 'consciously' and 'deliberately' I noticed that teachers who used the word 'conscious' self-evaluated to:

- check on performance: '*thinking if I acted in the correct way*' (Teacher L);
- investigate the need to use another '*correct way*', usually referring to examining choices of methods, tools, language.

Teachers' focus seemed to be in locating specific and proximate matters. They were particularly concerned about the ethical basis of their judgements and actions in their environment. Teachers who used the world 'deliberately' focused more on:

- their actions and beliefs:

> 'I can't make out what I am doing wrong this year; I keep wondering why last year pupils didn't have problems' (Teacher N)
> 'I deliberately question what I believe about my pupils' level of understanding; you can't go further if you don't do that' (Teacher P)

A focus on the personal context predominated in this case. I thought that different views of what is to be considered ethical, and who ought to decide about it, might account for differences in focus in self-evaluation. In both cases, past experiences armed teachers with the capacity to make connections and an ethical dimension underpinned their judgements of practice. All the teachers in the previous examples talked with confidence when I asked for explanations of why they had such focus. They appeared to practice what Elliott (1983) describes as 'self-evaluation as practical deliberation'. When I asked V, CH and N what deliberate self-evaluation requires, they said that teachers must be '*alert and self-critical', 'exercise self-control', 'accept their and others' mistakes', 'want to question their capacities', 'try to develop good communication with pupils*'. Such behaviour reflects personal qualities. The development of such qualities relates to the sources that inform teachers' thinking.

Feedback

Feedback in the self-evaluation process was used for formative and summative purposes (Scriven, 1967), for decision-making and accountability (Shinkfield and Stufflebeam, 1995). The formative function facilitated action during teaching; its contribution seemed conclusive after teaching when used for regulating interpersonal relations: '*how my feelings for this pupil affected his reaction*'; intervening efforts: *'what made my comments need clarifications'*; understanding outcomes: *'was it helpful to be strict'*. The summative function was evident when teachers felt that they were called to account for their performance and used the review of their practice to answer to this feeling. Feedback is discussed with reference to recording, observation and correction and interactive dialogue; the latter is discussed with reference to pupils, colleagues and accountability.

Recording

In five classroom observations I noticed that teachers wrote notes inside books. When I asked to see what they wrote they immediately accepted. Most notes were short, describing unexpected difficulties, successful use of methods and pupils' response

in the unit taught. For example, teacher K wrote on her maths teacher-book: *'maybe exercise 2 should be completed first', 'ask them to look at (naming units in other textbooks)', 'pupils need reminding of p...'*. I started asking teachers to show me the kinds of records they keep, if they used another kind in the past and if recording assisted them to understand their practice better:

> 'I used a notepad. It wasn't convenient to note my impressions leaving the activity half-ended... It was rewarding afterwards; I gave up quickly, it was distracting' (Teacher CH)

Teachers showed me achievement and behaviour records; work diaries in which they provided pupils with written feedback, exam records, files of constructed instruments, class diaries of happenings. They said that over the years they used only a few, but the same kinds of records, the justification being '*habits don't change easily*' (Teacher C). Two teachers showed me teacher-parent communication notebooks and said that they kept reflective diaries but were reluctant to disclose them, justification being their private nature. Trust and confidentiality was an issue raised from their reaction, which, however, indicated their insecurity to disclose written thoughts, perhaps self-judgements. Most teachers agreed that recording developed in 'extreme situations' or 'special events' used mainly as evidence or as a reminder; in the words of C and H:

> 'I need to have proof to 'awaken' the parent' (meaning to raise awareness)
> 'I haven't taught this book. I noted down difficulties so as to know what to anticipate next year...and to have proof when the Adviser asks for comments'

The external need that drove recording ('the evidence') implied that it was carried out for summative purposes. This attributed a temporal character in its use; with the disappearance of the need, recording stopped too. The temporality of record keeping was apparent when looking at records: short notes or blank pages followed intensified comments. On only a few occasions was recording connected to improvement purposes of a formative nature (i.e. work diaries) and in most cases served assessment purposes. Recording did not seem to be used as an effective strategy in self-evaluation (Adams & Burgess, 1989), raising an issue for attention at policy level (e.g. content of training).

Observation and Correction

All teachers mentioned they made sense of the way their teaching was progressing by observing pupils' actions, and none reported using an observation

instrument. The common phrase was: *'I keep my eyes and ears open'*. When asked what they achieved from observing pupils', they seemed surprised:

> 'You can't make sense without looking what's happening around' (Teacher P).
> 'To have forty eyes watch you is a talent, to have two eyes to watch over forty others is a teacher's duty' (Teacher NI)

Observation, used as a means to assist teachers to focus on appropriate intervention served ends such as, identifying *'what needed to be done', 'what was omitted', 'why the expected result was not achieved'*. Instant clarification of misunderstandings and decision-making were served. The diagnostic function of observation appeared central in self-evaluation.

Observation outcomes were confirmed during 'correction', which was seen as an effective intervening activity to acquire information from pupils:

> 'Pupils make mistakes. It's my job to see and clarify them and make pupils aware' (Teacher H)

Teachers' own observations appeared to allow them to detect 'turbulence in practice' (Schon, 1983) while correction allowed intervention to restore 'turbulence'. As teacher H confirmed when we discussed a maths' test in the staff-room *'many times I come to realise what went wrong in my teaching by correcting their mistakes'*. Teachers H and V provided examples of what they thought before intervening:

> 'Did I speak clearly enough? He has a problem in articulating long words'
> 'Did my comment scare her? She should have understood this concept'

Associating actions to what they perceived as a child's strong and weak points was common. Observing teacher H twice in her classroom, I noticed that she used different comments when correcting one pupil but used restrictive comment when correcting another. She explained that the first pupil (*an 'A' student'* she said) exhibited a high level of understanding, thus he received an explanation appropriate for his type of problem; she felt that using various explanations could solve his misunderstanding. The second pupil was a different case, *'a slow learner'* she said; this perception and her experience with him shaped her expectations:

> 'He is confused; I am pleased if he understands one thing at a time. It's better to learn little and well than many and muddled'

Similar comments signified the relation of perception to action: teacher perceptions of pupils' capabilities connected to decisions about specific actions and were indisputably

decisive when provision of learning opportunities was involved. During the correction process teachers appeared to try to confirm their judgements while assisting pupils to clarify their mistakes; in this context, 'correction' was a form of interactive dialogue which had the potential to advance teachers' and pupils' learning.

Interactive dialogue with pupils

When conducting classroom observation I noticed that when misunderstandings occurred teachers used to remind pupils of previous knowledge, to insist on issues using '*more examples*', '*simpler language*'; '*you have to leave aside complex ideas*'. Such reflections involved the questioning of one's own actions: '*Did I make clear the difference of multiplication and division?*' (Teacher P). When I asked teacher K in an informal staff-room discussion what she did if class understanding was not improved, she said that she '*did not move further*'. This action connected to her understanding of class performance:

> 'Pupils lead my actions; I don't reject what I was using, I reconsider and express my judgements in a different way'

When thinking was 'disrupted' (Garrison, 1999) a readjustment or reorganisation of what teachers knew seemed to follow. Teaching was considered successful when the majority of the pupils demonstrated understanding: '*If most pupils understand I know my teaching is successful*' (Assistant Head). Assessment of class performance seemed to develop teacher understanding of their own performance. Confronted with a unanimous focus on class performance I looked for the reason. The answers that I received from the ten teachers that I asked were based on the grounds that insistence on individual performance could '*move the class backwards*' or '*stop the class from progressing*'. What mattered for progress seemed to be how most parts (pupils) that made up a whole (class) moved without being affected by the parts (individual pupils) that resisted movement. Teachers consciously included all pupils when teaching, trying to '*bring children along the same canal*' (Assistant Head):

> 'You can't rely on low achievers; you think you achieved, then, you are back to point zero wondering what went wrong. The same stands for high achievers, no matter how nice you feel you wonder about your contribution' (Teacher N)

Teachers seemed to need positive, lasting and group results when pupils' performance was used as a criterion for measuring their own performance:

> 'You can't assess pupils' performance without assessing your own' (Teacher P).

'A pupil's mistake is of the pupil and for the pupil, it's not mine' (Teacher C)

Pursuing further comments that disassociated teacher performance from individual performance I asked teachers if they always thought this way. The analysis of their response led to writing this memo the last week in the field:

Teachers' familiarity with class pupils appears to lead to the belief that 'attention to particular needs can obscure understanding of the 'mean' of the class' (Teacher NI). Having come across children who were 'quick', 'slow' and 'unreceptive' learners appears to reinforce their belief to attend to 'wholeness' as reflected in the 'mean'. This experience provides strategies for coping with individual problems -some are: 'provide extra help', 'keep a close eye', 'use ways that worked in other cases', 'use others to help the child', 'assign the child to a support class', 'remove the child'.

I examined whether teachers focused more on class or individual performance after teaching. From staff-room notes it appeared that class performance predominated in teachers' reflections with teachers moving from evaluating outcomes to an assessment of the way pupils had learnt. For example, teacher V mentioned examining questions such as:

> 'What else could I do to make pupils use many sources?'
> 'Was it reading the book or my questions that made them answer this way?'

Focusing on knowledge acquisition appeared to help establish learning habits:

> 'To make pupils aware of the way they should learn is the most important... also the most exhausting' (Teacher K)
> 'If you say 'I want you to learn this by heart' because the curriculum requires it, then you lose in substance...' (Teacher V)

The 'constants' teachers brought to their teaching situations (languages and repertoires, overarching theories, appreciative systems, role frames) seemed to determine the way they perceived and acted upon their situation (Schon, 1983). This implies that 'constants' could account for differences in using individual performance as an indicator for one's own performance. These teachers seemed to consider individual performance in their self-evaluations only when a sudden change challenged their perception of a child's strong/weak points, or when assigned to a new class. That is, when fit rules were absent and the framing of the situation required developing new rules to get a feel of problems. A discrepant case was teacher CH:

> 'This child challenged my abilities. I insisted on… spending endless time explaining, trying to get inside his brain. I feel pleased for not letting one child go to waste because of me'.

This teacher's criterion ('individual success depends on teacher's ability') determined his sense of responsibility for ensuring individual progress and his focus on examining its fulfilment. Lack of achievement in this area reflected a personal failure. It appeared that individual performance could be used to evaluate one's teaching capacity and to question one's worthiness as a teacher depending on the professional identity the teacher had constructed for her role in teaching. Such identity drove the choice of self-evaluation criteria and focus, and also affected collegial communication.

Interactive dialogue with colleagues

In staff-room observation, I often heard teachers discussing methods, coverage of subject matter, strategies, pupils' learning. I had noticed that teacher NI would not discuss her teaching in the staff-room, although she would listen and contribute with caustic comments. In my tenth week in the school, and having developed a good relation with her, I decided to discuss this with her. It appeared that the magnitude of problems could determine teacher's active search for collegial feedback:

> 'No matter how much I tried it seemed useless; considering my experience it wasn't an easy decision to talk about it…' (Teacher NI)

In choosing whom to approach, similar experience seemed to matter more than years of teaching experience; practical, specific and lasting solutions seemed sought. Teacher NI explained her attitude. She said that when she told colleagues that she would bring the mother of a child to assist her with solving his problems:

> 'Teachers mocked me. One said 'there is no need to worry yourself excessively he'll get over it'. I was terribly annoyed. I've learnt my lesson; I'll think hard before daring to open up again' (Teacher NI)

She shared her decision expecting collegial support. She used the dialogue to reinforce her judgements; not being treated the expected way, she perceived the opinions, which were offered, offensive. This raised annoyance and threat; in her case it did not affect her decision but resulted in cautiousness towards problem-sharing. The role of positive or negative experiences of feedback in teacher self-evaluation becomes crucial once self-judgements are put under the scrutiny of others. Authors have stressed (Gipps, 1994; Drummond, 1994; Klenowski, 1995) the importance of such experiences for both

teachers and pupils in pupils' assessment and in the practice of pupil self-evaluation. Teacher NI said this was not the first time: *'colleagues do not really care for what happens in your classroom'*. Repeated negative experiences could lead to restricting problem-sharing and accepting problematic situations as 'given': *'I can't change anything, I have to move on'* (Teacher NI). Perceiving a situation as 'given' reflects a school climate in which teacher problems remained individualised, hopes for solution were overlooked, open relationships and trust on the ability of the school to offer solutions were undermined. Such a climate sets the grounds for dialogues that aim for self-protection; this follows.

Interactive dialogue used for accountability purposes

I noticed that most teachers paid attention to what they said in the staffroom. Discussing this with teachers V and CH, they said:

> 'I try not to cross boundaries; I need to protect what I do'
> 'You get to know what is 'flying in the environment and you cover yourself'

Teacher V explained that rules cannot be overlooked, *'unless you are stupid'* he noted, *'or want to be a hero'* added teacher CH. Kelly (1963:120) argues that "a person's processes are psychologically channelled by the ways in which he anticipates events and that these ways exist in the form of constructs" which, as 'abstractions' of several events, enable one to make sense of them and make concrete predictions. I thought a third contrasting element was missing (ibid:116-119) from these teachers' predictions of the outcomes of open communication; these appeared to reflect an "if-then-but-not reasoning" 'validated' by their professional experience (ibid:122). When discussing this further, the missing construct appeared to be 'wise' (Teacher V) or 'responsible' (Teacher CH). This could explain that although teacher performance was hardly an issue of common concern, teachers made it an issue by justifying self-judgements and actions. In this context, self-judgements reflected the accountability pressure (internal and external to the teacher) and the ways this could constrain the development of clear understanding of how teachers performed. I cite three examples to illustrate the way dialogue was used as a means for protection. These cover teacher communication with parents, colleagues and hierarchy.

Grade 6 teacher CH insisted on the Head informing the parents when faced with the problem of a 'restless' pupil and the disruptive effect on class; parents *'ought to acknowledge their responsibility'* he said. I talked to grade 1 teacher K about this:

> 'We need to cover ourselves; in the end, a parent sleeping -thinking his child was progressing- needs to be awakened (informed)'

When teachers perceived they functioned as 'news-breakers', driven by feelings of accountability they actively sought to protect their practice and used conversation as a means to achieve this end. However, as James (1989) notes, when discussing descriptive assessment, 'dialogue' and 'negotiation' are distinct processes, based on different assumptions regarding context, purposes, procedures, principles, and involving different kinds of power and authority. She suggests that 'dialogue' is a process, which is 'educational in intent' (1989:10). Her suggestions are relevant in teacher self-evaluation. Teachers as 'news breakers', have a privileged role that includes control over the communicated information. This provides little reassurance that these teachers really conversed with parents, and were not just 'negotiating' their power position.

The way teachers co-operated with each other illustrates in another context their attempts to protect their position. A plethora of photocopied homework, the Head's requests for limiting it, the lack of time due to mandatory textbooks, made me examine the purpose of photocopies and their contribution to teacher understanding of practice. Grade 1 teacher D insisted that photocopies assisted pupils assimilate what she taught. While helping her I found out that photocopies were made for both year one classes:

> 'Giving the same homework secures teachers from being commented on as one working hard, the other being lazy. Parents see it this way...'

Photocopied work was used for protecting one's teaching from criticism, instead of promoting pupils' learning. The same stood for year 3 teachers H and N making me think that teachers saw diversity of practice as making their work vulnerable to the criticism of others and using co-operation to 'shield' practice, not to understand it better. Checking the content of photocopies revealed that the Adviser's request to teachers to construct their own worksheets had resulted in an incoherent collection from books in hand-written script to give the impression that it was the teachers' own work. This explained how teachers could explain the use of sheets as a whole, but they were unable to determine how individual exercises helped improvement in specific areas. This suggests that the feedback teachers could gain from assessing pupils' attainments could

not be fully utilised by teachers to create opportunities for future learning. This way the purpose and effect of their assessment of outcomes served a summative function (Gipps, 1994; Struyf et al, 2001). This example suggested that when teachers perceived a request as useless, or were not capable of questioning its rationale or misunderstood its aims, they tried to find ways to overcome the issue escaping what was asked. These are factors that constrain the development of understanding via self-evaluation. Since open acceptance of such practice was allowed, the school, as an institution that ought to promote learning, had its share in the way these teachers developed understanding of practice. A critical examination of teachers' actions should be promoted in schools (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Dalin & Rust, 1983) but this was not evident.

The ways officials reacted to teachers' problems explains in another context the way judgements of practice served accountability purposes. Teacher N's complaints of not getting help from officers seemed to contradict her insistence in informing them about problems. When asked why, she said among others: '*I said as much as was needed. I informed him as a subordinate*'. Her aim was not to solve the problem but to diffuse responsibility. Awareness of contractual accountability made her withhold information from the officer responsible for supporting her. This raises an issue about the extent to which the accountability pressure can account for corrupted behaviour in teachers, including teachers' deceptive efforts to exaggerate problems or to show a contrived improvement of practice. Such behaviour seemed strengthened when the officers' actions perpetuate the practice of diffusing responsibility. In two official meetings I observed, the Officer replied to teacher H about substitute replacement (thus teachers' free-time not being violated): '*Hariclia is a whining person but we love her*'; and the Adviser made a speech of teachers' capabilities without answering to teacher CH about the delay in arrival of geography books. Such behaviour could not sustain open dialogues. Teachers concealed the concerns expressed before meetings. This implied that teachers needed to find other ways to deal with them, and that such experiences over time can affect the way teachers perceived their accountability.

DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-EVALUATION

Teachers were asked to recall their novice self-evaluation experiences as compared to their present knowledge. It appeared that changes brought to self-evaluation practice were closely related to situational experiences.

The Novice Teacher

Teachers reported that when they were novices they relied on prescriptive theories based on the logic 'if I do this that will happen' and felt unable to control their feelings and reactions. Self-judgements were based on pupils' weaknesses and tests; when combined with the feelings of 'uncertainty' and 'stress' caused by unsuccessful outcomes, they were implications for the kind of self-evaluation conducted:

'I couldn't anticipate or exert any control over problems' (Teacher R)

Her unsuccessful efforts caused negative feelings and a lack of focus on her situation. The outcome of being reactive was the '*trial and error*' approach that most teachers mentioned. ' *Being tense all the time*' and '*keep wondering about performance*' '*feeling unsuccessful'* were phrases teachers used to describe how they felt. They seemed unable to 'discern boundaries' and constraints in their practice: '*getting off track with planned work*' and '*being carried away*' were some implications for teaching.

However, teachers believed that extra personal time and curiosity led them to reflect about how to make teaching successful. They believed that this in relation to their young age allowed them to '*be creative and daring*', for example, in constructing or trying tools suggested by older teachers.

The Experienced Teacher

Teachers' described changes, such as:

- basing judgements on the feedback acquired from others (mainly pupils),
- valuing their experience and situational knowledge.

Experience seemed to provide teachers with general rules (Elliott, 1975; Schon, 1987) as how to behave, what to avoid, where to turn for help. These rules were learning outcomes gained through experience:

> 'Experience taught me that correcting mistakes on the spot helps pupils understand mistakes' (Teacher K)
> 'I realised that the signs of difficulty help to see differences in pupils' performance, detect my omissions' (Teacher C)

An important outcome of experience seemed to be the learning that certain processes, strategies and techniques, provided reliable information about their performance. Changes in feelings were reported, for instance becoming '*softer*' (flexible) which helped in '*balancing priorities*'; '*save/ make/ steal time*' to deal with problems without

abandoning planning was an example of prioritising needs based on prior experiences. Being in control of feelings, and most of the time of reactions, seemed to be an achievement for experienced teachers. Teachers talked about '*feeling loose*', '*knowing when to be open*' '*being sensitive*', also about their '*fall in energy*'. Feeling '*confident*' was the most frequently reported word; in teacher H's words:

> 'You know that this unit needs more time, that if you use this strategy they'll understand ... you don't get lost easily as when you lack experience'

Experience seemed to influence reflection (e.g. to be insightful), decision (e.g. relevant to situations), feelings (e.g. provided confidence which facilitated further engagement in self-evaluation). It persuaded teachers of the uniqueness of each situation:

> 'You can't teach the same thing, the same way to different classes' (Teacher K)
> 'Some children are more antagonistic; I was shocked when I realised that I had reached a point not to ask quiet children to talk' (Teacher R)

Valuing their learning experiences and instincts reflected development in their self-evaluation behaviour; as V said:

> 'I have learnt to separate teaching from pupils' understanding; this helped me question my beliefs on a different basis...to accept my own part of blame.'

The way professional accountability developed appeared to be affected by one's particular experiences. When I asked teacher N how she coped with the low performance of her class that she had mentioned in the staffroom, her change of attitude became clear:

> 'The first year, I was upset. Then I learnt that children perform one way or another not because of me... What can you do? You try, so? You aren't God'

Teachers used such expressions often in staffroom discussions to justify actions. These highlighted expectations shaped through experience and a language acceptable for evaluation purposes. Socialisation into the profession appeared to account for such development in thinking. The 'professional conscience' (Eraut, 1994) that these teachers had developed was evident from staff-room comments, such as:

> 'You need to cover the matter prescribed for this age; otherwise, everything will be confused in their minds' (Teacher H)
> 'More crucial is that children understand the subject matter and progress. This is what counts and what is asked of us' (Teacher NI).

Both teachers regarded continuity in knowledge provision and grading its acquisition important for pupils' understanding but each applied a different weighting in their

judgements due to different personal criteria. Teacher H's focus on covering the subject–matter might lead her to reach different decisions than teacher NI's focus on pupils' understanding the subject-matter. In another staffroom discussion, grade 6 teacher CH contrasted expectations of private and state schools; while the private school expected to consult the Head before contacting parents; this did not happen in state schools. He argued that this freedom to decide required questioning his actions and raised feelings of responsibility. The Head Assistant compared teachers' work in villages as opposed to urban schools; this experience made him:

> 'realise that some pupils would be better off remaining in their villages... Their parents came and said 'teacher, give him a passing grade to finish and help us'. Education and work are different'

The way the expectations and needs of others were interpreted seemed to affect professional expectations. The use of personal criteria, the different interpretations of role expectations and the subsequent importance of clarity in duties appeared to be crucial for the way the practice of teacher self-evaluation develops.

OVERVIEW

Disposition and experiences were identified as central in the self-evaluation process. Perception and will appeared to determine the initiation of self-evaluation processes, the conduct and learning outcomes. While willingness to engage in self-evaluation was determined by personality characteristics, with '*modesty*', '*self-confidence*' and '*critical capacity*' being prerequisites for commitment to question how one performs, experience provided a frame of rules, which, if followed, appeared to reassure teachers about their self-evaluation behaviour. Feedback and school climate were crucial aspects in the self-evaluation process, shaping the understanding teachers' developed about their own judgements and the sense of accountability they developed and exhibited in action. Judgements of practice reached after unconscious or conscious thinking, were based on teacher recordings, teacher's own observations and intervention and interactive dialogue with others.

SUPPORTS AND CONSTRAINTS

This section discusses supports and constraints at the levels of the teacher and the school. This does not imply independent influences (conditions were inextricably linked) but helps to highlight specific implications.

The Teacher

This section discusses expectations and beliefs as important factors in self-evaluation with reference to control versus autonomy, self-awareness versus ignorance, and mediocrity versus excellence in practice. The use of dichotomies serves analytical purposes.

Expectations and Beliefs

When interviewing teachers I asked them to name supportive and constraining factors in their self-evaluation practice. Many argued that teachers' perceptions of their identity as teachers, '*the type of teacher each one tries to be*' (teacher NI) determines the kind of awareness each teacher is capable or willing to exhibit, making self-judgements dependent '*on teachers' perception and disposition*' (teacher V). Both feeling and thoughts were involved in self-evaluation action (Dadds, 1995):

> 'Duties are determined by how the teacher perceives them and how willing she is to do all she can. Awareness isn't enough; a teacher needs to be in a mood to act' (Teacher N)
> 'Some don't mind, this is unacceptable. You either devote time to make things work well or you 'take your hat and go home' (meaning leave the profession)' (Teacher CH)

Ross (1993:287) notes that for Aristotle one's actions follow necessarily one's beliefs. Beliefs such as these of teachers' V and K that '*a teacher must have dignity and be inspired*' or '*personal effort is required to develop as a professional*', determined expectations and framed the meaning of what it means to 'be a professional', that is one's understanding of what 'good' teaching is and what to do to make practice better. Calling teaching 'good' means also calling it better; this raises the question of comparison of what is worst (Bohme, 2001:13). Examining what was involved in 'being a professional' and the tensions involved, helps illustrate how expectations and beliefs influenced self-evaluation. In this study, tensions evolved around notions of control versus autonomy, self-awareness versus ignorance, mediocrity versus excellence.

Control versus Autonomy

In the interview NI and CH said when explaining how they self-evaluated:

> 'I used to ask the best of my pupils. Here, I'll be accused of asking too much; I have to accept that my students will finish having gaps' (Teacher NI).

> 'When you are not obliged to do things you know you should do, you don't do them… by intentionally diminishing their value… by considering your steps and getting unnoticed' (Teacher CH)

Awareness of what was expected, was controlled and required evidence seemed to influence the conduct of self-evaluation. Teachers, as parts of wider systems consisting of many interrelated parts, felt the support or constraints exerted on them. Having control of the self-evaluation process was not enough to avoid the impact of other systems. In such a context the way power was perceived and used, responsibly or not (Berliner, 1999), was central for successful self-evaluation:

> 'I know I should self-evaluate in a systematic manner but I never do; you convince yourself to consider what others expect and having act' (Teacher C)

Such comments implied the development of a minimalist attitude towards engagement in self-evaluation, expressed either as acceptance of lowering expectations or changes brought to personal beliefs. Awareness of responsibilities did not seem enough to restrain this attitude. Systems constrain but also enable individuals by allowing them to act in certain ways (Giddens, 1984). This is evident in teacher K's comment:

> 'Where everyone avoids responsibility you do the same. You may feel as betraying yourself but you learn that survival comes first; being calm matters'

It was also evident in extended break-time. This occurred either because interesting staff-room discussions took place (with the Head reminding that '*the bell rang*') or because of 'chatting' in the corridor or outside classrooms. I noticed that teachers CH and V usually left with the sound of the bell. When asked, V explained that he disagreed with such practice and described a past experience:

> 'We spent more time in the staffroom than in the classroom… I said to myself 'it's a short period, don't talk'… I felt upset. It was a small school, if I would be teaching when others didn't, it would become an issue for discussion; I didn't want to give the right to the villagers to question the school… You suit yourself in a convenient situation, you say 'do your job painlessly and go home'… you feel that you get paid in vain'.

When personal beliefs contradict actions, teacher autonomy (as defined and exercised by the individual) appeared to be affected creating a sense of discomfort and loss. The role of the school in creating and sustaining beliefs about 'good' practices is vital for successful self-evaluation.

Self-Awareness versus Ignorance

Teacher L raised the issue of collegial advice when asked about self-evaluation constraints and described his experience with a special needs pupils:

> 'Only the head told me 'talk nicely to him', no one cared to help... other teachers laughed at him... I couldn't do much alone'

However, he contradicted this in the same interview when I asked whether he believed that tensions in this school affected the way he self-evaluated:

> 'This does not affect me. It is others' problem... it's not in my classroom'

Self-evaluation conceived as a private enterprise appeared to obscure one's awareness of the impact of others on one's self-evaluation practice. A lack of knowledge regarding self-evaluation is obvious. Teachers' evaluation knowledge, their 'methodological competence' (Elliott, 1994) is important and seemed to be crucial when teachers were called to interpret duties. Duties, when examined as 'policy generated texts' might or might not offer opportunities for creative interpretation, thus to be open or closed to different interpretations (Ball, 1994:10-2). Class management, a teachers' duty (Scriven, 1994), reflects teachers' knowledge and capacity to define and act on class needs. Duties can be adequately exercised if:

> 'teachers are capable of thinking about and successfully acting on their teaching. Some lose control of class; this tortures them. Many problems are caused, usually children are blamed' (Teacher G)

Reduced self-evaluation knowledge seemed to result in reduced capacity to prioritise and manage class needs. This might result in reduced capacity for understanding and accepting one's own weaknesses. Interestingly two teachers presented themselves through the complaints they raised as incapable of managing their class. Reflectivity and/ or ability to see their teaching with a critical eye seemed absent. Consider teacher F's comment one of many times that she rushed into the staff-room shouting:

> 'You know what they did to me? They made a fuss saying 'Maria is in the closet', I didn't believe them. Just before the bell I found out she was really hidden in the closet. How can I teach them? They are monsters'

Her comments seemed to be taken light-heartedly and with no surprise. Later, the Head and two teachers brought up the incident agreeing that communicating her management problem was caused by her inability to reflect critically on the situation and persistence in expecting pupils to behave as adults do:

> 'If one makes public what is private it means that they can't understand the consequences' (Teacher P)

It seemed that teachers would try to hide problems for fear that such a disclosure would be connected with their weakness to critically view their teaching situation. This raises again the role of the school in self-evaluation. This school appeared unable to recognise the importance of self-evaluation, to actively promote it and to attend to it to provide a supportive climate to ensure its successful conduct. This suggests that an effective (for instance, collaborative) self-evaluation becomes rather impossible in this context. The implications for teaching are evident in the following discussion.

Mediocrity versus Excellence in Practice

In staff-room discussions I often heard teachers connect low wages to minimal efforts to improve practice. I asked teachers P and NI about their low contribution to school events:

> 'As long as I feel OK with my conscience and they ask one thing why should I offer two? They pay me for one... not two'
> 'I get as much as (he) does, why should I work more?'

Having the same salary seemed to provide no motive to become better. Perceptions referring to performance pay incentives (Desander, 2000; Milanowski, 2000; Shulman, 2001) raise issues, for instance the lack of motive for pursuing professional development (discussed later). It also had consequences for self-evaluation, a major one being teachers' change of attitude expressed through behaviour called **self-restriction.** Teacher N defined it as *'restricting oneself to consciously not performing as well as one could'*. Teachers applied this in practice: the Head's requests for engagement in school activities were unwelcome; some teachers were observed running to make photocopies or chatting outside classrooms during teaching hours, taught always sitting, instructed pupils to learn alone while they did unrelated work. If teachers when given a chance skipped duties and minimised their efforts to improve teaching, the possibility for engagement in long-term self-evaluation processes seemed minimal. Disposition to restrict one's own actions, no matter how this was caused, implied a disregard of teaching actions. This could minimise teachers' effect on outcomes (e.g. pupils' progress). I discussed this with teacher CH in the tenth week:

'When your work is not recognised, you feel the fool of the group; no one restricts you, you restrict yourself... You don't try anything new unless you are required to'.

That day I wrote this memo:

Some reasons causing self-restriction seem to be:

- *no recognition (celebration) of teachers' good work,*
- *no official procedures to distinguish 'good' work,*
- *avoidance of becoming a target of criticism*
- *emotions that cannot be tolerated*

These factors are the cause or effect of the other: Lack of recognition of teachers' work causes negative feeling (e.g. F's disappointment) restricting teachers' motivation to improve. Government attempts to motivate teachers by recognising everybody's work as 'equal' is interpreted as 'levelling': 'Under the school roof all are considered the same. This isn't the best way to make one try hard' (Teacher V). In response teachers try to offer 'no more no less' than others. The 'levelling of teachers' causes a 'levelling' of teaching, that is, an adherence to standardised practice. Teachers' aim 'being the same' or 'doing as much as the teacher next door does' affects excellence in practice. In case personal beliefs or aspirations prohibits acting this way, different action is seen as making teachers the target of critique, which in time becomes intolerable: 'I had reached my limits. I had to choose between torturing myself and betraying the system.' (Teacher K). Betraying the system can be accomplished: teachers' work is not supervised and external support is rarely provided. Teachers behave and evaluate their teaching as they feel appropriate.

Pursuing this further, the last week in the school I provoked a discussion with K, CH and N who had used the word 'levelling' during interviews. They argued that the antidote was '*teachers' sincerity*'; teachers ought to aim '*to make pupils understand what I, the school, the society asks, not assign labels*' (Teacher N). Sincerity towards students referred to pupils' awareness of role expectations. One role for teachers was perceived as socialising pupils into values. Raising pupils' awareness of expectations implied that the teachers' duty was establishing principles and cultivating pupils' morale. This requires constant evaluation of their actions to ascertain achieving these aims. Making explicit expectations provides chances to reconsider judgements and question principles underlying practice. Teachers explained this to mean: '*having high spirits*', '*accepting one's part of responsibility*' and '*be devoted to teaching*'. Such qualities require exposing willingness and commitment to achieve excellence in practice and self-evaluate actions based on judgements appropriate to one's aspirations. Summarising the discussion we held, in these teachers' own terms being sincere requires: '*attending to feedback*', '*acknowledging the temporality of judgements*', '*questioning one's decisions and actions*', '*accepting mistakes*', '*making expectations explicit*', '*gaining parents' co-operation*', '*treating equally pupils*', '*making pupils'*

performance explicit to all children', 'setting educational principles so children 'learn how to learn', 'advancing one's learning capacity'.

The School

This section outlines conditions particular to the school with reference to classroom privacy, resources and training during employment, time constraints, duties, the change process and collegial communication.

Classroom Privacy

The privacy of the classroom was highly valued providing a sense of security and control, which made teachers feel empowered: '*my classroom is my kingdom*' (Teacher K). Teachers believed they could undermine policies determined elsewhere:

> 'Even a nod is enough. The Head asked me to say... I went and said exactly what was written using a style and look that refuted totally what they enforced me to say... Pupils laughed' (Teacher N)

Teachers appeared to exercise in action their "autonomy to alter mandated... policies" (Webb, 2002:47). Convinced that meanings change when policy texts change contexts (Ball, 1994) I started investigating statements of empowerment, their relation to the enactment of the NC and the effect on school cohesion. I tried to find answers to questions, such as, whose criteria drive teaching? Are standards clear to all teachers? I assumed different criteria implied different standards, which meant differentiated self-evaluation practice. Teachers' feelings of empowerment did not enhance school cohesion, such as a coherent policy in terms of pupils' learning: teachers followed their rules; classroom and school functioning were clearly separate. I asked H, CH and N why they do not ask colleagues to get involved in their self-evaluation:

> 'In my class no one interferes... whatever it needs it's my business to supply'
> 'Behind doors it's you and the kids. This is the big advantage of our work'.
> 'You are in the classroom to decide ...you are the expert'

Teachers seemed to perceive their class as their 'territory' (Simons, 1987); this affected their perceptions of pupils' role in self-evaluation: '*pupils can't judge what the teacher offers*' was teacher H's response when asked if she sought pupils' comments to self-evaluate. Perceiving class this way, minimised the opportunity to share problems and develop a mutual understanding of what 'good' teaching meant. Empowerment is best served if teachers care to develop understanding by standing critically towards their own

and others' mistakes (Carr & Kemmis, 1989) instead of hiding behind classroom doors. Sustaining the notion of teacher self-evaluation as a private enterprise, restricting the disclosure of performance and not intervening when another's practice became problematic seemed to be due to valuing classroom privacy. In such a context real change of practice seemed difficult. Such change involves change of principles through sharing of practices (Elliott, 1998). In-service training could provide opportunities for such sharing. What happened in this school follows.

Resources and Training during Employment

When observing teacher H teaching physics, I noticed that she made an effort to maintain attention. This was not the case when I observed her teaching Geography. I asked why her class was restless:

> 'Is it possible to teach Physics without conducting experiments? Pupils need to feel, not to strain their brains' (Teacher H)

The rule 'pupils must feel' set by her understanding of this subject seemed to reflect the way she perceived she needed to perform. Teachers must have a 'flexible understanding of what they teach' to teach it well (Shulman, 2001): *'the lack of aids binds my hands; I can't perform well' (Teacher C).* I asked the Head if the school lacked resources:

> 'It's true; we are not equipped well. It's an old school, many resources -maps, instruments- need to be replaced... they can use what we've got, but they don't. If you check in the closet you'll see some resources full of dust -nobody touched them for years. It's easier to hide behind a lack of resources than try to find ways to serve the needs of your lesson'

He implied teachers' lack of willingness to act, become creative, be committed to their teaching; he also indicated awareness of the inability of the school (himself included) to deal with such situations. Perhaps, teachers did not know how to use the resources available in the school. Subject specialisation could have given such knowledge but it is absent in primary teachers' initial training. Such specialisation and availability of aids support teachers put their knowledge into action (Drake et al, 2001).

Teacher H had just completed a course sponsored by the European Union, which is part of the government's teacher development policy. I asked if this experience helped her advance her teaching and self-evaluation practice:

> 'It was refreshing... not helpful practically. Nice ideas [silence] away from my needs, unrelated to my teaching. It's always the same'

Whether training failed to serve teacher needs or fulfil expectations, its effect remained: it created frustration. While perceiving training as advancing general knowledge, it was still expected that training should serve situational needs, providing practical solutions. Discussing with teachers K and N their experience of the last one-day seminar they attended (organised by the EA), they said:

> 'You get to know a variety of approaches; we tend to stick ... forget how to be creative'
> 'It reminded me of what I knew, it was reassuring that I was on the right course'

I thought this seminar had an effect on these teachers: it provided clues about the success of their practice. Whether confirming previous knowledge or equipping with new ideas, points of references to use as standards when self-evaluating were gained. When asking teacher CH what he gained from attending a two-year training program on computer technology, he replied:

> 'I feel sure that I can recognise what works well and why'

This was evident since he was one of two teachers in the school who used the computer room. I observed him teach inside it: having a limited number of computers, the teacher had organised pupils in groups of three, which worked autonomously -he interfered four times when pupils asked and twice to remind a group of the need to search for information relevant to the task he had assigned. Extended training seemed to have increased his capacity to recognise cause-effect relationships at a practical level. In the short questionnaire on educational orientations, eight teachers reported that practice learning was more important than theory knowledge; 10 reported that training on educational evaluation is needed. In the short questionnaire concerning attitudes towards engagement in school-based training on evaluation more than half of the teachers reported willingness to participate but considered their school not capable of offering such training. These data imply knowledge gaps on educational evaluation, which has implications for policy.

Time

In the interviews, I asked teachers if time was an issue in self-evaluation:

> 'The first two months I can't really assess how I am doing. The information I get is conflicting' (Teacher D)
> 'I spent a lot of time in planning how to teach computers... I need to learn first and then judge how I am doing' (Teacher C)

The amount and availability of time seemed to influence the need to deliberate. The school timetable did not make specific provisions for the development of meaningful collegial discussions, not to mention trustworthy relations. Three fifteen-minute breaks provided the maximum chances for teachers' daily contact; this was restricted more by teachers leaving school premises in breaks. Further, in the two formal pedagogical meetings that I observed only a few teachers talked and exchange of views was not promoted; teachers seemed to regard such meetings '*a waste of time*' (teacher C). I focused in observing the discussions of teachers mentioned earlier as a 'group'. Regardless of the strong support each member provided to the other members in school disputes, I did not witness dialogues about their performance; in fact they addressed teaching issues rarely. It seemed that increased contact time might not be enough for a sharing of performance concerns; a shift of focus from supporting teacher claims to openly questioning them appeared important. This implies that parallel changes at personal, professional and organisational levels were required, especially when related to the habitual behaviour that teachers developed over the years; expressed in K's words '*After ten years in the same grade you know with closed eyes what they want*'. Enhanced capacity to make connections that provide solutions helped to grasp progress in teaching and decide on appropriate action. However, the development of over confidence might result in unquestionable adoption of means and generalisations that worked well in the past when making judgements. If teachers were not used to criticising their practice, the moment when the known ways failed to work was confusing and made teachers defensive, projecting prejudice and denying responsibility:

> 'I can't be a psychologist, a dietician... do everything' (Teacher D)
> 'His parents are indifferent...; I can't waste my time' (Teacher K)

Duties

In the third week of fieldwork, a circular with instructions for the teaching of subjects was delivered to teachers; the majority put it aside without comment. Looking at it I became interested in the sentence 'efarmogi tis exorthologithisis didactikis ilis' ('implementation of the –unknown term- teaching material), which appeared important for interpreting the idea behind the document. My request for its meaning revealed various interpretations:

> 'The second component comes from the verb 'rationalise', it means non-rationalised'

> 'The first component does not always provide a negative character to the second'
> 'It does not originate from rationalise; it has to do with the 'appropriate cause', look the word is made of three components not two...'
> 'Look at the dictionary'
> 'It's not listed in the dictionaries'
> 'Then it means something that has to do with 'rationalising'.

Teachers did not become alarmed that their understanding differed from others. They seemed to perceive the circular as a 'writerly' text, that is, as one inviting interpretation (Ball, 1994). Not feeling the need to question its wording or one's own interpretations implies that individuals put their own meaning to documents generated by others (Ball, 1990). However, why was an ambiguous wording used in a document communicating duties? The relationship among varying policy contexts, and the language used in communicating policy, is central for understanding the intended and the actual use of policy documents (Ball, 1994:7-23). Duties communicated in unclear ways support Lawton's (1984) argument that policy-makers have become disconnected from policy receivers. It also implies underlying intentions and a concern about 'who' is empowered by this. Empowerment depends "not only upon the 'tightness' or otherwise of legislation but also upon the possibilities and the limits of particular contexts and settings" (Ball 1994:12). In our case, ambiguous wording made these teachers feel uncertain and hesitant towards discussing their interpretations. The implications for self-evaluation includes the choice of criteria used to define professional needs and the understanding that teachers developed of duties. Communicating duties (rules) in unclear language can result in misunderstandings, it also limits opportunities to question them and invites one to accept that teachers '*at the bottom could not, or ought not, do anything*' (teacher L). Consider the Head's reply to teacher CH's comment that the Ministry '*disrespects teachers with such actions*':

> 'Oh dear! Someone wrote an unusual word, someone signed; ....an untested term... I don't think (they) had bad intention. If this affects communication this is something the Ministry has to think about, not us'

Many teachers agreed. Even the indifferent behaviour of some teachers suggested that perceptions of 'hierarchy' predominated (Simons, 1987). There seemed to be a relation of the way policy documents were communicated and teacher interpretation of them; the effect concerns the belief developed about 'good' teaching practice through the use of personal, not public, criteria in self-evaluation.

Change Process

Analysing teachers' response in the short questionnaire on environmental conditions, I found that most teachers considered the climate in their school restrictive, avoided to rate themselves as very co-operative and considered important the professional relationships. Almost all felt they decided autonomously and considered that a good school climate was relevant to their teaching; however, the majority rated their efforts to create a good climate in the middle of the two poles. Discussing the last week in the field with K, CH, the Head and the Assistant Head these findings, all agreed that the school's structure was not flexible to accommodate support: *'You can't reset priorities... see your efforts prosper'* (Teacher CH). Teacher L had described in the interview how he felt the school reacted to his problems:

> 'It's like when you are on a bicycle; from the moment you 'get a speed' (start teaching)... you are regarded as having failed if you ever slow down.'

Pacing seemed important when external expectations were involved. Not being able to meet them in a specific time constituted failure. Non-flexible environments contributed in making teachers' feel **'burnt out'** and **'under seizure'**. Teacher CH described the latter to occur when teachers felt unsupported and restricted from making independent decisions, while 'burnt out' defined the outcome. Teacher F often complained about her teaching. I asked how she felt inside this school:

> 'I've reached my limits, I feel squeezed, as having nothing to offer'

The Head commented on his actions to solve teacher's F problem:

> 'The parents kept moaning... my hands were tied. She refused to agree ...now, she keeps thanking me'

It seemed that deciding and applying bottom-up changes was possible but not adequate for preventing inefficiencies of practice, or for providing effective solutions. Teachers lived this 'inadequacy' and maybe their perceptions (e.g. 'self-restriction') or attitudes (e.g. indifference towards school activities) were due to school's inflexibility to accommodate changes that supported practice. Teachers appeared to have learnt what could work and what would not. This affected both their morale and expectations of performance and is evident in teacher P's comment when I asked why he did not want to learn how to use computers in class through a course that was available at that time:

> 'I would like to use computers but... nothing would come out of it; it's always the same... some new things are old from the moment they appear'

His experience of past initiatives seemed reflected in this remark about the 'new' being 'old'. Differences in priorities among the 'planners' and the 'implementers', whatever interpretation applied to the underlying intentions (e.g., state control theories, Dale, 1997; policy process theories, Ball, 1990), when combined with unsuccessful past experiences seemed to constrain teachers' willingness to accept changes and to create frustration and indifferent behaviour. The intention behind a planned policy needs to be accompanied by clear evidence (Ball, 1994) to persuade teachers of being worthy of deliberation or discussion.

Collegial Communication

In the short questionnaire on teacher professionalism, in the question 'do you discuss with your colleagues issues and problems that concern your teaching?' the majority chose the middle position. Consider teacher P's reply when asked why he did not talk in the staffroom '*What's the use of talking when you know you are not going to be heard? Why should I waste my words?*' Collegial communication seemed to be influenced positively by what teachers valued in their work environment, such as **justice** and **openness**. Opening up seemed constrained by 'professional consciousness', that is, by principles underlying the workplace establishing an acceptable professional behaviour (Eraut, 1994, Elliott, 1998), for example **acceptable discourse**.

Justice

Teachers regarded justice as an outstanding feature of the school environment, which '*ensures that some don't get special treatment*' (Teacher H) and as relating to teacher achievements: '*if teachers get the same treatment they work things out*' (Teacher L). Otherwise, as teacher V said, teachers need to choose to accept the situation and adapt without letting the situation affect them; accept the situation and try to get special treatment; accept but feel frustrated and withdraw; 'fight' to make the favoured situation recognised. The implications in terms of ethics concern teachers' self-respect and communication (the flow of information is restrained). Teacher NI when describing in the interview the lack of collegial support indicated the importance of self-respect and communication for attitudinal change, judgements and self-evaluation behaviour:

> 'When your rights aren't recognised you end up fighting for survival; often you lose track of your own right, you can't think clear, judge sincerely... You are part of a circle that doesn't let you have clarity of mind' (Teacher NI)

Openness

When I asked teachers in the interview if they sought colleagues' views they reported that discussing their teaching depended on whether other teachers disclosed their difficulties. In N's words:

> 'I thought 'she is experienced she must have an idea'. She made useful comments ...never talked about her problems. I felt incompetent...I stopped'

The teacher expected advice, but also needed to feel that both parties acknowledged their skills. In CH's, NI's and V's words, in collegial communication teachers ought to:

> 'have no fear to express own views',
> 'dare to talk, not just listen',
> 'accept mistakes, considers opinions'

Openness of mind in new situations and use of instinct to appreciate problems on-the-spot "is a key criterion of the teacher's pedagogical skill" (Hudson, 2002:50). What restricted teachers behaving this way? Inconsistency of behaviour to intentions implied that teachers might present the evaluation of their practice according to expectation (e.g. hide inefficiencies and stress achievements). In such a case teachers' reflections would not concern improvement of teaching but focus on how to prove one's effectiveness. However, evaluation aiming to facilitate decision-making intends 'not to prove but to improve' practice (Stufflebeam, 1991).

Co-operation and Acceptable discourse

Teachers talked in favour of collegial co-operation. K argued that she co-operated with the other year one teacher to learn how Year 1 classes progressed '*We both want to know if our pupils understood the unit as the others*'. Co-operation seemed perceived as securing teachers' performance, as the other Year 1 teacher D said:

> 'Teachers try to humiliate others by giving more work. Parents compare teachers' work. Agreement on homework secures teachers... One is not doing anything more or less than the other'

I observed such co-operation; teachers in the staff-room '*discussed methods and strategies that worked*', '*provided explanations to problems*' and '*co-decided about homework and assessment*'. Co-operation even when aiming for similarity in practice created feelings of security and control which allowed focusing on improvement of practice. It provided chances for exchange of views; the sharing of concerns supported

planning and problem solving (Hargeaves & Dawe, 1990; Lieberman & Miller 1991). However, such co-operation did not imply asking for critique from others:

> 'Teachers do not ask comments on their performance... their ego, 'I am the perfect teacher', they feel ashamed... the other might think they are incompetent, 'what kind of teacher am I to ask others' (Teacher D)

The role of the identity teachers had constructed seemed to affect collegial discussions. The seven teachers that I asked reported 'showing mutual understanding' and 'backing one another' as nurturing collegial discussions. These were 'conventions' particular to the community of colleagues: they referred to group understanding and behaviour (Miller, 1999:314). It appeared that if teachers perceived that collegial support was missing they attended to the discourse that was acceptable in their school and acted based on what '*issues of substance*' to avoid. It was mostly in such cases that comments, such as the following one, were made:

> 'Colleagues are strangers to my teaching... Teachers do not look after finding out what is going on in my classroom... help in problems' (Teacher K)

The perceived colleagues' unwillingness to learn each other's problems seemed to result in disqualifying the collegial discourse as a source contributing to one's understanding of practice. Perceiving colleagues as '*strangers*' led to avoiding issues of common concern and '*escape*' through discussions of minor importance; teacher V described it as teachers '*moving peripherally*' when I asked him to describe the collegial communication in this school. Such action restricted the chance of collective reflective practice. Observation confirmed that teachers often closed or redirected discussions exhibiting in action their sense of power over their teaching.

Attendance to acceptable discourse empowered teachers but what provoked it? The six teachers I asked justified this attendance by providing examples of conflicts they or others experienced when disregarding it. This implies that awareness of consequences guided behaviour in communication. "For Dewey, meanings are consequences of socially shared action" (Garrison, 1999:291). This justifies teachers' actions for not disregarding 'acceptable discourse', without suggesting that such actions were willingly chosen. Some consequences seemed to be in the words of teachers CH, R and NI '*be prepared to bare the cross*', '*be the target*', '*get a label*'. Acceptable discourse seemed to prevent what teacher NI described as '*talk behind (one's) back*':

> 'It could be solved if I talked openly... I looked for what was convenient for me -I was staying only some months' (Teacher CH)

Being aware of one's own inefficiencies, but balancing what ought to be done, meant meeting others' expectations. Ignoring them seemed to be equated with ignoring consequences. In this context, awareness of the consequences of collegial discourse, when it led teachers to avoid it, restricted an opportunity for teachers to clarify misunderstandings and get support to improve practice; escaping opportunities to achieve it might lead to a devaluing of self-evaluation. Acceptable discourse, functioning as a product of one's awareness of consequences, seemed to account for concealing difficulties and was perceived as a necessary choice to protect one's image:

> 'When you get the label, others don't take you seriously. They use irony… spit on you' (Teacher NI)

Teachers' self-respect seemed to be at stake. The way schools operated was not helpful:

> 'The school is a closed circuit. We fall into routine, we become lethargic… you get bogged down' (Teacher N)

The school as a '*closed circuit*' seemed to constrain rather than offer learning opportunities to assist teachers to improve their practice, constraining rather than supporting engagement in self-evaluation.

OVERVIEW

In this school, teachers believed that self-evaluation was an individualistic process and was a duty to be performed. They evaluated their practice to develop understanding, and also to satisfy their sense of accountability based on their interpretations and professional beliefs of 'good' teaching, and consequently of the ways they ought to function as teachers. The understanding they developed of their teaching practice, and also the sense of accountability they exhibited, seemed to be inextricably linked to the professional, institutional and policy contexts. Collegial communication and relationships, in-service training experiences and resources, classroom privacy, flexibility and justice in the school environment, resources, time availability, leadership and communication (e.g. of duties) were identified as crucial for the way these teachers self-evaluated and used self-evaluation outcomes. The individualistic way of their self-evaluation practice appeared to provide feelings of empowerment, but also to obscure awareness, to limit teacher learning and shared decision-making and constrain change processes. The professional, institutional and policy contexts appeared to obscure rather than support teachers' self-evaluation practice: collegial co-operation, based on what

teachers' believed was acceptable, seemed unable to help teachers develop a better understanding of their practice, the school seemed inefficient to foster supportive conditions for self-evaluation and apply lasting solutions to inefficient practices. The policy context seemed ineffective in communicating clear duties and providing experiences that could advance the quality of self-evaluation practice. This was crucial since teachers' efforts to seek excellence in practice and to care actively for their professional development were negatively affected by the absence of such support, which was also observable in teachers' lack of knowledge on educational evaluation.

CHAPTER SIX
THE NURSERY SCHOOLS

The second case study comprises six state nursery schools typical of others located in urban areas, in terms of teacher qualification, number of teachers and pupils, enrolment regulations, school accommodation, management and curriculum. They differ from others as they share the one location, which provided teachers with a particular experience of nursery education in that they had a colleague to relate to unlike many nursery teachers who are rather isolated. As noted in the methodology chapter, nursery personnel consist of one to three teachers, with the most experienced being the Head. Each nursery school has organisational independence, even when it is 'hosted' inside a primary school, as is the case with these six nurseries. The case study is constructed using content analysis of school documents and interpretative analysis of interview, observation and short questionnaire data. First I describe the aims and the specific context of this case study; then I present the findings.

AIMS

The main aim is to explore nursery teachers' conceptions of self-evaluation and how those conceptions are enacted in practice. I seek to investigate the meaning and purposes of self-evaluation practice and the value attached to such practice.

I examine how teachers self-evaluate their practice by analysing the role of interaction and feedback in the self-evaluation process. To understand fully the teacher self-evaluation process the constraints and supports are analysed in an examination of this practice over time. Further, I investigate the organisation of nursery schools to discover the implications of teacher communication on the conduct of self-evaluation, on the learning outcomes teachers gained from such communication and the sense of accountability teachers developed.

CONTEXT

The schools

The six nurseries, 'hosted' inside two connected buildings that housed four primary schools, had small but attractive classrooms that welcomed outsiders to spend time inside. I saw primary school pupils asking nursery teachers to let them in, or getting in when the teachers had left. Some teachers locked the door when they stepped

out for fear that older pupils would '*mess up*': *'We have turned to 'key-keepers"* (teacher M). Pupils' work, teachers' resources and models were displayed prominently. However, the lack of space meant that the teaching equipment was piled up and when pupils moved around they could not avoid falling over into each other; fights and outbursts followed. Teachers seemed upset and placed restrictions on movement:

> 'If I let them wander around there'll be a war' (teacher H)

Yet the early years' curriculum is based on activities that require movement and role-play. Teacher's desk (used for administrative work) and closets for school documents were packed in a corner. Nursery teachers would not visit the teacher rooms:

> 'They (primary teachers) use them... You can't find a seat' (teacher TH)
> 'We've asked many times for a room... we are still waiting' (teacher K)

Nursery and primary pupils shared the playground. I saw older pupils acting protectively towards nursery pupils; others grew annoyed by them for interrupting their games. Teachers avoided using the playground for planned learning activities and had shorter breaks instead of the prescribed half-hour break. I heard primary teachers complaining about nursery classes in the playground during teaching hours because of the disruptive noise. For nursery teachers this presented a no win situation: their classrooms were too small for delivering the prescribed curriculum.

The cramped classroom conditions, school routines (such as breaks) and lack of common room for nursery teachers caused tensions. Observing teachers having coffee in the playground and keeping an eye on pupils playing I brought up this issue. They attributed the tensions to the nurseries' housing problem, believing that their needs were disregarded: *'We pay the costs of autonomy by being chilled to the bone* (laughter)'. Teachers' feelings of reduced professional rights seemed to have become a joke to them. Interestingly, nursery teachers reported feeling at a disadvantage not only because they were a minority whose claims were voted down by a bigger group, but also because they thought their work was not recognised as important and of quality:

> 'They think we do nothing because pupils play...' (Teacher S)
> 'They confuse pupils' play...with our effectiveness' (Teacher K)

These observations led me to wonder about the implications for self-evaluation, the sense of accountability teachers developed and how this was communicated. Their perception of how others thought of their work could influence their choice of criteria in self-evaluation, or the ways they tried to make their work recognisable.

Twenty-eight to thirty-eight pupils attended each of the six nursery schools, divided into twelve classes. Registry Records indicated that the six schools enrolled a total of 205 pupils; one third of their parents had attended further education. Ten pupils came from minority groups. Considering that the minority nursery pupil population had reached almost 10% in 2000 (Express, 2001:14), this number seemed low. Teacher TH explained that minority families choose 'child centres' where pupils are fed and kept until late afternoon and where they are given priority in selection procedures; nursery education is not compulsory and nurseries operate from 8:15am until 12:15pm or 2:00pm until 5:00pm.

Thirteen teachers (13) worked in these schools, all full-timers specialised in nursery education; six were assigned as Heads, which meant that besides teaching they dealt with administrative work. Their teaching experience ranged from 20 to 30 years, apart from one teacher (L) who had four. The teachers of the same nursery taught in the same classroom in either morning or afternoon shifts, which rotated 20 or 15 hours per week. Planning, teaching and looking after children, was the responsibility of the class teacher. No procedures for shared decision-making were in operation, such as deciding about common activities. Teachers reported that they worked independently as they liked. Nursery schooling takes place in nursery classes rather than schools.

Relationships

On a daily basis I saw teachers running into another's classroom to announce problems, achievements, to ask for teaching materials. Teachers seemed comfortable to ask for help, pleased to share information and to use advice to improve their teaching. When I shared my observation with teacher M she reasoned:

'TH is our 'idea' provider… H is the artist. We all use what each one makes'

I thought that their work might not be disconnected from others after all. The class-based organisation of nurseries seemed to influence collegial communication and the feedback teachers acquired from evaluations of their own practice. Working with a colleague relied on teacher initiative to take time away from pupil activities to clarify, confirm or inform the other teacher. No time for this was available in their schedule.

I had noticed a mood for humour in teachers. When I said that, teachers M, TH, and N replied together: '*we are old order*' (usual expression that metaphorically means we shared past experiences). They explained that almost all had been working in these

schools at least five years. This appeared to lead to developing close relations: teacher M and TH were often running into other classrooms to ask who would go in the coffee shop after school –many times I was invited to accompany them. My impression is that teachers exhibited a deep knowledge of their colleagues' situations and feelings, trusted and showed respect to one another and presented an open and sincere disposition for communication. The sections presenting the analysis of collegial communication indicate how such understanding and relations affected their self-evaluations.

Qualifications

Twelve teachers had two years of initial studies; one (L) had four. One (TH) of them had completed a postgraduate course (two year course); three had attended in-service training courses lasting from six months to one year. Training is important for teachers' pedagogical knowledge. The content, criteria and form of self-evaluation are aspects of pedagogical knowledge (Kremer-Hayon, 1993). In the short questionnaire on educational orientations eight teachers reported that training in educational evaluation is needed and six regarded that uniformity of goals for all pupils was important; yet the nursery curriculum asks for diversity in goals to match individual needs. When I asked teachers S, N and H if they attend in-service training courses, they said that courses that were of real use to them were not available where they lived, and mentioned the last seminar that the Educational Adviser had organised:

> 'We've learnt something helpful this Sunday. Learning how a birthday cake can be divided was certainly a big achievement (laughter)' (Teacher N)

This course had not benefitted these teachers. Others held the view as teacher P did:

> 'I've learnt enough, I'll learn more in my next life'

Was these teachers' lack of enthusiasm for their professional development due to factors internal or external to them? How were teachers' learning needs served and how did these relate to the improvement of their teaching? Teachers were the sole evaluators of their teaching, their judgements determined how they understood success in their practice and attempted to achieve progress in their classes. An examination of the reasons that teachers practised self-evaluation helps illustrate the purposes it served.

SELF-EVALUATION PURPOSES

Engagement in self-evaluation appeared to be related to teachers' need to develop understanding and exhibit accountability.

Developing Understanding

Teachers appeared to self-evaluate to determine teaching and learning needs and to clarify their understanding about classroom behaviour. The aim was to learn more about practice. Self-evaluation for assessing and diagnosing needs and achievements, for identifying one's strengths and weaknesses in teaching, for achieving awareness of practice were subsumed under this purpose.

Determining teaching and learning needs

When I asked teachers in the interview why they self-evaluate, they all mentioned that they aimed to diagnose how their teaching could meet best the pupils' needs and progress in learning. Observing twice teacher S in her classroom, I noticed that she did not correct pupils' mistakes on maths exercises; however, when observing teachers M (once) and H (twice), I had seen them insist that pupils correct their mistakes and when pupils could not, they did the correction for them. Teacher S said:

> 'What's the use? I think it's better if I use maths exercises to see what I need to attend to in the following lesson. When I feel they are ready I point to their mistakes. Today I realised that...'

The way teachers pursued self-evaluation for diagnosing teaching and learning needs appeared to vary. Teachers M and H focused when self-evaluating on expected learning outcomes, teacher S focused on unexpected outcomes. When I discussed this observation they said that attaining expected learning outcomes raised their awareness of what they had accomplished thus indicated ways to proceed. Observing twice teacher TH in her classroom, I noticed she changed activity when pupils became uneasy:

> 'I felt my steps weren't prosperous. Pupils were distracted; I thought this (change of activity) might work... It did... I didn't figure out what exactly I was doing wrong. I have some clues... I need to think about that'

Her assessment of pupils indicated to her that pupils were not achieving as she thought they should. She questioned her actions and thought of ones that would allow pupils to learn. In such a context self-evaluation was used to assess pupils' attainments. The teacher admitted not being able to determine exactly what she was doing wrong; further engagement in self-evaluation processes was needed for the teacher to identify the

strong and weak points in her teaching and understand what needed correction or reinforcement in her practice; in the words of TH *'I've got to know what I did right or wrong... to make up for my mistakes'.* When I asked TH and M in the interview how this happens, they replied:

> 'Work experience has taught me the way to respond to problems, to situations, to pupils… I believe I can manage easily almost any situation now…'
> 'When I feel that I did not do something well, or did not behave well to one child, I start thinking of what I should do to make things work out better'

Situational experience appeared to be the catalyst for understanding their actions. Years of teaching experience appeared to make the diagnosis and coping of situational needs easier and armed teachers with confidence. Both feelings and beliefs about their knowledge seemed affected. Having confidence in one's own abilities and advanced diagnostic skills could assist teachers overcome occasions in which they felt threatened by the critique of others and facilitate sharing evaluative judgements.

Clarifying understanding

In the previous purposes of self-evaluation teachers' focus was on monitoring their practice to regulate further action and apply corrections. This purpose seemed to incorporate an extended focus on self-evaluation for clarifying their understanding about classroom behaviour and awareness of practice. When I asked teacher L in the interview how she self-evaluated, she provided the following example:

> 'I couldn't decide whether it was the strict language I used or this activity that made her refuse to participate. I talked nicer, made jokes, gave her a hug, I told Niki to help her… no reasonable action seemed able to persuade her. I kept trying to understand what made her insist in her denial. I couldn't understand what I was doing wrong… Then, I talked to her mother, she said '…' I thought about it, how it might work. Next day, I tried what she suggested… It worked'.

The pupil's refusal alarmed the teacher. She questioned her behaviour trying to clarify her own understanding of the problem. Not being able to understand based on her assessment of pupils' reactions she turned to another source and used this information to decide how to act. The knowledge she acquired from this reflective process advanced her understanding but she was not sure if it was appropriate in her situation. In this sense, the process of clarification of understanding seemed related to her search for remedial actions to improve her learning. Her attempts to clarify her thinking does not

necessarily mean that better understanding was achieved easily. When I asked teacher A why she self-evaluates she replied:

> 'I need to think to figure out what each child can or can't do to be able to say what they achieved, that I need to do this or that... It's difficult to be sure with pupils' of this age... one day you are convinced they can't do this and out of the blue they disclaim you'

She suggested that predicting pupils' behaviour was difficult, so to determine her further action she needed to focus her self-evaluation on clarifying her understanding of pupils' capabilities. In a discussion in the coffee shop I heard teacher TH reply to her colleague's comment that '*there is no need to worry*' about a pupil's restlessness in her class:

> 'I need to find out... If I don't get to know what I do wrong, she won't learn'

The teachers' acquisition of knowledge and pupils' progress appeared to be inextricably linked. Teacher TH practised self-evaluation to learn from practice. The process of monitoring, self-correction and clarification involved new learning, which had the potential to raise teacher awareness of own practice. When discussing this with teachers S and TH they replied:

> 'it assists me to see what to correct not only as a teacher but as a person too'
> 'You look for self-knowledge and use it sincerely, when you like the work you do... you like working with pupils'

Self-evaluation for awareness applied both to personal and professional behaviour and related to teachers' perceptions of their role. This implies differences in approaches among teachers to achieve awareness, and a relationship amongst teacher's feelings about teaching with the way awareness was pursued and used.

Accountability

Accountability overwhelmed teachers' comments. They appeared to self-evaluate for both professional and contractual accountability as described by Becher, Eraut and Knight (1981). Accountability towards pupils, parents and society (moral accountability) seemed to be served through teachers' interests and feelings towards their professional status. Eraut (1993) suggests however that professional status does not justify ignoring needs considered as important by audiences outside the teaching profession, such as parents.

Contractual Accountability

In my fifth week in these schools, the EA visited the school after teacher A's request to observe a pupil's behaviour. When the EA left I talked to A about this visit:

> '*She has the authority to move the pupil to another class. I have no knowledge to cope with...he doesn't let me attend to the needs of the other pupils... his parents don't want to see his problem*'

Her sense of accountability drove her to involve a person with 'authority' or power to make certain decisions to transfer responsibility away from her. At that point, I had already analysed the first interviews and I was confronted with responses, such as, '*I self-evaluate for me, not for the government*'. I started to question the way teachers treated official duties, for instance the nursery NC requirements to promote learning through play. I had noticed in the seven classroom observations that I conducted that the teachers considered play as an effective approach to learning and had incorporated it in their teaching. I had seen them become enthusiastic and ready to improvise when such activities were planned or discussed with colleagues in the playground. A coincidence of views among planners (the government) and implementers (teachers) seemed to exist which indicated a sense of contractual accountability in action. When sharing this thought with teachers A and TH in a break during the sixth week, they reported that such coincidence was partially true. They brought up the latest requirement concerning literacy in nurseries and reported that, '*like the majority*', they did not agree with the idea because of the pressure teachers would have to put on pupils:

> 'She (the adviser) came again and again asking us to go ahead with this... How could we succeed when we didn't know how to do it? We knew that pupils had to learn the letters... each one of us used her way' (Teacher A)
> 'When I saw that what they asked was not right...I tried to reach the target using ways that I thought wouldn't cause much harm, maybe I made mistakes because of this' (Teacher TH)

Their comments suggested that to enhance teachers' sense of contractual accountability clarity in goals and timely support given to teachers is required. I had seen teachers using handouts from training that they found useful. Teacher TH spoke with enthusiasm when she was showing me the handouts of a training course on literacy she had attended six years ago (which was readily accessible for easy use). Teachers appeared to need to feel able that they can succeed in adopting the government's recommendations. Self-evaluating while feeling confused about the effectiveness of their practice appeared to make them feel uncertain about self-evaluation outcomes. Fulfilling the NC targets

related to teachers' aims, and beliefs, as these were shaped from the situational data available of what their class pupils needed. These teachers appeared to struggle to find ways to fulfil these targets. They felt uncertain whether their approaches and methods were appropriate for the success of the NC targets. This might lead teachers to limit their efforts to a minimal fulfilment of the curriculum goals. When I raised this point, teacher A's answer was that teachers need to '*cover themselves*' without '*betraying their own beliefs*'. Other teachers reported similar reactions to this initiative making me think that professional accountability outweighed contractual accountability.

Professional Accountability

> When I asked teachers why they self-evaluate, A, S, TH, M and N replied:
>
> 'My conscience doesn't let me not wonder about what I did in class.'
> 'As a person I want to have a good time at work, this urges me to self-evaluate'
> 'I feel good when I know what's going on in my class and why'
> 'I am a professional; I have a responsibility to find out how I am getting on'

Teachers' self-evaluation practice appeared framed by feelings and thoughts. Thoughts and feelings are inseparable parts of the 'self' (Dadds, 1995; Garrison, 1999):

> 'The teacher needs to feel the class to be able to decide about its needs... You self-evaluate because you want to understand how you performed not because they ask you to' (Teacher N)

Self-evaluation seemed based on an intrinsic motivation serving a moral obligation towards achieving the standards and goals teachers had set for their teaching. A link seemed to exist between teacher self-evaluation and professional values. The professional identity teachers developed seemed crucial in this respect. The frequency of such comments suggested an unquestionable value attached to teacher self-evaluation (Kremer-Hayon, 1993). Self-evaluation conducted to satisfy personal and professional responsibility seemed to stem from teachers' own awareness of duties thus it was regarded a personal rather than a collective matter. I thought about the relation of professional to contractual accountability; such relation could create tensions or conflict that could influence teachers' actions. When discussing this with teachers (in both shifts) towards the end of fieldwork, I received diverse personal criteria. This memo is an extract of their answers:

Disagreement among professional and contractual accountability appears to lead teachers to self-evaluate:

- *solely for satisfying others, for instance, 'what a parent would think of me if I could not reason in a convincing way?' (Teacher K);*
- *superficially, as teacher L put it: 'the quicker, the better';*
- *up to the point they feel the outcome fulfils minimum requirements:*

  > *'It's a pity to strain their energy for some stupid letters which they'll learn no matter what. They can recognise some letters, that's enough... almost what the curriculum asks... I feel fine with my decision' (Teacher M)*

Teacher M's remark surfaces an interesting point: limiting the scope of one's teaching and the way this is evaluated, might not create guilt in teachers.

The next day when I was alone with teacher M, I sought to explain how a lack of guilt might influence her sense of professional responsibility:

> 'They think they know the real art of teaching... let them try to translate directly into practice what books suggest ..... They are such technocrats'

She contrasted her view of teaching with the one suggested by her interpretations of the government's intentions as expressed through this initiative. She seemed to favour a view of teaching as a work that required special skills, a '*work of special art*' as many teachers described it. An idealized view of teaching seemed present which referred to the qualities a teacher exhibits in practice and the interdependence of teachers' personal features to situational needs. The analysis of teachers' responses (in the short questionnaire) on educational orientations indicated a high value attached to: pupil centred approach, discovery learning and social aims of teaching. However, this was not always visible when observing teachers. I started questioning what role colleagues play in creating the view of teaching that teachers develop and its influence on the sense of professional accountability they exhibited. I had often heard teachers sharing experiences, such as:

> 'I tried everything to make him stop shouting, I even shook him... He annoyed the others; Nicki started crying. The hall was full of mothers...I felt so embarrassed... imagine what they would think of me' (Teacher N)
> 'I felt incompetent... I kept thinking why I wasn't able to make her talk. I found out that... She finally talked, I felt relieved' (Teacher Y)

I thought teachers felt the need to communicate their experiences to get reassurance from others that they acted properly; the sharing of classroom problems, and also the co-operation in exchanging teaching material that was occurring, appeared to satisfy this need. I thought that the positive collegial response to this need related to the way some teachers exercised professional accountability in these settings, for instance it resulted in

opening up practice to the scrutiny of others. However, when I asked teacher K if she sought the opinion of the other teacher in her school, she said:

> 'She is so secretive... she even locks the worksheets...She is always 'buying' (meaning does not talk)... How can I trust her? She scares me'

She suggested that to accept the critique of others and use it to evaluate her actions requires a sharing of experience that is based on openness and trust. When I asked teacher L (the youngest one and with four years of initial training) in the interview if she sought her colleagues' views when she self-evaluated, she described the ways others '*devalued*' her effort (a theatrical play that she had organised in the city theatre) and the way this affected her motivation to improve her practice through initiative:

> 'Not only was my work not recognised I was punished for working hard. I am very disappointed. I don't think I should try again. It is far away from what others do (silence)... it's not worth gaining satisfaction by losing peace of mind'

Cognitive and emotional aspects could overbalance one's sense of professional accountability. The way teachers self-evaluate and the sense of personal and professional responsibility they develop appeared to relate to the way others react in specific situations. This means it linked to one's sense of justice reflecting the "balance between the divergent interests of many" (Bohme, 2001). Next I discuss the way nursery teachers self-evaluated.

SELF-EVALUATION PROCESSES

Reaching understanding of their practice involved the conscious or unconscious processing of information acquired through recording, observations and interactive dialogue. The latter is discussed with reference to pupils, colleagues and accountability.

Unconscious thinking

From the first week I noticed that teacher S, A and H brought up pupils' misbehaviour during breaks questioning what they did:

> 'Why did I not do this?'
> 'What was the real benefit...?'
> 'Was it worth it? What if we had used...?'

On the last day of my first week, I discussed with them why they needed such questioning. They said that it is *'common logic to question the way pupils' behave'* arguing that such questioning enabled them to identify needs, recognise progress and

analyse benefits when trying to find ways of appropriate action. Next week while interviewing teacher S, I asked how she understood if her teaching was efficient and successful. She said:

> 'From pupils; you can see in their face if they don't understand or if they don't like something... I start thinking...'

Like her, others also reported in the interviews that questions were raised in their minds like '*Did I say more things than I should*?, '*Should I push them forward?*', '*Did I make it too hard?*' Unexpected behaviour or outcomes appeared to alert teachers of the need to reflect. A readjustment of thoughts seemed to be needed when teachers perceived a destabilisation in their teaching situation; as teacher S had noted in our first interview: '*It happens when I feel that something doesn't quite fit*'. When interviewing teacher TH she also noted the '*feeling that something is missing'.* In interviews teacher A raised this when describing her pupils' reaction when she taught them the alphabet:

> 'I was getting messages that something was wrong; I kept trying.... It took me months to realise what confused pupils. It is better to stop and start afresh later'

Some of her reflections seemed not adequate or insightful enough to help her understand pupils' misunderstanding or the feedback she acquired did not help do that. I thought that teacher intuition, the amount of information the teacher received, and unexpected outcomes and time related to one's questioning of own actions. Also, that increase in one's awareness might not necessarily bring about clarity or a solution. McLaughlin (1999:18) notes that flawed reflections can lead to misunderstandings and mistakes. Her confidence that she could manage to make pupils understand by using several techniques (sense of own competence), or her understanding of her pupils' capabilities, led to her persistence while missing the real cause of the problem. When I asked her how she could have avoided this problem she said that her '*only armoury'* was her '*prior experience*'. Turning to prior experiences for solutions, she explained, enabled decisions '*on the spot*' which mainly involved a '*change of route*', such as:

- repeating or giving more instructions, like '*be careful, colour inside the lines*'
- encouraging, supporting pupils, like: '*I know you can do much better than this, let's try again*'
- shifting activity, like: '*you look tired, let's do something else'*

Teacher M had made clear in the interview that when something '*troubled*' her she tried to stay focused in finding a solution:

> 'I try to find a solution here and now. I'll ask a colleague, I'll improvise... I won't let problems drag me' (Teacher M)

Unresolved problems appeared to disorganise the teacher. Several teachers used the word '*drag*' when referring to problems suggesting a need to be in control of the teaching situation: '*At least for a moment I need to feel I have dealt with the problem*' (Teacher S). Observing teachers H and M in their classrooms, I noticed that they followed a 'timely switch' in activities; that is, certain behaviours, such as pupils' restlessness, made teachers change activity. When I asked if this change was done because the teacher thought at that point that her teaching was unsuccessful, H denied it:

> 'With pupils of this age there is always time to make new plans, to teach in another way another day'

The perception of '*a plethora of time*' stemming from teachers' perception of pupils' young age appeared to account for the 'timely switch' when faced with unexpected outcomes and to lead to disassociating one's effectiveness from unsuccessful outcomes: '*if it's solved is solved (meaning: I don't bother); they have time to learn*'. Teacher M said when I discussed the change of activity with her:

> 'It shows that there is something wrong with what I had planned...I can't relax until I find a solution that fits; it doesn't matter how long it takes... Colleagues tell me that I involve myself too much... This is how I feel I should deal with problems'

While some teachers disregarded unexpected outcomes away from the moment they appeared, others considered them as instances that required further attention. This suggested that the intention for quitting an activity varied; this meant variation on the criteria applied when evaluating success in these activities. The stance of teachers towards unexpected outcomes or situations (e.g. timely switch) offered an example showing the differentiation between unconscious and conscious engagement in self-evaluation. Elliott (1983) describes the unconscious engagement as 'unreflective self-evaluation', during which teachers are not capable of justifying the judgements they make, and he contrasts it with 'self-evaluation as practical deliberation', which defines a conscious effort to question and justify action.

Conscious thinking

When I asked teachers in the interviews what they do when they self-evaluate I received answers, such as:

> 'I usually think about what I did in the psychokinetic area. I know I lack in this area; I feel guilty for not giving pupils many chances to express themselves' (Teacher M)
>
> '...I had not considered creative activities as important as pre-maths; the NC said so, but I wasn't convinced until the day...' (Teacher TH)

Awareness of own preferences and beliefs regarding areas of learning seemed to influence the way teachers thought about and evaluated their teaching. Planned activities, misunderstandings, weaknesses, preferences, successes, unexpected outcomes appeared to be the usual foci of deliberate reflection. Deliberating, as a way of preventing unsuccessful teaching appeared mainly to be a reactive act; for instance, teacher A said when answering the same question:

> 'It took efforts of three years to realise that it was my mistake to start teaching letters with a crooked line without pupils understanding how the line moves up or down' (Teacher A)

The role of reflexivity in assisting teachers to understand how to improve their practice becomes apparent. As is the way the teacher assumed responsibility in finding out what was wrong in her practice (Airasian & Gullickson, 1994). When discussing with teachers whether they persisted over time to realise what was at fault in their practice, only a few teachers admitted that they did. This suggested the focus of their self-evaluation was placed on timely issues, ones that required immediate solution; this implies a low level of commitment for deep engagement in long-term self-evaluation with the aim to understand the effects of one's own decisions. Self-evaluation as practical deliberation (Elliott, 1983) requires the adoption of the 'through you' approach to teaching that indicates active engagement and commitment to solve problems (Kremer-Hayon, 1993); both determine the understanding teachers develop through self-evaluation and the way they put what they had learned from this process in action. The sources that teachers used to develop understanding of their practice follow.

Feedback

Feedback was used for summative and formative purposes (Scriven, 1967) for accountability and decision-making (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995). The formative function was evident when teachers used feedback to '*balance needs*' and '*adjust learning priorities*' which indicated the way the information that the teacher collected was processed in the form of an internal dialogue with oneself to find out whether to

'*change choices for better ones... to understand pupils' needs better... to become a better teacher*' (Teacher L). The summative function was mostly evident when teachers evaluated their practice because they felt that others called them into account. The role of feedback in self-evaluation is discussed with reference to recording, observation and interactive dialogue.

Recording

When I asked Y and TH whether they had thought of recording pupils' activities to help them remember what precisely happened in specific moments, they said:

> 'I need to watch every move twenty pupils make, participate and intervene. I have no time to run around with a pen. It's just doing one thing or the other'
> 'I have changed schools so I wouldn't have to be the Head and deal with written work. If I was obliged to record, I would probably. I still wouldn't like doing it'

Recording during teaching seemed to be regarded as time consuming and as distracting attention. Teachers preferred to '*keep all information in mind*'. Teachers' perception of recording as a product, not a process of teaching might reflect teachers' disposition to engage in specific activities. In the case of teacher TH her negative disposition towards written work resulted in decisions to not engage in such activities. When I asked for their records, teachers showed me: files with activities, reflective diaries; pupils' progress records (achievements, weaknesses and targets to be met); files of assessment worksheets and of own constructed pedagogic instruments accompanied by remarks regarding successful use. They reported using them when appropriate. Such files could be used formatively in planning and target setting and help prevent unexpected outcomes. Teacher TH, when showing me her files, said:

> 'These are the steps I had followed ... These are my notes of exercises... this was hard for immature pupils... Every year I open the file and know what exercise fits well with what pupils'

Planning is significant for the teaching process and learning outcomes (MacGilchrist et al, 1997). Keeping and consulting planning records advances understanding (English, 2001). Teachers did not show me planning sheets: some refused, some admitted they did not write plans ('*it's in my head* –teacher M), others said they kept them at home. They said, however, that a consultation of past records or materials helped to plan a lesson, as teacher H put it the '*files did their miracle*'. However, only teachers S and TH (out of thirteen) reported consulting their records in a systematic manner:

'I am lost without my notebook'
'I need to see my notes to decide what fairytale, crafts work, game pupils' managed easily and enjoyed'

Consultation of previous records appeared important for determining the level of difficulty of the planned activities and for raising confidence about successful outcomes. Old records were reminders of previous effective teaching experiences, and used as a frame for future success. Problematic situations seemed to be a discrepant case in which recording was a means used intentionally to develop understanding. Teacher K was one of the two teachers who reported keeping such a diary:

'I keep forgetting; consulting it helped to make comparisons or get some ideas of what was working well in similar problems'

She suggested that keeping reflective remarks provided knowledge that facilitated comparing characteristics of situations and drawing conclusions. Old records used as reminders and solution providers implied that recording was the means to achieve an end, the end being the facilitation of the decision-making process. Recording might be used as an end in itself. Teacher H said about the way she used her records:

'It makes me feel good just by looking at them...It brings up nice memories'

The sentimental value attached to the consultation of previous thoughts implied that recording could function as a motivating tool in teacher self-evaluation. The following section indicates how teachers' own observations motivated them to reflect on practice.

Observation

When I asked teachers what helped them to realise that they needed to evaluate their teaching I received a unanimous answer: observation. Teacher P defined it as '*moving around having your eyes and ears open*'. When I asked teachers P and TH to explain, they said that observation:

'helps grasp reactions... a comment that comes out of the blue alerts me'
'If you don't observe pupils closely you can't know what questions you need to ask..., to clarify if you understood correctly what they said...'

Continuous observation appeared to facilitate instant intervention. Such intervention relied on teacher intuition. K, N and S said that observation alone was not enough:

'You see that something is wrong but you can't make sense why they act this way'
'Often you need to make up what they say... You've got to trust your instinct'

'I didn't catch their reaction; then the mothers came and told me'

One's own observation might not always be enough to ensure correct interpretation of young pupils' reactions. This can explain why I saw teachers turning to parents and colleagues to discuss pupils' behaviour on a daily basis. A combination of processes seemed to be needed to reach understanding of practice. Correct interpretation and prompt awareness of where pupils' reactions might lead, seemed to be important dimensions for the way information was used in self-evaluation. Interpreting pupils' feedback correctly protected teachers from hustle and trouble:

> 'Pupils might not want to come, they cry when they go home and refuse to do the planned activity, if I don't read the signs correctly…' (Teacher TH)

It seemed that inability to '*catch reactions on time*' created problems in effective planning, affected instruction and learning outcomes. However, my observation notes indicated that teachers did not always observe as intensely as they suggested. When I shared this observation with teacher D, she said:

> 'The first months are exhausting, having your eyes and ears open is not enough… Then you get an idea about each child's character and capabilities, you don't need to observe intensely'

Observation seemed to be more intense when teachers were unfamiliar with the needs of their class but also depended on the understanding they had developed of their situation.

Interactive dialogue with pupils

I started classroom observation with teachers TH and S. I noticed that teacher TH used to involve different groups of pupils in a dialogue about next day's work and teacher S discussed with pupils her plans (e.g. museum visit). I asked why they did that:

> 'To see what aspects of my plans fill pupils with enthusiasm'
> 'To see their reactions and decide which areas to visit and what activities to include. I do this often…'

In both instances pupils were intentionally provoked to express their thoughts; teachers used these dialogues to decide about issues of particular interest to pupils. I thought such dialogue served a formative function: conversing with pupils and reflecting on their comments to decide on further action facilitates the choice of appropriate action. These teachers stressed that they would not go ahead with what they had in mind if pupils were disinterested. Matching activities to pupils' interests implies attention to

active learning. I started questioning whether class or individual performance mattered most when making judgements about choice of action. P connected class performance with her understanding of successful teaching: '*when the majority of pupils understand, it means I did well*'. I asked if her understanding of class performance required time:

> 'Usually after the 4th week I begin to see how my class moves'

When observing teacher M in her classroom, I noticed that she frequently commented on a child; when I asked why, she replied:

> 'I do that to remind him; he works quickly, I want him to be more careful. Sometimes, when I see his frustration I question the worthiness of my target'

It seemed that teachers' need to keep pupils on task might act as a reminder of the value of the target they had set. Teacher M continued:

> 'He likes drawing; I told him when he finished the assignment to draw ribbons using different colours. He knows that we never leave pens without lids; what I really asked him was to spend time in choosing colours and making sure to put the lids back on every pen. It was one way to make him concentrate and learn to sit... I watch now how he is doing to see if I was right'

Individual performance could provide criteria that teachers used to evaluate the correctness of their judgements and decisions.

Interactive Dialogue with colleagues

Most teachers sought actively colleagues' opinions, for example they entered other classrooms to discuss how pupils coped with activities. They also appeared to know the problems of individual pupils in other classrooms; most discussions in the playground revolved around such problems or class activities. I approached teacher P to find out why this was happening; she presented this example:

> 'All know Eleni. When I told them that she was 'hyperactive', some suggested that this could be an excuse for me...To be honest, I was shocked... I still wonder whether I am right, it's easy to give labels (pause), I don't know. I just know I need to find ways to understand how to help her'

Communicating experiences appeared to aim for a comparison of views. In her case, the explicit communication of ideas among colleagues presented a dilemma and an opportunity to stand critically towards the judgement she had made. In such cases the collegial dialogue can serve a formative function: it facilitates understanding and decision-making and provides opportunities to question the interference of one's own prejudices and generalisations in professional judgements. However, communicating

experiences might have different functions, such as of protection and justification of teacher image. These are discussed with reference to parents and colleagues.

Interactive dialogue used for accountability purposes

I had noticed that teacher H appeared uneasy when she talked to parents, so I asked her if parents were not co-operative. She said that most were, but '*experience had taught*' her that parents were not always willing to accept a teacher's judgement:

> 'Most parents that I talked to looked at me suspiciously; some did not allow to explain... You need to be very careful when you break the news'

'*Breaking news*' to parents seemed an unpleasant task; perhaps because it involved a transfer of responsibility to a person non-specialised in this area, or maybe because teachers felt uncertain about their own capacity to communicate bad news. In this sense, communication skills were vital for the way information towards and from parents was circulated, and also for its usefulness in the self-evaluation process. I observed that teacher S was a teacher who talked on a daily basis to parents and appeared to have good relationships with them. When I asked whether this exchange of information helped in the evaluation of her practice, she said that occasionally it did not and provided an example of a child with a sight problem:

> 'I just detected a problem I couldn't deal with... I had neither the specialised knowledge nor the authority to give a solution'

The boundaries she had set for her teaching duties appeared to allow her to disconnect the evaluation of her practice from areas that she felt were falling outside her responsibility. Both avoidance of guilt and empowerment were served. However, such boundaries resulted in class problems becoming somebody else's problem and were grounded in perceptions of expertise. Expertise includes both knowledge and authority, thus provides teachers with power to decide and act. Disassociating her role from finding a solution to this problem led to keeping her power position unquestionably firm. This raises an issue about power use in teacher self-evaluation. For example, I heard teachers K and C excluding pupils from learning activities with the excuse that they '*are emotionally disturbed*' and '*should be somewhere else*'. The other teachers (teacher N and P) held a different view:

> 'They are just more active; sometimes we look for what is convenient for us'
> 'She does it because she knows his parents have no way of knowing'

Teachers' power to evaluate and decide could be misinterpreted and misused. The implications for self-evaluation were reflected in quick evaluative judgements not to understand practice but to reassure teachers:

> 'I don't feel bad, I couldn't do anything else or more. I've talked to the mother, she didn't want to listen' (Teacher K)
> 'I have learnt to keep contact up to the point parents show willingness to change their minds' (Teachers C)

What teachers described as '*guilt*' appeared to cease when teachers accepted feeling unable to convince parents of a problem requiring an expert's solution. Feelings of 'guilt' related to role expectations might promote certain teacher behaviours (Hargreaves, 1994). Past experiences of problems appeared to prompt the development of a cautious attitude and the establishment of certain ways of acting, which were used to justify one's own stance towards parental feedback. This might restrict the information teachers used to develop understanding of their teaching, however, it allowed them to frame and rationalise the boundaries they had set for their duties.

The boundaries teachers had set for their role had implications for the way judgements of practice were communicated. My recordings in the playground indicated that teachers often used language such as '*he can't do this, he is a bit slow' or 'it's not your fault... he'll learn in time, they all do*'. Awareness of pupils' capabilities appeared to facilitate the prediction of pupils' behaviour, which, however, could lead teachers to evaluate actions based on unquestionable judgements about pupils' level of maturity. Discussing with five teachers of one shift whether the use of comparisons among pupils' behaviour and achievements leads to expressing such judgements, they found this '*inevitable*' and '*hard to avoid*':

> 'You have doubts; if you are willing you search more inside you, you find in time if you were right' (Teacher S)

That day (I had been nine weeks in these schools) I wrote this memo:

Willingness to know, and also time, appear important for evaluating one's judgements of practice. Teachers' judgements often reflect prejudices and generalisations. Does such explicit language provide reassurance of some sort? Perhaps it allows teachers to disconnect their performance from pupils' problems. In terms of accountability such judgements seem acceptable as long as teachers adopt a rationale of serving pupils' needs. The environment nurtures this rationale, which appears to be based on a 'shared' professional consciousness (Eraut, 1994) that allows teachers to understand and sympathise with the other's problem and accept the sense of accountability each teacher exhibits. The review of teacher performance seems that it can be used 'for justification' which serves teacher accountability at the expense of teacher understanding. Self-evaluation can be used as a means to another end (e.g. justification).

DEVELOPMENT of SELF-EVALUATION

The development of self-evaluation practice is discussed with reference to novice and experienced teachers.

The Novice Teacher

When I asked teachers to recall their previous self-evaluation experiences a common phrase was: '*I had a difficult time realising what was going on… in deciding what to do*'. Uncertainty appeared to obscure teacher understanding of situational needs and their decision-making; M said for instance:

> 'I remember children kept asking if they could use the climbing fence, I felt terrible. 'Should I let them? What if they fall?' …I couldn't make up my mind'

The interplay between feelings and thoughts when uncertainty overrides judgements appeared important in self-evaluation. Searching for prescriptive ways and valuing standardisation were mentioned by almost all teachers:

> 'Many ifs' were going around in my mind. I felt angry because the people that trained us, didn't give us at least some lists to turn to for solution… anything, anyway that could facilitate my life in school' (Teacher D)

The transitional period from a context of teacher training that appeared dominated by theory to the reality of the classroom seemed crucial for the practice of self-evaluation. Teachers appeared to need guidance (Rosenholt, 1990; Lieberman, 1996):

> 'There was no one to tell me where to start from, what to avoid' (Teacher H)
> 'I needed advice on staff 'she doesn't stop crying; what should I do? She is restless; she carries away the whole class and drives me crazy' (Teacher TH)

Almost all teachers located the provision of guidance and help inside school premises. The organisation of nursery schooling presents a difficulty since novices usually teach alone in villages; this has implications for teaching and self-evaluation:

> 'For every issue I had to sacrifice 3 or more years. I lost time… the government should had thought of such things' (Teacher A)
> 'You know what to ask but not what pupils can give, how they react'(Teacher P)

In the transitional period from training to classroom reality, policy support was important for teachers developing understanding of class situations and confidence. Support could assist in closing the gap that seemed to exist between the knowledge of initial training and the knowledge of the classroom. Undeveloped ability to interpret and understand pupils' feedback resulted in difficulty in connecting theoretical and

experiential knowledge. This made it difficult for teachers to realise that they coped successfully and led them to becoming preoccupied with outcomes rather than processes, being reactive rather than proactive:

> 'When I went home I questioned what I did. I remember saying to myself 'why didn't I manage my time better, why didn't I tell them more? I kept feeling that I did less than I should' (Teacher H)

'*The more you say, the more they learn*' predominated in novices' reflections. Focusing on outcomes and ignoring the process seemed not sufficient to enhance understanding and did not help teachers clarify their strengths and weaknesses. A lack of confidence in one's capacities appeared to contribute to such focus and had implications for self-evaluation: *'I demanded more of children than of myself'* (Teacher S)

The Experienced Teacher

> 'I know now that pupils are telling me in their own way how to get the best out of them' (Teacher D)

Years in the profession appeared to make teachers respect pupils as learners who were capable of exhibiting their needs; this implies accepting a facilitating role in pupils' learning, and related to the learning priorities teachers set for pupils:

> 'If I was teaching in a village now I would insist in developing children's writing skills… In a city I create chances for more play…' (Teacher M)

Considering contextual differences is important when evaluating one's own practice, since the teacher identifies what is important to reflect about and act on it. The issue is not whether this teacher's belief is right or wrong but the extent to which the teacher is open or reluctant to recognise that her belief might be falsely conceived and try to change it. This requires a change in focus and a re-estimation of the kind of knowledge that is of value for pupils' future; for M this change involved: '*it doesn't matter how much pupils gain, as long as what they gain is of quality*'. As already noted, I often heard teachers questioning the need to insist on some activities that they regarded as hindering pupils' development, such as learning to write the alphabet, but insisting that '*pupils learn through play*' and intervening when pupils appeared dissatisfied. When I shared my observation with teacher TH she said:

> 'Teachers need to balance what is needed and worry. Now, when I start thinking that a child is 'immature' I question my impression. Why did I think that? Was I as flexible as I should? Should I have given simpler work? This kind of worries'

Such questioning is a self-evaluation process, which provides opportunities to check the effect of one's own beliefs on practice. Teacher S and A described the effect of experience on teacher skills:

> 'I can be relaxed, use a few words and simple ways to direct pupils' attention to the things I want'
> 'I can think ahead, I know what must be done in most circumstances. I don't feel bad if I fail. I know I can make up for my mistakes'

An enhanced capacity to prevent, to evade and to compose seemed due to experience. For teacher S, this capacity enhanced her feelings of control over her teaching situation:

> 'I am a lot more sensitive with children now... aware and considerate of their needs; this helps me avoid unpleasant situations for pupils and myself'

Feelings of competence seemed to relate to recognition and acceptance of responsibility. Airasian and Gullickson (1994:200) stress that "without a sense of ownership or responsibility, there is no self-assessment". Such ownership is evident in M's comment:

> 'The public sector suffers, inadequate services... indifferent individuals, but most students cope successfully. How does this happen...? Most teachers deposit their soul, that's why'

The contrast she made indicated the way she perceived that she functioned, or wished to function. Associated to self-evaluation it implied that professional expectations have the potential to overcome the system's limitations.

OVERVIEW

Teachers believed that the practice of self-evaluation was dependent on teacher conscience and was part of teaching. They self-evaluated to develop their understanding of practice and for accountability. There were teachers who self-evaluated deliberately and did not limit the scope of their self-evaluations when leaving the setting; such self-evaluations were consciously made serving an internal need to understand and learn from practice with the aim to use this learning for the improvement of teaching. When self-evaluating for understanding, teachers aimed to determine needs by self-evaluating for diagnosis, for assessing pupils' attainment, for identifying their own strengths and weaknesses; and also to clarify their understanding of classroom behaviour and achieving awareness of success in their practice. There were also teachers who self-evaluated unsystematically and rapidly trying to match actions to outcomes; such self-evaluations served mostly the purpose of accountability. Teachers'

moral and professional accountability outweighed their sense of contractual accountability. Professional accountability seemed to overshadow moral accountability. Teachers' willingness and commitment to engage in self-evaluation appeared to be framed by personal and professional beliefs, expectations interests and needs, as these were shaped by experiencing teaching in isolated and independent organisational settings and within a policy context that was seen as communicating its messages in unclear and unsupportive ways. Years of teaching experience appeared to make these teachers feel that they had developed confidence and skills regarding the diagnosis and management of situational needs and to bring changes in the value attributed to the understanding developed through self-evaluation. Some features of the conduct of self-evaluation, such as the sharing of practices, the different interpretations of what constitutes 'good' nursery teaching, restricted attentiveness to long term engagement in self-evaluation processes can be understood if related to the institutional and policy contexts.

SUPPORTS AND CONSTRAINTS

In this section I outline supportive and constraining conditions. I discuss them at the levels of the teacher and the school for analytical purposes since conditions at one level caused or were the effect of others.

The teacher

This section discusses factors, which emerged as important in teachers' self-evaluation practice, such as talent, expectations and beliefs. These are discussed with reference to subjective versus objective standards, control versus autonomy and mediocrity versus excellence of practice. The use of dichotomies serves descriptive and analytical purposes.

Talent

When observing teachers H, S, M and TH in their classrooms, I noticed that they avoided certain activities, such as activities aiming at self-expression, their reason being they '*lacked talent*' to show pupils how to perform. The NC stresses that pupils should be given such opportunities, however, teachers did not appear willing to consider how to improve their work in some areas. Observing the discussion of a group of teachers (TH,

A, K and L) about the NC targets in the playground, I noticed an agreement to L's comment:

> 'To achieve your targets and be a good nursery teacher you need to have an inborn ability towards teaching youngsters'

This implies that 'talent' could be used to justify inefficiencies or achievements in performance. In either case the real cause was hindered, since successes or failures in practice were imputed to the presence or absence of 'talent', and expectations and commitment to improve teaching in certain areas were affected.

Expectations and Beliefs

In the interviews, I had noticed that one's personal situation provided criteria for evaluating one's performance: '*what I want others to do with my own child I do with my class pupils*' (Teacher M). In my recordings of informal discussions, professional expectations appeared to allow the interference of personal problems in self-evaluation up to the point that they did not restrict teachers from 'caring'. 'Caring' for teachers K and N seemed to equate to teachers' interest for teaching:

> 'How can she concentrate on her class with all this mess in her life?'
> 'She doesn't do what she is supposed to but she did not stop caring for pupils'

When interviewing teacher A, I asked if she considered her colleagues' views when she self-evaluates. She noted that sometimes it is better not to do that:

> 'She says she leaves teaching at school, I believe she does... But if you don't carry your class in your heart, you don't want to know more about it, do you?... Perhaps, personal obligations can make one indifferent towards pupils' learning'

Limited professional expectations could affect the issues teachers were committed to attend in their self-evaluation practice. I became interested to note that teachers' expectations were not limited. I started examining the effect of personal expectations on judgements and decisions and the impact of issues considered as personal on areas where professional behaviour was required. Distinguishing between personal and professional expectations appeared not to be important when teachers perceived that something was useful for their teaching. In the seventh week in an afternoon break I brought up the issue of teacher expectations to a group of six teachers to explore their professional beliefs. The following conversation emerged:

> 'Nursery is to socialise pupils… use the language correctly… I am content if pupils meet the speech criteria…'
> 'Pupils will progress as individuals… we ought to focus in extending what they know… provide opportunities to possess academic knowledge'
> 'Pupils should mainly gain social skills. I watch closely to see if I fail …'
> 'Me too; I am interested in shaping pupils' personality...I don't mind if they don't learn all the numbers. I do mind if they'll leave school without learning that: 'I am part of a group and I need to treat others with respect and politeness'
> 'I don't devalue this; I am just saying that pupils are not incompetent. You said 'he's so tiny', so? This doesn't hinder him from trying counting'
> 'What's the rush?'

Two views appeared prevalent. According to the first, nursery was a 'social place', an environment caring mainly to socialise pupils and ensure that they learn rules and behave accordingly. The second group viewed nursery as 'places of opportunity', an environment that aimed also to extend pupils' academic knowledge. This difference resulted in diversity in teaching practice, especially regarding its focus, outcomes and criteria used to evaluate performance (both of pupils and of teachers) since teachers expected pupils' to profit in different areas from their teaching. Both groups seemed to perceive self-evaluation as a process that was part of their life not just their teaching. However, as my classroom observations revealed some teachers were more demanding than others. For instance, teachers' N and H did not appear to be alarmed by the lack of their class pupils' fine motor skills, while teachers S and A even when colleagues praised the high level of achievement of their class pupils in this area they said they could do better. Demands teachers exerted on themselves could drive them to adopt a critical stance towards their teaching. Tensions were created when expectations and beliefs were not questioned, such as these of subjective versus objective standards, control versus autonomy and mediocrity versus excellence in practice.

Subjective versus Objective Standards

In my last week in nursery schools, I asked five teachers to specify their ideal of teaching and how this affected their self-evaluation practice. M and S connected directly their aim to offer a teaching environment that would be '*useful to pupils*' to their own feelings of personal worth:

> 'I want children to be happy…when this doesn't happen I devalue myself… I say to my husband 'I opened and closed the 'shop' for nothing'
> 'I feel I succeeded when children profit. I don't want them to lose their day'

Teachers A and TH aimed also for '*children to have a good time*' and '*children profit*'. Profit was explained to mean pupils '*gain knowledge*', '*are covered emotionally*' and '*develop harmoniously*'; all these refer to the way children experience learning. However, nursery standards seemed not clearly specified or teachers appeared not to understand, or did not want to accept the value of the standards implied by the curriculum. For example, pupils' learning the subject-matter content prescribed by the NC seemed of minor importance to some: '*Learning how to be polite is more important than counting*' (Teacher D). The socialisation of pupils and her efforts to advance their communication skills were evident when observing her class, as was the lack of her class pupils' understanding of basic maths concepts, which pupils of the neighbouring class had already learned. The teacher did not seem to be alerted: '*They've got time for this*'. She seemed to have prioritised her class needs by using her own criteria and standards and considered it successful when these were met. Not challenging one's standards reflects misdirected attentiveness of one's practical judgements (Smith, 1999) and contributes to uncertainty as to what constitutes successful nursery teaching. Her feelings of autonomy appeared high. The implications for teacher self-evaluation when feelings of autonomy are supported or hindered follow.

Control versus Autonomy

In a playground discussion, teachers M, TH, disagreed with teachers L's and Y's decision to exclude planned kinetic activities from their timetable. Teacher Y reasoned that she was not good at physical activities and that they involved danger, teacher L noted that she never liked such activities and concluded: '*in the end, it is you and the pupils, no one but you can say what is important*'. Discussing decisions that disregarded official requirements indicated that teachers felt confident and secure to communicate their judgements and face the critique of others. Just a week before leaving the field I saw teacher L engaged in a kinetic activity in the playground: '*they made a fuss about it, I thought why not try*'. A collective questioning of practice seemed to be able to bring changes in one's practice (Elliott, 1998) without affecting the feelings of professional autonomy the teacher had clearly developed. Most teachers reported feeling 'autonomous'. The absence of surveillance in the evaluation of their practice seemed to support or to account for this feeling.

However, when there is confusion about acceptable standards teachers could misinterpret the exercise of professional autonomy. The feeling of being autonomous suggested to the previous teachers that they had the right to deprive pupils of certain learning activities. The curriculum requirement being someone else's conception seemed to contribute to this disregard. The control of the meaning of the NC (as a text) was in the hands of these teachers (the 'implementers', Ball, 1990). The dichotomy underlying the curriculum, of being conceived, formed and implemented at different levels and by different individuals, did not help some of these teachers to understand what means to exercise teacher autonomy responsibly. The lack of specific standards for nursery teaching, the unsystematic planning, the inadequate in-service training and teachers' devaluing of the way it was offered, contributed to misinterpreting the exercise of autonomy and affected excellence in practice.

Mediocrity versus excellence in practice

'*I wouldn't change this job, even if they offered me a million per month*', said teacher TH in a playground discussion; teachers M and P agreed. In my eight week, when S and K discussed with P pupils' unsuccessful response in writing alphabet letters, P told them that they were '*soft with pupils*':

> 'It's not our job to question the target… it's to implement it'.
> 'I just try to be a good model for pupils… to make obvious my care'
> 'You don't need to show pupils that you are wise but to share what you know'

Later that day teacher K commented on teacher P:

> 'I don't know how she can do that... These pictures are hung there from the moment I arrived… She comes and goes. Poor kids'

Teacher P's over reliance and use of maths exercises was obvious when observing her class, as was her difficulty in differentiating and assigning work according to individual needs. Both contributed towards restricting teaching practice to prescribed activities but did not allow for creativity, neither facilitated change processes. Teachers appeared to have interpreted the nursery schools' non-academic orientation as meaning that each teacher decides about what is worthy of teaching and learning. Since acceptable behaviour was defined with personal and implicit criteria, different teachers attributed greater emphasis on varying areas of pupils' development, which led to different judgements about one's contribution to pupils' learning needs and to a different focus in teacher intervention. The consequence was an observable differentiation in planning,

target setting and instruction, thus in the selection and use of self-evaluation criteria. Such differentiation appeared to affect excellence in practice regardless of the positive attitude teachers held towards nursery teaching. This suggests that more than positive attitude is required when teachers evaluate their own practice to achieve excellence.

The School

This section considers factors, such as duties, the change process and teachers' interaction with pupils, parents and colleagues.

Duties

What teachers declared as devotion to pupils' learning and well-being in interviews (formal and informal) varied from what my observation notes indicated. I saw children crying because they could not cope with the work they were assigned and heard teacher P often saying from her desk '*you won't get off your seat unless you finish*'; I saw teacher N's pupils moving around unattended all day and heard her reasoning '*that pupils learn when they play*'. The 'ideal' and the 'real' practice (Eraut, 1994) varied. Duties practiced according to individual interpretation affected self-evaluation: when personal beliefs became the sole determinants of personal effectiveness, teaching became a personal enterprise, so did its evaluation. This was not the best way to ensure that teachers' served responsibly their duties and used their practical judgements to serve all interests, neither to accommodate changes that could bring improvement in teaching. The view was:

> 'Everyone does as she pleases. It doesn't count how much you work. Why should I kill myself when others have a good time... are the favoured ones? My responsibility has limits; it doesn't have to be provoked so openly' (Teacher M)

Teachers' interpretations of duties, and consequently of what teacher autonomy consists of, appeared to relate to the way teachers experienced both in practice. The perceived lack of clarity in teaching duties appeared to lead to the misuse of teacher autonomy in a perceived indifferent and unjust policy context, and also to account to a great extent for the gap among the ideal pedagogy some teachers preached and the one they attended to in their practice. The implication was self-evaluating in a way not to improve teaching and learning but to match the practice of others who '*had a good time*' and '*were favoured*'. Most teachers, for instance, did not prepare because they '*knew from experience what to do*', and did not write plans because '*nobody does it*'. The role of

the institutional and policy context in assisting and sustaining the development of this minimalist attitude in self-evaluation becomes obvious.

Change Process

Most teachers appeared to hold a positive attitude towards change: '*You change as a person, a teacher, a mother. I have modified my views, certainly some of my teaching methods*' (Teacher L). Composure, prevention and evasion to avoid experiencing failure reflected knowledge learnt from experience and which seemed to have consequences for the management of teaching: '*experience made me understand what it was that wasn't helping me... what to pursue*' (Teacher S).

> 'Now it's not hard (to teach). I have learnt how to find ways to deal composedly with pupils' difficulties' (Teacher A)
> 'I can take pupils in...I can avoid to be taken by surprise' (Teacher P)
> 'I can now move away from reaching a dead end...Before, I didn't know how to thread my way' (Teacher S)

Practice knowledge was valued more than theory knowledge by the majority in the short questionnaire on educational orientations. Such knowledge, as the outcome of the change process, was central to teachers' development. It advanced one's capacity to identify needs (individual, personal, situational) and to apply practical and accurate solutions, which affected one's sense of confidence towards the management of change. Lack of confidence to manage change appeared to restrict teachers from accepting they could learn from changes in their practice. Take for instance the case with the initiative on literacy. Even teachers who appeared very considerate of pupils' learning needs and regarded teaching as a source of personal fulfilment (e.g. teachers TH and A) they did not appear to be committed or to be involved actively in this initiative. When I discussed this lack of commitment with TH and A, they said they did not know how to achieve its aims and they needed guidance. Confusion about aims and of ways of conduct prevailed in comments concerning this initiative. Teachers feeling confused about their knowledge and skills or the effectiveness of their teaching actions (as these teachers did) stood little chance of self-evaluating successfully their practice and using appropriately self-evaluation outcomes, thus deal successfully with change processes. A school climate, which was perceived as good, appeared not efficient to help. For example, most teachers in the short questionnaire on environmental conditions considered the school climate supportive for them and colleagues, found it important for

teaching and attended to sustaining it; they rated themselves as co-operative, considered important the collegial relationships and felt autonomous. These responses related to the open ways teachers discussed problems in their practice. However, the prevailing confusion about its aims and ways of conduct did not assist them to use their critique about it in ways beneficial for their practice. Perceiving this initiative as an unimportant task led to its devaluing. Further, in the short questionnaire that explored attitudes towards engagement in school-based self-evaluation training, the majority reported willing to devote time for participation but doubted the school's capacity to offer such training. This reflects the infeasibility to train teachers separately in each nursery. Their organisation makes difficult the provision of support through school-based in-service training (e.g. aiming to enhance self-evaluation practice).

Teacher-Pupil Interaction

I had noticed that teacher M was a teacher who continuously conversed with pupils inside her class and attended to solve conflicts in the playground. When asked why she did that, she said:

> 'Yes or no answers don't let you understand what they really mean. You need many and varying in length answers to realise that'

Teachers appeared to enjoy the teacher-pupil dialogues that I witnessed. They reported valuing pupils' openness and honesty, believing that '*you get what you deserve from pupils*' (Teacher A). This might explain why teachers sought pupils' feedback, such as when they wanted to understand a quarrel. When I asked teachers in the interview if they considered pupils' views in self-evaluation C and N noted:

> 'Pupils show you how you coped; you just have to learn what to watch'
> 'You learn what is important to consider from pupils' sayings' (Teacher N)

Teachers appeared to believe that they understood their practice as soon as they acquainted themselves with the way this age group expressed its needs. However, pupils' feedback could be disregarded or its worth devalued if not considered as advancing teachers' own learning, or if teachers had restricted opportunities to interact with pupils in one-to-one situations. The recording of frequency and duration of teachers' direct contact with pupils in the classrooms of M and H revealed that both became fewer when the class size was increased (Figure 5). This implies that feedback was affected. When I discussed this with these teachers, M reported her experience with a bigger class:

> 'I used to say 'I did this, but it didn't work'; I didn't go further than this thought…I just couldn't allot myself in thirty parts'

Large class numbers meant shortage of energy and time, consequently leading to less time devoted in identifying unsuccessful processes and outcomes or analysing the reasons. Long term engagement in teaching big class numbers could result in teachers making it a habit to restrict their attempts to question thoroughly their practice. Tired teachers might be unwilling to spend time at the expense of their well-being. This can explain why I saw teachers turning to colleagues and parents to develop their understanding of practice, to reinforce their views of learning progress, to get help in problem solution: it saved time.

Figure 5. Teacher-Pupil Direct Contact

One Hour Observation of Classroom Conversation *(focus: teacher and pupils)*			
	Number of class pupils	Frequency	Duration
Teacher M	20 pupils	3 times with most pupils	Ranging from seconds up to 2 minutes
Teacher H	9 pupils	6 times with most pupils	Ranging from seconds up to 3 minutes

Teacher-Parent Interaction

I repeatedly saw teachers communicate with parents:

> 'She was very energetic… Was she like this in the morning?' (Teacher Y)
> 'He wasn't talking... Did something made him upset at home?' (Teacher N)
> 'We talked about the rectangle… You know what to do… make the distinction clear, remember last time he got confused…' (Teacher L)

Such examples imply that teachers felt they ought to 'give an account of their doings' (Foster, 1999:176). Parental information appeared to fill gaps in teachers' understanding. In the case of teachers Y and N it clarified what was not clear through the teacher-pupil interactive dialogue. In teacher L's case the feedback was used to reinforce learning from school. The way teachers used parents' feedback for self-evaluation purposes is best illustrated by outlining teachers' perception of 'parents as partners' (Bastianni, 1987; Munn, 1993); this highlights that when teachers were 'held to account' by parents (Foster, 1999:176) they became defensible. Teachers appeared to regard parents as partners in pupils' learning when: they shared views about pupils'

performance -academic and social; they informed parents about the need to intervene and provided advice of appropriate action; the solution of problems was perceived as lying out of the reach of teachers. Unanticipated parental reaction influenced negatively self-evaluation when it made teachers cautious about the value of parental feedback in helping them understand better their practice.

Partners in Sharing Views:

Such partnership relied on exchanging views about pupils' performance and could be affected by the frequency of contact time. Most teachers expected that '*parents should come to discuss progress at least once a month*' (Teacher H). Teachers appeared to use parents' comments to check the level of agreement to their own perceptions of pupils' progress:

> 'I think about what pupils said, how they reacted. Then I decide whether a parent's comment was right' (Teacher N)

Parental feedback might remain questionable until proven true, however, pupils' feedback seemed rarely questioned for its sincere nature. Comparing the feedback acquired from different sources I noticed that notions of expertise could account for the different value that was placed on feedback; this implies that teachers relied more on knowledge that could be confirmed in action. In this context the role of training in advancing teacher knowledge and communication skills seemed crucial.

Partners in Intervening Efforts:

Such partnership seemed based on teachers acting as experts when they co-operated with parents. Teachers planned specific intervening actions and instructed parents on what to do. They said they '*used*' parents because '*parents (could) help the child even more than the teacher*'. This implies that non-acceptance of their comments or perceived refusal of parents could be reasons for quitting a persistent attempt to achieve a set aim *'If they can't see what I am trying to do, I stop thinking about the aim'* (Teacher K). Disassociating one's performance from a set aim to improve pupils' learning meant excluding ways that could help solve problems, restricting parental feedback and minimising its value in self-evaluation. The analysis of what teachers expected from parents' involvement indicated that this was seen as limited:

> 'Parents make suggestions, the decision belongs to me' (Teacher H)

It appeared that when teachers made decisions about necessary actions, they were open to parents' suggestions but they did not allow these suggestions to outweigh their own judgements. Such comments made me examine the relation of perception to communication. In this case it seemed that when parents' impressions of their pupils' behaviour supported teachers' decisions, teachers' perceived that parents valued their work which supported the self-evaluation process by motivating teachers to be introspective of their practice.

Partners in problem:

Such partnership was pursued when teachers were faced with a '*substantial*' problem based on the logic '*problems don't pop out of nothing... parents have their own share*' (Teacher K). The belief was that problems have a history, which complicates problem-solution and requires timely and co-ordinated efforts. In this case, preventive and corrective efforts seemed dependent on parents' acknowledgement and willingness to share the problem: '*The teacher builds one brick, parents add another*' (Teacher H) Past experience appeared to fuel teachers' perceptions about parents' role in co-operating to solve problems. The implication for self-evaluation was that teachers needed to recognise the value of building on a communication that was able to provide insightful information about their practice. Not achieving this kind of communication appeared to leave teachers with an incomplete or inadequate solution, as teacher H said when discussing the effect of a pupil's aggressive behaviour on class:

'I feel I am not helping her. She needs help, I need help, but where can I find it?'

Such comments implied a lack of supportive services to teachers, feelings of guilt and a lowering of one's beliefs in own competence. This affects the satisfaction one gets from work. The teacher in turn limits her expectations reasoning that:

> 'Parents don't come... they think nursery is a place where they can drop their children to do their work'

Teachers' morale was at stake when teachers' perceived that parents refused co-operation because they devalued their work. The implication for self-evaluation refers to lack of motive to evaluate one's practice. If teachers described accurately parents' belief of nurseries, were these a projection of their actual experiences or reflected social perceptions about nursery schooling? Social perceptions could be indicative of the nursery teachers' status in the educational system. Regardless of the teachers' view

being justifiable or not, perceiving a devaluing of one's own role implies challenging self-esteem and dispositions through self-evaluation. As the analysis has indicated, self-evaluation was dependent on teachers' disposition to challenge their understanding of practice. In this context one could argue that teachers might favour frequent contact time with parents, not because they deeply believed in parental feedback, but this reflected teachers' anguish and weakness to persuade parents about the value of their work. That is, their end was to advance the value attached to their position in the educational system.

Collegial Communication

Most teachers seemed to prefer discussing teaching outcomes or problems with colleagues rather than parents:

> 'Parents know their own pupil, colleagues have comparative knowledge of what I am talking about' (Teacher H)

Collegial conversations appeared to target at clarification of understanding or to get reassurance about one's actions; consider teachers' A and S conversation in the playground:

> 'How did they do? Mine couldn't even jump. I think I followed the wrong approach. I asked them to...'
> 'Did you start with the cards or the discussion? I think we should...'

Such exchange of views was a learning process that helped teachers to develop understanding and improve practice:

> 'I think colleagues' comments make me question my practice. I have caught myself depending on them when making decisions...For instance, I talk loudly. I became aware of how this affected pupils when one was teasing me: 'I wonder why she is scared with your squeaky tiny voice' (Teacher K)
> 'I accept even hard comments... they help me correct myself' (Teacher D)

It seemed that collegial involvement in self-evaluation included searching and accepting comments. When I talked to teacher K about this, she stressed the effect of the inability to communicate openly with colleagues: *'Not knowing how to behave with colleagues strains me'*. Opening up and taking the initiative in approaching others were two qualities that teachers valued in colleagues. Collegial communication appeared to require teachers being '*self-confident*' and '*open to learn*'. Their absence was interpreted as teachers '*showing off*', explained by teacher S to mean '*act for the eyes*

and not for the substance'. The '*substance*' referred to focusing on the improvement of pupils' learning. 'Show-off' behaviour seemed to disrespect professional values, such as '*supporting*' and '*respecting*' colleagues and was perceived as a threat:

> 'It may sound harsh but there are colleagues that try to stab you in the back; it's unprofessional but it's a matter of character...' (Teacher D)

Collegial communication to benefit teacher self-evaluation seemed to need to be grounded in openness, respect and trust to facilitate the teacher to admit failure. Such communication was observable in comments, such as '*I had a thunderous failure in [...]; I' m so mad. You taught this yesterday, how did it go?*' (Teacher TH). The sharing of experiences to benefit teachers in self-evaluation should involve the explicit questioning of criteria. 'Show off' behaviour rests on competition. Teachers differentiated between '*good and bad competition*' suggesting that such behaviour was conditionally accepted. Discussing this difference with teacher A and TH they explained that 'good' competition required knowledge, motivation and initiative action:

> 'We are in good competition when I have these exercise sheets and you've got others and we talk and exchange them or create new ones' (Teacher A)

In the context of self-evaluation collegial competition might affect relations, since any slip from what is perceived as 'good' competition could be easily seen as a threat. This could have implications for learning:

> 'Show off is at the expense of teaching. For example, children may not be able to cope, you insist because you want to show off. You help pupils with their work; they can't cope so you do it for them. Colleagues don't know the level of difficulty your pupils have experienced but they can detect whether pupils were able to complete alone, without your help. You 'follow low in their eyes' (local expression that means: one loses others' respect)' (Teacher TH)

'*Teachers' sincerity*' towards pupils and their professional integrity appeared to be at stake. Lack of confidence and security was implied that suggested a lack of teacher development. The value of teacher self-evaluation can be questioned if practised to cover insecurities instead of attending to questioning the learning acquired via its use. The importance of the learning community at the meso level becomes vital.

OVERVIEW

Nursery teachers' self-evaluation was driven by their willingness to find out how they performed. Most appeared to be interested in finding out through self-evaluation if

their teaching made pupils happy and a few paid equal attention to the quality of learning opportunities they offered to pupils. Confusion seemed to exist as to what nursery education is which affected professional expectations and beliefs, the criteria and standards used in self-evaluation and led to the misuse of professional autonomy and mediocrity in practice. Teachers' beliefs influenced by the professional, institutional and policy contexts appeared to play a determining role in the learning acquired through self-evaluation, also the sense of accountability that teachers exhibited. Although teachers conceived self-evaluation as a private exercise, most communicated openly self-judgements and were criticising each other's practice. This way, the self-evaluation process functioned unsystematically and unconsciously as a collective act. The restricted opportunities for professional communication that teachers had experienced at some point in their professional years appeared to make them open and acceptable to collegial critique; their organisational independence may also relate to this. This was not the case with parents who teachers regarded as partners under specific circumstances and used parental feedback in self-evaluation. Teachers held a positive attitude towards change. However, with duties not clearly defined and understood, political action perceived as partial and in-service support as inadequate, their self evaluation practice had little chance of becoming a learning experience that could help them develop professionally or to lead to a radical improvement of teaching.

CHAPTER SEVEN
THE POSTAL SURVEY

This chapter discusses the postal survey findings (Appendix 2A-B). The survey was delivered to a stratified sample of teachers (204) in primary (34) and secondary (34) settings in seventeen randomly selected districts, and also to the teachers (31) of the case study schools before fieldwork commenced. Responses from the two samples were compared and the analysis is reported with a discussion on the main themes and emergent issues. These themes and issues, connected to teacher self-evaluation, were supported by the literature reviewed. Their occurrence in this study indicates their level of association to the Greek teachers' self-evaluation practice.

AIMS

The questions in the postal survey aim to explore why, when and how Greek teachers practice self-evaluation, their perceptions of their evaluation knowledge, their feelings, most important aspects of self-evaluation, changes in self-evaluation, timing, involvement of others. Questions examine constraints and benefits in self-evaluation practice and explores teachers' attitudes towards standardised teacher evaluation schemes and teacher development. Estimates of teachers' self-evaluation effectiveness are also sought. To achieve these aims, I conducted quantitative analysis in the closed questions and attitude statements and qualitative analysis in the open-ended questions.

QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

This part presents the statistical analysis of the postal survey data. Background information such as gender, professional experiences and qualifications was included in the questionnaire (Appendix 3A). Three-point scales were used to measure teacher self-evaluation benefits, processes and purposes. 112 (54.4%) valid responses were received: nursery (18: 52.9%), primary (41: 60.3%), gymnasium (26: 51.0%), lyceum (27: 52.9%). The small size requires cautiousness when interpreting findings.

The statistical significance of data was checked by using the p-value of Pearson's Chi square. When significant difference was noticed the indicator of Cramer's V was used to define the intensity or the degree of association. This indicator is suitable for nominal and ordinal level variables (deVaus, 1996). To check the

reliability (Strub 2000) in the case of the internal consistency (Traub, 1994) of the measurement scales regarding self-evaluation benefits, processes and purposes (questions: 7a-k, 12a-l, 13a-j), Cronbach's coefficient ***alpha*** was used (Kim and Mueller 1978; Norusis 1992). To check the construct validity (Carmines & Zeller 1979; Bryant 2000) of the measurement scales Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was conducted (Kim & Mueller 1978; Norusis 1992). For the rotation method of axes the orthogonal rotation Varimax was used (Sharma, 1996). This means that the extracted factors (components) are linear independent. The criterion of eigenvalue or characteristic root (Eigenvalue $\geq$1) was used to define the number of factors that were extracted (Sharma 1996; Hair et al 1995). A total index for the reliability of the questionnaire can not be given because each question measures different constructs.

To check the main effects of teaching experience and school /or speciality and their interaction on the factors of teacher self-evaluation benefits, processes and purposes, data were tested in processes of analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the help of general linear models, GLM (Wackerly et al, 1996). In the case of multiple comparisons of means it was applied the statistical test of Bonferroni (Toothaker, 1993). The linear model of analysis includes two main effects and one interaction; in brief it is expressed as: *Dependent variable = 'teaching experience' + 'school' /or 'speciality' + 'teaching experience' x 'school' /or 'speciality' + error.* The GLM includes the main effect of: 'teaching experience' (four levels: 1-4, 5-11, 12-24, >25 years), 'school' (four levels: nursery, primary, gymnasium, lyceum), 'speciality' (six levels: nursery, primary, physical education, foreign languages, exact and pure science teachers) and the interaction of 'teaching experience' x 'school' /or 'speciality'.

The experimental significance level of statistical hypothesis tests was decided a priori at $a$exp=0.05. Tables 11, 14 and 15 present the results of PCA and reliability analysis for the teacher self-evaluation benefits, processes and purposes respectively. In these tables only loading that have absolute value $\geq$0.50 are presented. Loading bigger or equal to 0.30 generally have practical significance but for the specific sample size (n=112) loading $\geq$0.50 are also statistically significant at significance level 0.05 and power γ=0.80 (Hair et al, 1995). These variables were treated as if they were measured on quasi-continuous scales (Kim & Mueller, 1978:73-4).

Findings

Teachers' knowledge on evaluation issues is followed by the feelings the conduct of self-evaluation raised and the way it developed. Important aspects and constraining conditions are outlined. The teachers' ratings of their self-evaluation effectiveness follow the analysis of teachers' attitudes towards self-evaluation benefits, processes and purposes.

Evaluation knowledge

48 teachers (42.9%) reported not having received sufficient training in educational evaluation, 34 (30.4%) were uncertain (Q1). 39 teachers (34.8%) were unsatisfied about their training on educational evaluation, 39 (34.8%) felt uncertain (Q2). Such findings indicate uncertainty regarding educational evaluation issues and self-evaluation methodology which implies that teachers were not fully equipped with knowledge and skills necessary for self-evaluating effectively their practice. Slightly above half of the sample seemed willing to advance their evaluation knowledge: 65 teachers (58.0%) would participate if a formal self-evaluation training scheme was introduced, 27 (24.1%) were uncertain, the rest (17.9%) appeared unwilling (Q5). For such participation, teachers were willing to devote (Q5.1) 2hours weekly: 44 teachers (39.3%); 2hours monthly: 35 teachers (31.3%); two hours quarterly: 7 teachers (6.3%). 79 (out of 112) teachers expected such training to run continuously. The open category 'other' received 10 responses (8.9%) -the most frequent reported word was 'never'. Besides, 73 teachers (65.2%) reported that there are disadvantages in formal schemes for the evaluation of teachers, 34 (30.4%) were uncertain (Q4). This implies cautiousness towards formal evaluation schemes, which might have affected the value attributed to teacher self-evaluation. The usefulness of such findings for designing and implementing schemes for the evaluation of teachers becomes obvious.

Feelings

In the question that called teachers to choose up to three words that described best their concerns when self-evaluating, '*stress*' was the most frequently chosen word, with the categories *'other'* and '*disappointment*' following (table 1). The most frequently reported word in the 'other' category was '*responsibility*' (Q3). This category was purposefully included to allow the expression of positive feelings; the

assumption was that words expressing negative feelings would indicate constraints in self-evaluation practice, thus their disclosure would help understand why teachers' self-evaluated the way they did. The results suggest that there were teachers (8.7%) whose self-evaluation practice left them indifferent. Only 13.1% felt isolated and lonely and 14.5% felt guilt or fear when self-evaluating.

Table 1. Words describing teachers' feelings (Q3)

Fear	Indifference	Guilt	Isolation	Loneliness	Disappointment	Stress	Other	Total
10 (6.2%)	14 (8.7%)	15 (9.3%)	9 (5.6%)	12 (7.5%)	16 (9.9%)	64 (39.8%)	21 (13.0%)	161

Change

From the 110 teachers that answered this question, 98 (89.1%) reported they have made significant changes to the ways they self-evaluate (Q6); 85.5% of them had more than five years of experience. The most frequent word suggesting changes in self-evaluation practice (Q6.1) were '*uncertainty*' (category 'before') and '*more flexible*' (category 'now'). Such findings imply that teachers recognised the need to adapt to varying situations and reach judgements based on circumstantial evidence.

The statistical checking of independence χ^2 indicated that **there was no** statistical significant difference between the levels of experience and changes applied to self-evaluation practice (at a=0.05, χ^2=1.149, *df*=3, *p*=0.797) (table 2). **There was** a statistical significant difference between the levels of speciality and changes applied to self-evaluation (at a=0.05, χ^2=14.838, *df*=5, *p*=0.009, Cramer's V=0.367) (table 3).

Table 2. Association of self-evaluation changes with teaching experience (Q6)

Experience	Change		
	Yes	No	Total
1-4 years	14 (87.5%)	2 (12.5%)	16 14.6%
5-11 years	27 (90%)	3 (100%)	30 27.3%
12-24 years	36 (92,3%)	3 (7.7%)	39 35.5%
25 + years	21 (84%)	4 (16%)	25 22.7%
TOTAL	98 (89.1%)	12 (10.9%)	110

Table 3. Association of self-evaluation changes with speciality(Q6)

Speciality	Change		
	Yes	No	Total
Nursery	17 (100%)	0 (0.0%)	17 (17.3%)
Primary	21 (95.5%)	1 (4.5%)	22 (20.0%)
Physical Ed.	16 (94.1%)	1 (5.0%)	17 (15.5%)
Foreign Lang.	16 (84.2%)	3 (15.8%	19 (17.3%)
Pure Science	17 (94.4%)	1 (5.6%)	18 (16.4%)
Exact Science	11 (64.7%)	6 (35.3%)	17 (15.5%)
TOTAL	98 (89.1%)	12 (10.9%	110

Examining the count of cases the association was found to be on the positive answers of nursery teachers and the negative responses of exact science teachers. This could be due to the fact that 29.4% of exact science teachers were novice teachers. Or it might be interpreted, as nursery teachers needing more to change the way they self-evaluate, or showing a more positive attitude towards the change process compared to exact science teachers. This implies that nursery teachers rely more on changes applied to their self-evaluation practice to understand their performance than exact science teachers do. In this case it indicates different learning needs among teachers of these subject specialities suggesting that in understanding, evaluating and intervening to support the evaluation practice of these groups, different approaches need to be applied.

Time

Among 111 valid responses, 66 teachers (59.5%) reported they usually self-evaluated '*after the lesson*' and 33 (29.7%) '*during the lesson*' (Q8), 64 (59.3%) self-evaluated '*flexibly*' and 44 (39.3%) '*at fixed intervals*' (Q8.1). 77 teachers (69.4%) reported seeking advice or help from others (Q9), the most effective source of advice or help being 'fellow teachers' (70.1%) (Q10). The role of colleagues in providing supportive feedback in the practice of self-evaluation becomes crucial for the validity and accuracy of self-evaluation outcomes, also useful practically.

Involvement of others

The statistical checking of independence χ^2 indicated that **there was a** statistical significant difference between the levels of speciality and seeking for advice or help when self-evaluating (at a=0.05, χ^2=12.118, *df*=5, *p*=0.030, Cramer's V=0.330) (table 4). Examining the count of cases the difference was found to be on the positive answers of physical education teachers and the negative responses of foreign language teachers. This could be interpreted, as physical education teachers being more positive to ask advice or help for self-evaluation purposes than foreign language teachers.

Table 4. Seeking advice or help per speciality (Q9)

Table 5. Effective source of advice or help per speciality (Q10)

Speciality	Seek Advice or Help			Effective Source of Advice or Help				
	YES	NO	Total	Colleague	Adviser	Head	Other	Total
Nursery	14 (82.4)	3 (17.3%)	17 15.3%	11 (78.6%)	0 (0%)	2 (14.3%)	1 (7.1%)	14 18.1%
Primary	16 (72.7%)	6 (27.3%)	22 19.8%	15 (93.8%)	0 (0%)	1 (6.3%)	0 (0%)	16 20.8%
Physical Ed.	16 (94.1%)	1 (5.9%)	17 15.3%	3 (18.8%)	9 (56.3%)	1 (6.3%)	3 (18.8%)	16 20.8%
Foreign Lang.	10 (50.0%)	10 (50.0%)	20 18.0%	5 (50.0%)	2 (20.0%)	2 (20.0%)	1 (10.0%)	10 13.0%
Pure Science	12 (66.9%)	6 (33.1%)	18 16.2%	10 (90.9%)	1 (9.1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	11 14.3%
Exact Science	9 (52.9%)	8 (47.1%)	17 15.3%	10 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	10 13.0%
TOTAL	77 (69.4%)	34 (30.6%)	111	54 (70.1%)	12 15.6%)	6 (7.8%)	5 (6.5%)	77

A statistical significant difference was noted among levels of speciality and effective source of advice or help in self-evaluation (χ^2=44.306, *df*=5, *p*=0.000, Cramer's V=0.759) (table 5) with the association of speciality to effective source of advice being stronger than the association of speciality to seeking help or advice. Examining the count of cases the difference was found to be on the responses of primary and exact science teachers who sought *'help from colleagues'* and on physical education teachers who sought *'help from advisers and others'*. This could be interpreted, as primary and exact science teachers were more likely to consider colleagues as effective source of advice or help, while physical education teachers were more positive towards the advice or help of advisers and others. This implies a difference in attitudes regarding effective sources of feedback in the conduct of teacher self-evaluation.

Important Aspects

Out of 110 responses in this question (Q15), 49 teachers (44.5%) considered as the most important aspect in teacher self-evaluation *'teacher development'* and 40 (36.4%) *'teacher ability'*. The first group suggested that the successful conduct of self-evaluation could develop depending on contextual differences, while the latter considered individual capacities as the determining factor. This implies differences in beliefs and focus in the self-evaluation activity, also varying outcomes.

The statistical checking of independence χ^2 indicated that **there was no** statistical significant difference between the levels of: 1) teaching experience or 2)

initial studies or 3) speciality and what teachers considered as the most important aspect of teacher self-evaluation [1(χ^2=19.806, *df*=12, *p*=0.65), 2(χ^2=2.564, *df*=4, *p*=0.634), 3(χ^2=16.882, *df*=20, *p*=0.196)].

A statistical significant difference was noted among the levels of further training and what teachers considered as the most important aspect of teacher self-evaluation (χ^2=59.084, *df*=20, *p*=0.003, Cramer's V=0.366) (table 6). Examining the count of cases, the difference was found to be on the emphasis of teachers having: other degrees on *'time constraints'*; a master's degree on *'collegial self-evaluation'*; a PhD degree on the category *'other aspect'*. The low sample number does not allow applying interpretations. An issue that can be commented is that in the teachers with no further training (67: 60.9%), 49.3% considered '*teacher development*' as the most important self-evaluation aspect. 38.8% of them considered *'teacher ability'* important, which implies that they viewed teacher capacities as determining the way teachers self-evaluated and developed.

Table 6. Most important aspect of teacher self-evaluation per further training (Q15)

Further Training	MOST IMPORTANT ASPECT					
	Teacher Ability	Time constraints	Evaluation with Others	Teacher Development	Other	Total
Other Degree	5 (29.4%)	4 (23.5%)	2 (11.8%)	6 (35.3%)	0 (0%)	17 (15.5%)
SELDE	7 (43.8%)	1 (6.3%)	1 (6.3%)	7 (43.8%)	0 (0%)	16 (14.5%)
Maraslio	2 (50.0%)	0 (0%)	1 (25.0%)	1 (25.0%)	0 (0%)	4 (3.6%)
Master	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (75.0%)	1 (25.0%)	0 (0%)	4 (3.6%)
PhD	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (50.0%)	1 (50.0%)	2 (1.8%)
None	26 (38.8%)	4 (6.0%)	3 (4.5%)	33 (49.3%)	1 (1.5%)	67 (60.9%)
TOTAL	40 (36.4%)	9 (8.2%)	10 (9.1%)	49 (44.5%)	2 (1.8%)	110

Constraints

Five statements were used and assumed to represent the constraints of: attention, time, professional values, staff attitudes and other means.

The statistical checking of independence χ^2 indicated **no** statistical significant difference between gender and the items expressing the self-evaluation constraints of attention(a), time(b), professional values(c), other means(e) [Q14a (χ^2=0.110, *df*=2, *p*=0.966); Q14b (χ^2=0.524, *df*=2, *p*=0.786); Q14c (χ^2=1.558, *df*=2, *p*=0.471); Q14e (χ^2=1.248, *df*=2, *p*=0.509)]. **There was a** statistical significant difference among gender and staff attitudes towards self-evaluation [Q14d (χ^2=7.902, *df*=2, *p*=0.023, Cramer's V=0.268)] (table 7).

Table 7. Staff attitudes, as a constraint, per gender (Q14d)

GENDER	High	Medium	Low	TOTAL
Female	14 (20.3%)	16 (23.3%)	39 (56.2%)	69 (62.7%)
Male	2 (4.9%)	18 (43.9%)	21 (51.2%)	41 (37.3%)
TOTAL	16 (14.5%)	34 (30.9%)	60 (54.5%)	110

Examining the count of cases, this difference was found to be on the category 'high' being answered by female teachers and the category 'medium' answered mostly by male teachers. This implies that female teachers are more likely to consider staff attitudes as a constraint in their self-evaluation practice than male teachers.

The statistical checking of independence χ^2 indicated **no** statistical significant difference between the levels of teaching experience and the items expressing the self-evaluation constraints of attention(a), time(b), staff attitudes(d), other means(e) [Q14a (χ^2=1.372, *df*=6, *p*=0.970); Q14b (χ^2=11.544, *df*=6, *p*=0.073); Q14d (χ^2=7.155, *df*=6, *p*=0.315); Q14e (χ^2=2.407, *df*=6, *p*=0.888)]. **A statistical significant difference** was noted among levels of teaching experience and professional values underlying staff culture [Q14c (χ^2=5.758, *df*=6, *p*=0.466, Cramer's V=0.229)] (table 8).

Table 8. Professional values, as a constraint, per teaching experience (Q14c)

GENDER	High	Medium	Low	TOTAL
1-4 years	3 (18.8%)	7 (43.8%)	6 (37.5%)	16 (14.5%)
5-11 years	3 (10.3%)	16 (53.3%)	11 (36.7%)	30 (27.3%)
12-24 years	12 (30.8%)	12 (30.8%)	15 (38.5%)	39 (35.5%)
25+ years	5 (20.0%)	10 (40.0%)	10 (40.0%)	25 (22.7%)
TOTAL	23 (20.9%)	45 (40.9%)	42 (38.9%)	110

Examining the count of cases, this difference was found to be on the category '*high*' being answered by teachers with 12-24 years of experience and the category *'medium'* where the responses of teachers with 5-11 years of experience prevailed. This suggests that teachers having 12-24 years in teaching are most likely to perceive professional values as a constraint in their self-evaluation compared to teachers in the range of 5-11 years. This implies that years in the profession account for differences in perceptions regarding the role of professional values in teacher self-evaluation.

The statistical checking of independence χ^2 indicated **no** statistical significant difference between the levels of school of current work and the items expressing the

self-evaluation constraints of attention (a) professional values(c), staff attitudes(d), other means(e) [Q14a (χ^2=9.482, *df*=6, *p*=0.149); Q14c (χ^2=11.541, *df*=6, *p*=0.74); Q14d (χ^2=4.095, *df*=6, *p*=0.681); Q14e (χ^2=2.020, *df*=6, *p*=0.925)]. **A statistical significant difference** is noted among levels of school of current work and time devoted for self-evaluation purposes [Q14b (χ^2=13.341, *df*=6, *p*=0.037, Cramer's V=0.348)] (table 9).

Table 9. Time, as a constraint, per school of current work (Q14b)

SCHOOL	High	Medium	Low	TOTAL
Nursery	4 (23.5%)	4 (23.5%)	9 (52.9%)	17 (15.5%)
Primary	14 (35.0%)	17 (42.5%)	9 (22.5%)	40 (36.4%)
Gymnasium	7 (26.9%)	15 (57.7%)	4 (15.4%)	26 (23.6%)
Lyceum	8 (29.6%)	16 (59.3%)	3 (11.1%)	27 (24.5%)
TOTAL	33 (30.0%)	52 (47.3%)	25 (22.7%)	110

Examining the count of cases, this difference was found to be on the category 'low' being answered by nursery teachers and the category 'medium' by teachers working in gymnasium and lyceum. This suggests that nursery teachers are most likely *'not to perceive time'* as a constraint in their self-evaluation compared to secondary teachers, raising questions about the effect of the academic orientation of schools on the content and orientation of self-evaluation practice.

The statistical checking of independence χ^2 indicated **no** statistical significant difference between levels of initial training and all the Q14 (a, b, c, d, e) items expressing constraints in teachers' self-evaluation practice [Q14a (χ^2=7.186, *df*=4, *p*=0.124); Q14b (χ^2=5.439, *df*=4, *p*=0.250); Q14c (χ^2=5.916, *df*=4, *p*=0.189); Q14d (χ^2=3.582, *df*=4, *p*=0.474); Q14e (χ^2=1.513, *df*=4, *p*=0.882)]. Examining the count of cases in items a and c teachers with four years of initial studies tended to consider 'attention' and 'professional values' as constraints (medium to high value) compared to teachers with two-year studies who perceived them as constraints of medium value.

Effectiveness

107 teachers provided an estimate of their self-evaluation effectiveness (Q11): 38 teachers (35.5%) believed their self-evaluation was effective, 61 (57.0%) held reservations, 9 (7.5%) reported being ineffective. This suggests that more than half of the sample (64.5%) rated their self-evaluation effectiveness in need of improvement.

Table 10. Estimates of self-evaluation effectiveness per teaching experience and school of current work (Q11)

Teaching Experience	ESTIMATES of SELF-EVALUATION EFFECTIVENESS								
	High	Medium	Low	Total	School	High	Medium	Low	Total
1-4 Yrs	3 (18.8%)	12 (75.0%)	1 (6.3%)	16 (15.0%)	Nursery	8 (50.0%)	7 (43.8%)	1 (6.3%)	16 (15.0%)
5-11 Yrs	9 (31.0%)	17 (58.6%)	3 (10.3%)	29 (27.1%)	Primary	18 (47.4%)	18 (47.4%)	2 (5.3%)	38 (35.5%)
12-24 Yrs	13 (34.2%)	22 (57.9%)	3 (7.9%)	38 (35.5%)	Gymna-sium	6 (23.1%)	18 (69.2%)	2 (7.7%)	26 (24.3%)
25 + Yrs	13 (54.2%)	10 (41.7%)	1 (4.2%)	24 (22.4%)	Lyceum	6 (22.2%)	18 (66.7%)	3 (11.1%	27 (25.2%)
TOTAL	38 (35.5%)	61 (57.0%)	8 (7.5%)	107	TOTAL	38 (35.5%)	61 (57.0%)	8 (7.5%)	107

The statistical checking of independence χ^2 indicated **no** statistical significant difference between the levels of 1) experience/ or 2) school and the estimates teachers provided about the effectiveness of their self-evaluation practice [1) χ^2=6.429, df=6, p=0.173 and 2) χ^2=7.920, df=6, p=0.272] (table 10). Examining the count of cases, teachers with twenty-five and more years of experience provided a high value to their self-evaluation effectiveness while teachers with 1-5 teaching years attributed a medium value. This practically suggests that teachers in their *initial teaching years* are more likely to be less satisfied with the way they self-evaluate, or feel uncertain about this way, compared to teachers with *more than twenty-five years*. This implies that novices are more likely to consider their self-evaluation practice as needing improvement (or changes) than very experienced teachers. Also, teachers working in *primary* settings tended to attribute a medium to high value to their self-evaluation effectiveness, while *secondary school teachers* attributed a medium value. This implies that primary teachers are more likely to consider their self-evaluation practice as effective compared to secondary teachers who are more likely to feel uncertain or not fully satisfied with the way they self-evaluate. Such differences among novices and very experienced teachers, and teachers working in primary and secondary settings, could be due to several factors, such as pupils' age, subject requirements, social expectations (for example, pupils' success in university exams).

Benefits

Table 11 shows that the indicator of internal consistency (reliability) Cronbach's **alpha** for the scale of self- evaluation benefits is a=0.83; this appears satisfactory considering the sample size and the relatively small number of items in the question

(Spector 1992; Norusis 1992). Satisfactory are considered indicators of 0.60 (Malhotra 1996) or 0.70 and above (Nunnaly 1978). The total scale of 10 items on benefits (Q7) was considered relatively reliable with regard to internal consistency.

Table 11. Principal Components Analysis and Reliability Analysis (Q7)

QUESTION 7a-k	FACTORS			Communalities
Items	F1	F2	F3	
f. I became aware of strategies I used	.816			.695
h. I became aware of underpinning educational values	.751			.705
g. I developed my skills as a teacher	.732			.605
e. I realised strengths and weaknesses in my teaching	.561			.414
i. I helped colleagues and the school to become effective		.774		.656
a. I delivered the curriculum more effectively		.743		.696
b. I planned and carried instruction more effectively		.606		.572
c. I was enabled to give students appropriate work			.774	.653
d. I was enabled to find ways that students learn better			.726	.589
j. I developed myself			.580	.507
Explained Variance %	25	18.4	17.6	
Cronbach's a	0.78	0.68	0.62	
Total Variance Explained %	61			
Total Cronbach's a	0.83			
Mean Score per Factor*	1.66	2	1.5	
Std Deviation	0.56	0.57	0.54	

*1=high, 2=medium, 3=low
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.843
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: χ^2=307.260, df.=45, p=0.000

The PCA revealed three factors that explain the 61% of total variance. This percent is just above the accepted level of 0.60. In the first factor (**F1**) that explains the 25% of total variance load mainly the items **f, h, g**, e; the factor's reliability is a=0.78 (satisfactory). In the second factor (**F2**) that explains the 18.4% of total variance load mainly the items **i, a, b**; the factor's reliability is a=0.68 (satisfactory). In the third factor (**F3**) that explains the 17.6% of total variance load mainly the items **c, d, j**; the factor's reliability is a=0.62 (satisfactory).

The scale on benefits (variables Q7a-k) was assumed to measure several constructs based on attributes of teachers' self-evaluation practice. The variables of the Q7 items were assumed to determine: Q7f, Q7h, Q7g, Q7e the first construct named **'professional awareness'** (factor1:**F1**); Q7a, Q7b, Q7i the second construct named '**accountability**' (factor2:**F2**); Q7c, Q7d, Q7j the third construct named **'learning outcomes'** (factor3:**F3**). The 'other' item (k) in Q7 was assumed that it could fit in one of the chosen constructs.

Examining the mean scores per factor (highest value=1) the value teachers attribute to the benefits derived from their self-evaluations is as follows:

For the *first factor* the mean score was 1.66, which suggests that teachers (in the total sample) attribute a medium to high value (1.66) to **'professional awareness'** as a self-evaluation benefit. Examining the mean scores of individual items composing the construct 'professional awareness' (F1) we notice that all items have a direction towards high (mean scores: f=1.74, h=1.85, g=1.63, e=1.42). This suggests that teachers valued all of them as self-evaluation benefits. The highest value received item e, '*realise strengths and weaknesses in own teaching*', which suggests that this, as a single self-evaluation benefit, was considered of high importance.

In the identification of factors, which was based on the common characteristics of the items that load in each factor, the lowest communality has item 'e' (0.414). Since communality expresses the total spreading of a variable that is explained by the model of the three factors we could consider that what item 'e' expresses as a self-evaluation benefit (*'realise strengths and weaknesses in own teaching'*) in relation to the other items contributes low in the interpretation of F1. This does not suggest that item's e contribution in the identification of F1 is unacceptable. It implies however, that '**professional awareness**' as a benefit derived from self-evaluating one's own practice does not relate as closely to the benefit of 'realising strengths and weaknesses in own teaching' as it relates to the other items, that is, to becoming aware of underpinning values, own skills and strategies. In practical terms, this might be interpreted as professional awareness alone does not ensure 'realising strengths and weaknesses in one's own teaching' and vice versa.

For the *second factor* the mean score was 2, which suggests that teachers (in the total sample) express a medium value to '**accountability**' as a self-evaluation benefit. Examining the mean scores of individual items (mean scores: a=1.93, b=1.68, i=2.39) composing the construct 'accountability' (F2) we notice that teachers attributed a high value to '*I planned and carried out instruction*' (item b) as a single self-evaluation benefit. The benefit of '*helping colleagues and the school become effective*' (item i) received a medium to low value which implies that this item was not perceived as associating as close to accountability as item b. This implies that teachers perceived self-evaluation as serving a personal rather than a collective accountability.

For the *third factor* the mean score was 1.5, which suggests that teachers (in the total sample) attribute a medium to high value to **'learning outcomes'** as self-evaluation benefits. Examining the mean scores of individual items composing the construct 'learning outcomes' (F3) we notice that all items are towards the high direction (mean scores: c=1.51, d=1.36, j=1.61). This implies that teachers valued all of them as self-evaluation benefits. The highest value received the item d, '*I was enabled to find ways that students learn better*' which suggests that self-evaluation was a learning activity for teachers: it was seen as enhancing their understanding of students' progress.

Comparing the mean scores of all factors we notice that the factor 'learning outcomes' received the highest value (1.5). This might be interpreted as teachers valuing their self-evaluation practice for the leaning outcomes acquired via its use.

With regard to the appropriateness of the model of PCA, Bartlett's test of sphericity revealed that the correlation matrix is statistically significant different from the identity matrix (χ^2=307.260, df=45, p=0,000). Finally the indicator or Kaiser-Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy that concerns the correlation matrix, is equivalent to 0.843, this means it is above the accepted limit of 0.50 (Hair et al. 1995) or 0.60 (Coakes & Steed 1999; Sharma 1996).

Impact of Teaching Experience and School Contexts on Self-Evaluation Benefits:
To check the effects of 'teaching experience' and 'school' and their interaction on the factors of teacher self-evaluation benefits data were tested in processes of analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the help of general linear models (GLM) (Appendix 3B: effects and interaction).

Q7:F1 and F3**:** The analysis of variance indicated that the independent variables 1) 'teaching experience' and 2) 'school' **did not** have a statistical significant effect on **'professional awareness'** (**F1**), or equivalently the means of these factors that correspond in the four levels of teaching experience, /or in the four schools, are not statistically different in the significance level a=0.05 [1) $F(3,95)$=0,105, p=0.957 and 2) $F(3,95)$=0.519, p=0.670]. Similarly **no significant effect** was detected on **'learning outcomes'** (**F3**): [1) $F(3,95)$=0,131, p=0.941 and 2) $F(3,95)$=2.048, p=0.112] (Appendix 3B: tables I, II, III, IV).

The analysis of variance indicated **no** statistical significant interaction of 'teaching experience' x 'school' at significance level a=0.05 [**F1:**F(9.95)=1.455,

p=0.176; **F3**:F(9.95)=0.691, p=0.716)] (Appendix 3B: tables V, VI). Practically this implies that professional awareness and learning outcomes are not affected by the combination of teaching experience and work place, which suggests that the self-evaluation activity was seen as one that concerned the teacher and over which teachers felt they had control.

Q7: F2: The analysis of variance indicated that the independent variable 'teaching experience' **did not** have a statistical significant effect on '**accountability**' (**F2**), or equivalently the means of this factor (F2) that correspond in the four levels of teaching experience are not statistically different at significance level a=0.05 (F(3,95)=0,162, p=0.921) (Appendix 3B: table VII). The 'school' **had a statistically significant effect** on '**accountability**' (**F2**), or equivalently *some* means of this factor (F2) that correspond to the four schools differ statistically at significance level a=0.05 (F(3,95)=2.679, p=0.05, η^2=0.078, γ_{obs}=0.636). This suggests that the working environment impacts on teachers' feelings of accountability, that is, different schools account for/ or raise different feelings of accountability (Appendix 3B: table VIII).

The analysis of variance indicated that **there was a statistically significant interaction** of 'teaching experience' x 'school' at significance level a=0.05 (F(3,95)=3.071, p=0.003, η^2=0.225, γ_{obs}=0.964). The interaction can be explained towards two directions.

First direction: Simple Main Effect Analysis.

- For teaching experience 1-4 years **there was** a statistically significant effect of 'school' or equivalently *some* means of what is expressed by '*accountability*'(**F2**) that correspond to four schools **differed** statistically at significance level a=0.05/4=0.0125 (F(3,95)=3.780, p=0.012, η^2=0.107, Y_{obs}=0.80).
- For teaching experience 5-11 years **there was not** a statistically significant effect of 'school' or equivalently the means of the items expressing '*accountability*'(**F2**) that correspond to four schools **did not differ** statistically at significance level a=0.05/4=0.0125 (F(3,95)=0.689, p=0.561).
- For teaching experience 12-24 years **there was** a statistically significant effect of 'school' or equivalently *some* means of '*accountability*'(**F2**) that correspond to four schools **differed** statistically at significance level a=0.05/4=0.0125 (F(3,95)=4.243, p=0.007, η^2=0.118, Y_{obs}=0.847).

- For teaching experience >=25 years **there was not** a statistically significant effect of 'school' or equivalently the means of '*accountability*'(**F2**) that correspond to four schools **did not differ** statistically at significance level a=0.05/4=0.0125 ($F(3,95)=2.311, p=0.081$).

The practical significance of these results concerns the timing the school impacts most on teachers' sense of accountability. This seems stronger when teachers start teaching and when they have twelve to twenty-four years of teaching experience. This suggests that teachers exhibit a different sense of accountability during teaching years; which implies different interests and needs, also variations in the self-evaluation activity. Table 12 presents the mean, the equivalent standard error and a 95% confidence interval for the mean of F2 for each level of 'school' per 'teaching experience'.

Table 12. Comparisons of means for 'accountability' (Q7F2 –1st direction)

				95% Confidence Interval	
Years of teaching experience	School of current work	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	Nursery school	1.000**b**	.526	-4.399E-02	2.044
	Primary school	2.583**a**	.263	2.061	3.105
	Gymnasium	1.810**ab**	.199	1.415	2.204
	Lyceum	2.417**ab**	.263	1.895	2.939
5-11	Nursery school	1.889**a**	.304	1.286	2.492
	Primary school	1.733**a**	.166	1.403	2.063
	Gymnasium	1.952**a**	.199	1.558	2.347
	Lyceum	2.067**a**	.166	1.737	2.397
12-24	Nursery school	1.333**b**	.235	.866	1.800
	Primary school	2.146**a**	.131	1.885	2.407
	Gymnasium	2.208**a**	.186	1.839	2.577
	Lyceum	2.303**a**	.159	1.988	2.618
> / = 25	Nursery school	2.292**a**	.186	1.923	2.661
	Primary school	1.697**a**	.159	1.382	2.012
	Gymnasium	1.667**a**	.263	1.145	2.189
	Lyceum	2.000**a**	.372	1.262	2.738

NOTE: For each level of 'teaching experience' the means that are followed by the same letter do not differ statistically at significance level a=0.05.

Second direction: Simple Main Effect Analysis.

- For nursery schools **there was** a statistically significant effect of 'teaching experience' or equivalently *some* means of '*accountability*' (**F2**) that correspond to four levels of 'teaching experience' **differed** statistically at significance level a=0.05/4=0.0125 ($F(3,95)=4.363, p=0.006, \eta^2=0.121, \gamma_{obs}=0.858$).
- For primary schools **there was** a statistically significant effect of 'teaching experience' or equivalently *some* means of '*accountability*' (**F2**) that correspond to

four levels of 'teaching experience' **differed** statistically at significance level a=0.05/4=0.0125 (F(3,95)=4.073, p=0.0009 η^2=0.114, γ_{obs}=0.831).

- For gymnasium **there was not** a statistically significant effect of 'teaching experience' or equivalently the means of '*accountability*' **(F2)** that correspond to four levels of 'teaching experience' **did not differ** statistically at significance level a=0.05/4=0.0125 (F(3,95)=1.197, p=0.315).
- For lyceum **there was not** a statistically significant effect of 'teaching experience' or equivalently the means of '*accountability*' **(F2)** that correspond to the four levels of 'teaching experience' **did not differ** statistically at significance level a=0.05/4=0.0125 (F(3,95)=0.675, p=0.570).

Table 13. Comparisons of means for 'accountability' (Q7F2- 2nd direction)

School of current work	Years of teaching experience	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Nursery school	1-4	1.000*	.526	-4.399E-02	2.044
	5-11	1.889 **ab**	.304	1.286	2.492
	12-24	1.333 **b**	.235	.866	1.800
	>/=25	2.292 **a**	.186	1.923	2.661
Primary school	1-4	2.583**a**	.263	2.061	3.105
	5-11	1.733**b**	.166	1.403	2.063
	12-24	2.146**ab**	.131	1.885	2.407
	>/=25	1.697**b**	.159	1.382	2.012
Gymnasium	1-4	1.810**a**	.199	1.415	2.204
	5-11	1.952**a**	.199	1.558	2.347
	12-24	2.208**a**	.186	1.839	2.577
	>/=25	1.667**a**	.263	1.145	2.189
Lyceum	1-4	2.417**a**	.263	1.895	2.939
	5-11	2.067**a**	.166	1.737	2.397
	12-24	2.303**a**	.159	1.988	2.618
	>/=25	2.000**a**	.372	1.262	2.738

NOTE: *In the combination nursery school and teaching experience the comparison has no meaning since there is only one observation. For each school the means that are followed by the same letter do not differ statistically significantly at the level of significance a=0.05.

Practically these results indicate that the school affects differently the sense of accountability that teachers develop; the influence varies depending on teachers' years of teaching experience and whether the school belongs to the primary or secondary sector of education. The different effect of primary and secondary schools on teachers' sense of accountability could be due to factors, such as differences in pupils' age, in the subject-matter, in the academic orientation of schools and so on. Table 13 presents the mean, the equivalent standard error and a 95% confidence interval for the mean of F2 for each level of 'teaching experience' per 'school'.

Processes

Table 14 shows that the indicator of internal consistency (reliability) Cronbach alpha for the scale on self- evaluation processes (12 items) is a=0.65.

Table 14. Principal Components Analysis and Reliability Analysis (Q12)

QUESTION 12a-l	FACTORS				Communalities
Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	
k. monitors progress on the issue that has caused concern	.687				.567
a. identify issue causing concern	.681				.497
g. plan changes to overcome the issue that has caused concern	.656				.457
c. determine criteria that will help in identifying progress		.822			.710
b. define appropriate information to collect		.694			.509
h. reflect about the relation of information to own teaching		.618			.673
l. keep a record that provides formal evidence of self-evaluation		.518			.597
i. discuss about underlying teaching/ learning principles			.792		.662
j. discuss self-evaluation techniques/ strategies			.752		.651
e. discuss own decisions with others in the school			.549		.529
d. discuss with pupils when obtaining information needed				.780	.692
f. observe how other teachers handle problems				-.551	.670
Explained Variance %	17.6	17	15.8	9.8	
Cronbach's α	0.60	0.62	0.60	-0.20	
Total Variance Explained %	60.2				
Total Cronbach's α	0.65	0.67**			
Mean Score per Factor*	1.52	1.79	2.05		
Std Deviation	0.45	0.46	0.45	-***	

*1=always, 2=sometimes, 3=never
**without items d and f
***there is no meaning to check these due to low reliability of factor 4
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.62
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: χ^2=256.735, df.=66, p=0.000

The indicators of internal consistency *a* (for each factor) are relatively low; specifically the indicator concerning the fourth factor is unacceptable (-0.20). Satisfactory are considered indicators of >0.60 or 0.70, but occasionally in research when a scale is used for the first time (e.g. in pilot research) acceptable are considered indicators at the level of 0.50 (Malhotra 1996; Nunnaly 1978). Considering 1) the small sample size, 2) the relatively small number of items in the question (Spector 1992, Norusis 1992), 3) that the measurement scale was tested for the first time for item-to-item correlation and value of coefficient alpha if item deleted (Papadimitriou, 1994), PCA was performed. Since the scaled question 12a-l seems not to have the necessary content and construct validity, results ought to be treated cautiously. In the Greek context the scale's lack of content validity and low reliability can be explained by items

'd' and *'f'*. The lack of validity could also be due to respondents not understanding the statements, or having completed the scale measurement roughly or by chance; the statements might not be expressed well, or the weighting of the scale might not be appropriate. This might have been prevented if true-false scales were included to track inconsistent responses and exclude them from analysis.

The Principal Components Analysis revealed that the factors explain the 60.2% of total variance. This percent is just above the accepted level of 0.60. Factor 4 (F4) was excluded from analysis due to low reliability. In the first factor **(F1)**, that explains the 17.6% of total variance, load mainly the items **k, a, g**; the factor's reliability is a=0.60. In the second factor **(F2)**, that explains the 17% of total variance, load mainly the items **c, b, h, l**; the factor's reliability is a=0.62. In the third factor **(F3)**, that explains the 15.8% of total variance, load mainly the items **i, j, e**; the factor's reliability is a=0.60.

The scale on self-evaluation processes (variables Q12a-l) was assumed that it measures several constructs based on attributes of teachers' self-evaluation practice. The variables of the Q12 items were assumed to determine: Q12k, Q12a, Q12g the first construct named '**reflecting**' (factor1:**F1**); Q12c, Q12b, Q12h, Q12l the second construct named '**judging and recording**' (factor2:**F2**); Q12i, Q12j, Q12e the third construct named '**interactive dialogue**' (factor3:**F3**).

Examining the mean scores per factor (highest value=1) we notice that the frequency of the self-evaluation processes is as follows:

For the *first factor* the mean score was 1.52, which suggests that teachers (in the total sample) '**reflected**' frequently (1.52). Examining the mean scores of individual items composing the construct 'reflecting' (F1) we notice that all items achieved scores towards high (mean scores: k=1.53, a=1.37, g=1.65). Teachers appeared to use these processes frequently for self-evaluation purposes. The highest frequency was put on the process of '*identifying issue causing concern*' (item a) which practically suggests that framing a problem was regarded a central process in self-evaluation.

In the identification of factors, which was based on the common characteristics of the items that load in each factor, the lowest communality has item g (0.457) ('plan changes'). Since communality expresses the total spreading of a variable that is explained by the model of the three factors we could consider that what item g expresses

as a self-evaluation process in relation to the other items contributes low in the interpretation of F1. This does not suggest that the item's g contribution in the identification of F1 is unacceptable. It implies however that 'reflecting', as a self-evaluation process, does not relate as closely to the process of '*planning changes to overcome issue that has caused concern*' as it relates to framing the problem and monitoring how it progresses. Practically this means that identifying an issue of concern (a problem) and monitoring how it progresses might not include (relate to) planning changes to overcome it. This might be interpreted that planning changes requires more than problem identification and monitoring of progress, or requires different skills, thus applies to another level than that of the other two processes. It could also be indicative of reluctance to change a set teaching practice.

For the *second factor* the mean score was 1.79, which suggests that teachers (in the total sample) were '**judging and recording**' (1.79) their practice not as frequently as reflecting on it. Examining the mean scores of individual items composing this construct we notice that items c, b and h have a direction towards a high score, while item l towards low (or 3) (mean scores: c=1.61, b=1.58, h=1.63, l=2.34). This suggests, that teachers frequently examined and judged the appropriateness of information and criteria to choose in relation to own teaching, but sparsely used the process of '*keeping a record that provides formal evidence of their self-evaluations*' (item l). It appears that teachers perceived recording for self-evaluation purposes as of low value. Practically this means that when teachers reflected and judged which information and criteria to use and how these connected to own teaching, they did not attend to keeping records of evidence for this practice.

For the *third factor* the mean score was 2.05, which suggests that teachers (in the total sample) used occasionally the '**interactive dialogue**' in their self-evaluation activities. Examining the mean scores of individual items composing the construct 'interactive dialogue' (F3) we notice that all items are around the neutral point (mean scores: i=2.01, j=2.13, e=1.99), which might be interpreted as teachers exhibiting an indifferent stance to all statements defining the use of 'interactive dialogue' as a self-evaluation process applied in their self-evaluation practice. Practically it suggests that teachers perceived that self-evaluation was a personal exercise in which others played an occasional role.

Comparing the mean scores of all factors, we notice that 'reflecting' was used more frequently than 'judging and recording' and using the 'interactive dialogue' in their self-evaluation activity. This suggests that '*reflecting*' was regarded an important self-evaluation process.

With regard to the appropriateness of the model of PCA, Bartlett's test of sphericity revealed that the correlation matrix is statistically significant different from the identity matrix (χ^2=256.735, df=66, p=0,000). Finally the indicator or Kaiser-Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy that concerns the correlation matrix, is equivalent to 0.62, this means it is above the accepted limit of 0.50 (Hair et al. 1995) or 0.60 (Coakes and Steed 1999, Sharma 1996).

Impact of Teaching Experience and Speciality Contexts on Self-Evaluation Processes: To check the effects of teaching experience and speciality and their interaction on the factors of teacher self-evaluation processes data were tested in processes of analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the help of general linear models (GLM).

Q12F1 and F2: The analysis of variance indicated that 1) 'teaching experience' and 2) 'speciality' **did not** have a statistical significant effect on '**reflecting**', (F1) or equivalently the means of this factor (F1) that correspond in the four levels of teaching experience /or in the six specialities are not statistically different at significance level a=0.05 [1) $F(3,87)$=0,356, p=0.785 and 2) $F(5,87)$=0,672, p=0.638]. Similarly **no significant effect** was detected on the factor '**judging and recording**' **(F2)** : [1) $F(3,87)$=1,248, p=0.297 and 2) $F(5,87)$=0.564, p=0.727] (Appendix 3B: tables IX, X, XI, XII).

No statistical significant interaction of 'teaching experience' x 'speciality' at significance level a=0.05 for **F1** ($F(15,87)$=0.538, p=0.912) and **F2** ($F(15,87)$=0.744, p=0.733) was noticed (Appendix 3B: tables XIII, XIV).

Practically these results suggest that teachers perceived reflecting, judging and recording as self-evaluation processes that are not affected by teaching experience and speciality knowledge. This implies that they were regarded as parts of teaching.

Q12: F3: The analysis of variance indicated that the independent variable 'teaching experience' **had** a statistical significant effect on '*interactive dialogue*' **(F3)**, or equivalently *some* means of this factor (F3) that correspond in the four levels of teaching experience **were statistically different** at significance level ***a*=0.10**

($F(3,87)=2.577, p=0.059, \eta^2=0.082, \gamma_{obs}=0.733$) (Appendix 3B: table XV). Since this study has set the significance level of **a_{exp}0.05** this finding is considered as having no statistical significance. Nonetheless, at practical level this indication could be interpreted as implying that years of teaching experience might affect the way teachers use the interactive dialogue for self-evaluation purposes. In this case an issue is raised about the extent that school experiences can influence the self-evaluation behaviour that teachers exhibit during different teaching years and the way this impact on the quality of feedback acquired and used for self-evaluation purposes.

The analysis of variance indicated that 'speciality' **did not have** a statistically significant effect on '**interactive dialogue**' **(F3)** or equivalently *some* means of this factor (F2) that correspond to the six specialities **did not differ** statistically at significance level $a=0.05$ ($F(5,87)=0.343, p=0.886$) (Appendix 3B: table XVI). Practically this means that teacher speciality does not influence the way teachers use the interactive dialogue as a self-evaluation process.

No statistically significant interaction of 'teaching experience' x 'speciality' at a significance level of a=0.05 ($F(15,87)=1.056, p=0.409$) was noticed (Appendix 3B: table XVII). This suggests that years of teaching experience or teacher speciality were not considered as relating to the use of the interactive dialogue in self-evaluation.

Purposes

Table 15 shows that the indicator of internal consistency (reliability) Cronbach's **alpha** for the scale of self- evaluation purposes (10 items) is a=0.80. It appears to be satisfactory considering the sample size and the relatively small number of items in the question (Spector 1992, Norusis 1992). Satisfactory are considered indicators of 0.60 (Malhotra 1996) or 0.70 and above (Nunnaly 1978). In our case the total scale of 10 items on self-evaluation purposes (Q13) was considered relatively reliable with regard to internal consistency, but compared to the scale on benefits the indicators of reliability for the second and third factor are slightly lower.

Table 15. Principal Components Analysis and Reliability Analysis (Q13)

QUESTION 13a-j Items	FACTORS F1	F2	F3	Communalities
d. makes teachers accountable to others	.854			.778
f. makes teachers professionally responsible	.816			.702
b. monitors teachers' progress in performance	.765			.645
c. makes teachers effective	.674			.675
i. uncovers educational values underpinning teaching practice and students' learning		.733		.580
j. uncovers professional values underpinning teachers' culture		.701		.537
a. assists teachers' personal development		.656		.543
e. makes teachers accountable to government		.624		.521
g. identifies needs in teaching			.791	.647
h. improves learning outcomes			.762	.669
Explained Variance %	26.4	20.1	16.5	
Cronbach's α	0.83	0.65	0.63	
Total Variance Explained %	63.09			
Total Cronbach's α	0.80			
Mean Score per Factor*	1.43			
Std Deviation	0.50			

*1=high 2=medium 3=low
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.745
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: χ^2=336.884, df.=45, p=0.000

The Principal Components Analysis revealed three factors that explain the 63.09% of total variance. This percent is above the accepted level of 0.60. In the first factor (**F1**) that explains the 26.4% of total variance load mainly the items **d, f, b, c**; the factor's reliability is a=0.83 (satisfactory). In the second factor (**F2**) that explains the 20.1% of total variance load mainly the items **i, j, a, e**; the factor's reliability is a=0.65 (satisfactory). In the third factor (**F3**) that explains the 16.5% of total variance load mainly the items **g, h**; the factor's reliability is a=0.63 (satisfactory).

The scale of self-evaluation purposes (variables Q13a-j) was assumed that it measures several constructs based on attributes of teachers' self-evaluation practice. The variables of the Q13 items were assumed to determine: Q13d, Q13f, Q13b Q13c the first construct named '**professional responsibility**' (factor1:**F1**); Q13i, Q13j, Q13a, Q13e the second construct named '**teacher development**' (factor2:**F2**); Q13g, Q13h the third construct named '**improvement of students' learning**' (factor3:**F3**).

Examining the mean scores per factor (highest value=1) the importance teachers attributed to self-evaluation purposes is as follows:

For the *first* factor the mean score was 1.43, which suggests that teachers (in the total sample) attribute a medium to high importance (1.43) to '**professional**

responsibility' as a self-evaluation purpose. Examining the mean scores of individual items composing the construct 'professional responsibility' (F1) we notice that all items have a direction towards high (mean scores: d=1.49, f=1.40, b=1.47, c=1.35). At practical level this suggests that teachers considered the *monitoring of own progress, being responsible and effective* as important self-evaluation purposes. Teacher self-evaluation seemed to be perceived as aiming to make teachers act as responsible professionals.

For the *second factor* the mean score was 1.95, which suggests that teachers (in the total sample) attributed a medium value to '**teacher development**' as an important purpose in teacher self-evaluation. Examining the mean scores of individual items composing the construct 'teacher development' (F2) we notice that only item 'a' has a positive direction, item 'i' is placed on the neutral point and items 'j' and 'e' have a direction towards low (mean scores: i=1.83, j=2.03, a=1.56, e=2.31). Practically this could be interpreted as teachers attributing medium importance to teacher self-evaluation aiming at '*uncovering underpinning values in teaching practice and professional culture*' (items i and j). This raises an issue as to what extent underpinning values that surround teaching practice were examined by teachers and what are the consequences for the development of their understanding, for acting reflectively when teaching principles were involved, for real change of practice and so on. Teachers attributed a medium to high importance on self-evaluation as a way of '*assisting teachers' personal development*' (item a) but a low importance to self-evaluation aiming at '*making teachers accountable to government*' (item e). This provides an indication that 'teacher development', as a self-evaluation purpose, does not necessarily relate to teacher accountability towards their employer. Practically this means that teacher development and contractual accountability were perceived as two separate entities when teacher self-evaluation purposes were concerned.

In the identification of factors, which was based on the common characteristics of the items that load in each factor, the lowest communality has item 'e' ('*make teachers accountable to government*') (0.521). Since communality expresses the total spreading of a variable that is explained by the model of the three factors we could consider that what item 'e' expresses as a self-evaluation purpose in relation to the other items contributes low in the interpretation of F2. This does not suggest that item's e contribution in the identification of F2 is unacceptable but implies that 'teacher

development' as a purpose of teacher self-evaluation does not relate as closely to teachers' sense of accountability towards the government as it relates to the other three items that compose this factor. This provides an indication that teacher self-evaluation aiming at teacher development was perceived as relating closer to personal than contractual accountability.

For the *third factor* the mean score was 1.46, which suggests that teachers (in the total sample) attribute a medium to high importance to '**improvement of students' learning**' as a teacher self-evaluation purpose. Examining the mean scores of individual items composing this construct (F3) we notice that item 'h' has a direction towards high (mean scores: g=1.88, h=1.48). Teachers attributed less importance to '*identifying teaching needs*', as a self-evaluation purpose, compared to the purpose of '*improving learning outcomes*'. Practically this could be interpreted as indicating teachers' focus on improvement of learning outcomes -not so on identifying teaching needs; or, as learning outcomes overwhelming teaching needs. Both raise an issue as to how successful a self-evaluation practice focusing more on outcomes than needs can be for the improvement of teaching.

Comparing the mean scores of all factors, the factors 'professional responsibility' (1.43) and 'improvement of students' learning' (1.46) received close high values. In practical terms this might be interpreted as meaning that teachers self-evaluated aiming to enhance students' progress in learning and show that they were responsible professionals.

With regard to the appropriateness of the model of PCA, Bartlett's test of sphericity revealed that the correlation matrix is statistically significant different from the identity matrix (χ^2=336.884, df=45, p=0,000). Finally the indicator or Kaiser-Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy that concerns the correlation matrix, is equivalent to 0.745, this means it is above the accepted limit of 0.50 (Hair et al. 1995) or 0.60 (Coakes and Steed 1999, Sharma 1996).

Impact of Teaching Experience and School Contexts on Self-Evaluation Purposes:

To check the effects of teaching experience and school and their interaction on the factors of teacher self-evaluation purposes, data were tested in processes of analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the help of general linear models (GLM).

Q13:F1, F2 and F3: The analysis of variance indicated that the independent variables 1)'teaching experience' and 2)'school' **do not** have a statistical significant effect on '**professional responsibility**' (**F1**) or equivalently the means of this factor that correspond in the four levels of teaching experience /or in the four schools are not statistically different at significance level a=0.05 [1:(F(3,94)=0.210, p=0.889); 2:(F(3,94)=0.539, p=0.657)]. Similarly **no significant effect** was detected on '**teacher development**' (**F2**) [1:(F(3,95)=0.707, p=0.550); 2:(F(3,95)=0.174, p=0.914)] and '**improvement of students' learning**' (**F3**) [1:(F(3,94)=0.877, p=0.456); 2:(F(3,94)=1.359, p=0.260)] (Appendix 3B: tables XVIII, XIX, XX, XXI, XXII, XXIII, XXIV).

The analysis of variance indicated also that there **was no** statistical significant interaction of 'teaching experience' x 'school' at significance level a=0.05 [**F1**:(F(9,94)=0.491, p=0.877); **F2**:(F(9,95)=0.735, p=0.675); **F3**:(F(9,94=1.359, p=0.260)] (Appendix 3B: XXV, XXVI, XXVII).

These results suggest that novice and experienced teachers working in primary and secondary schools considered that self-evaluating for professional responsibility, for teacher development and for improving students' learning was part of their teaching duties regardless of contextual influences. Which implies that it was regarded a personal professional activity -not a collective one.

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

The key themes to emerge from the responses to the open-ended questions are now discussed. Responses were coded and analysed separately according to subject speciality. I start by discussing briefly the development of self-evaluation to indicate teachers' need for support. Then, I focus on illustrating the meaning, value and disadvantages attributed to teacher self-evaluation and indicating influencing factors.

Teachers were asked to describe one way they had changed their self-evaluation practice. Responses referred to the development of knowledge and the feelings the self-evaluation practice provoked. *The trial and error approach* prevailed in novices who felt '*uncertainty*', '*stress*' and '*disappointment*' when they self-evaluated. The changes applied in self-evaluation practice concerned the high value teachers placed on '*experiential knowledge*', which was regarded as leading them to become '*flexible*', '*open*' and '*more critical*' towards their practice.

The meaning and value attached to teacher self-evaluation was sought in the sentence *"self-evaluation means for me..."* The benefits of the practice of teacher self-evaluation were explored through these definitions, and also through attitude statements, so the last open-ended question asked what '*the main disadvantages*' were. It was assumed that extracting opinions on negative aspects of teacher self-evaluation would shed light on weak points/ influential conditions/ issues needing attention; this would allow to explore teacher understanding of the limitations of self-evaluation. All groups agreed that self-evaluation aimed at *developing teacher understanding* and *showing professional accountability*. Teacher self-evaluation seemed to mean: self-monitoring, self-examination, self-critique, self-awareness, self-correction and self-regulation and to operate at different levels. At affective level it motivated teachers to be creative:

> 'It's a mood for experimentation'

At cognitive level it functioned as a tool for raising awareness:

> 'It's a continuous alarm for achieving the goals I have set'
>
> 'It's attending and adjusting to circumstances'

At practical level it functioned as a lever for improving teaching:

> 'A continuous search for updating teaching to do the best'

At professional level it served accountability demands:

> 'It's my continuous improvement for the benefit of the pupils I teach, thus for the benefit of the educational system I am a part of'
>
> 'A practice that comes out of my need to know –not because the state enforces it, because my conscience asks me to.'

While leaving space for professional development: '*It's deliverance from dogmatism*'.

Such definitions loaded the practice of teacher self-evaluation both with a formative and a summative function, practised both for decision-making and for accountability. The self-evaluation activity seemed placed at personal and professional levels with its conduct dependent on the sense of responsibility the individual teacher held. The private character of teacher self-evaluation prevailed in responses: '*to extend one's own knowledge*' and '*to become self-aware*'. Achieving awareness required '*feeling responsible towards pupils and the teaching profession*' thus necessitated:

> 'examining actions fairly, sincerely and critically'

> 'tracking down the difficulties that pupils experience and recovering methods to overcome them'
>
> 'making a harsh critique of own judgements'

Teacher self-evaluation seemed dependent on teachers' willingness and capacity to view their decisions and actions with a critical eye. Teacher skills in evaluation become crucial in this context for the quality and success of its conduct and outcomes. The expectations of the institutional context appeared to impact on teacher willingness and capacity. For example, '*examining fairly*' or '*recovering methods*' were school dependent. Teachers in different settings seemed to value different aspects of the practice of teacher self-evaluation, which implied differences in its conduct and outcomes. For instance, there was a level of agreement about the 'what' 'why' and 'how' of teacher self-evaluation for most except in the case of the nursery teachers.

Only a few nursery teachers referred to what was included in teacher self-evaluation or how it was conducted but agreed on its purposes, such as to limit '*competitiveness*'. Such emphasis on purposes might indicate that the potential of self-evaluation was seen as a means to achieve an end, the end being the fulfilment of the purpose that necessitated its use. For example, targeting to make obvious to other audiences the quality of the work produced in nursery. It might also be indicative of nursery teachers' valuing different aspects of teacher self-evaluation, for example, attending more to outcomes rather than to the processes used to achieve them. It might also reflect the limitations nursery teachers face in discussing their performance problems and the understanding they developed via their self-evaluation. That is, to reflect their need to clarify and validate own judgements, decisions and actions.

The impact of context on teachers' perceptions of teacher self-evaluation was also apparent at secondary level, where the work overload and the effect of 'Frodisteria' (private tutorial preparation for university entrance) appeared to hinder the conduct of teacher self-evaluation:

> 'I don't know if self-evaluation can be practised when the teacher has in front of his eyes the frustration or indifference of students'
>
> 'When pupils come and say 'Sir, we did this in Frodisterio', what is there to self-evaluate?'

The usefulness of self-evaluation outcomes can motivate teachers to monitor progress to advance their understanding of practice, however '*to achieve advanced understanding*

(teachers) need continuous training'. Responses to the question 'what kind of training do you think would help you self evaluate efficiently' indicated that teachers want '*training on educational evaluation*'. The kind of training that supports self-evaluation practice needed to be '*excelled by practicality*' and '*continuity*', and with knowledge '*tested in practice*'. The expression '*exemplary seminars*' appeared persistently, signifying that it was the kind of training that was favoured by all groups as serving their teaching and learning needs best.

Further, teachers appeared to believe that standardised schemes in the evaluation of teachers were not respecting such needs. When asked 'which is in your opinion the main disadvantage of standardised teacher evaluation schemes teachers identified *biased judgements* resulting from standardised processes and unclear procedures, and the '*unfitness of uniform standards*' to attend to multiple perspectives and diverse teaching situations. Revealing the reasons that motivated Greek teachers to oppose standardised appraisal schemes helps contextualise Greek teachers' self-evaluation. Further, in planning training or evaluation policy, respondents provided answers of the way their needs could be met; listening to their opinions and respecting their expectations can assist in taking appropriate measures to restrict the impact of contextual factors on their self-evaluation practice. For example, the analysis suggested that certain groups (such as nursery teachers, physical education and foreign language teachers working in primaries) favoured training that integrated collegial dialogues. This implies that interactive collegial dialogues have a role to play in the development of teachers' understanding of practice. Sources of valuable feedback included those who have similar teaching experience, in terms of same subject matter or age group. This emphasis on dialogue might be an effect of these groups' isolated situation. This issue raises concerns about the way specific learning needs could be met under the current structural and management arrangements. This context appeared to have an impact on the way understanding of practice was reached via self-evaluation. For example, a difference in emphasis on collegial dialogue as a means to advance understanding of one's own performance was noted in foreign language teachers working in primaries compared to those in secondary schools indicating an effect of context on the way expectations in teachers were developed. Also, exact and pure science teachers had put the locus of constraints exercised on teacher self-evaluation on external factors, while other groups stressed equally the effect of personal characteristics. Such differences

within, and between groups indicate the impact of context in the formation of what Eraut (1994) has termed teachers' professional conscience, which might lead teachers to '*be lenient and loose towards evaluating their practice*' and '*neglect to self-evaluate*'.

The different effect of context, in relation to the private character attached to self-evaluation practice (with its accompanying use of implicit criteria and standards) and the possibility of misinterpretations to remain unchallenged, raise the issue of the quality and effectiveness of teachers' self-evaluations. Many teachers reported for instance, the '*levelling*' of all teachers as a disadvantage that constrained engagement in self-evaluation, or described its effect on their self-evaluation practice. The 'levelling' of teachers was regarded as equating with standardised teaching, which seemed to impact negatively on the practice of teacher self-evaluation since it led teachers to minimise their self-examination and efforts to improve practice. The need to consider such issues and differences and to take steps to overcome them becomes a necessity when teachers identified the main disadvantages of teacher self-evaluation to be their own subjectivity, the possibility of mistaken valuations and biased judgements and the consequent wrong actions. The conduct of teacher self-evaluation could be open to attacks from the teacher (depended on teacher's level of resistance to external pressures) or from external audiences, such as the government. Most importantly, prolonged practice without supportive conditions might result in the development of minimalist attitudes towards teacher self-evaluation processes and devaluing of its outcomes. Consider the use of a proverb on some responses describing the disadvantages of teacher self-evaluation: "*John serves, John drinks*". Whether these teachers devalued the self-evaluation process, or their answers reflect other audiences' opinion of their self-evaluations, or they exhibited indirect wishes that a collective approach was needed, is not clear. What it indicated however, was the:

> 'teachers' lack of knowledge regarding self-evaluation processes, its advantages and the value of its successful implementation'

Teachers might value teacher self-evaluation for its compatibility with their needs but this seems not enough in ensuring success. Recognition of disadvantages of self-evaluation needs to be accompanied by steps to overcome them, such as professional development programs and explicit and clear standards.

OVERVIEW

Teachers expressed cautiousness towards formal schemes in the evaluation of teachers and exhibited an awareness of the need to adapt to various circumstances and evaluate their teaching based on circumstantial evidence. They viewed self-evaluation as an individualistic exercise serving both formative and summative functions dependent on the way self-evaluation experiences were individually interpreted and handled. Professional responsibility, teacher development and improvement of students' learning were identified as purposes of teacher self-evaluation, while professional awareness, accountability and learning outcomes were identified as self-evaluation benefits. Monitoring one's own progress, being responsible and effective appeared to be important self-evaluation purposes; this implies that self-evaluation was perceived as reflecting a responsible professional action. Uncovering values in teaching practice and the professional culture through self-evaluation appeared to have medium importance for Greek teachers; this suggests that teachers might not focus on or question them. Realising strengths and weaknesses was considered an important benefit, however, it did not relate closely to professional awareness which implies that the sole existence of the first might not ensure the second and vice versa. Teachers perceived self-evaluation as a learning activity that enhanced their understanding of students' progress and exhibited a focus on improving learning outcomes, not so on identifying teaching needs. This raises an issue as to how successful the self-evaluation practice can be when outcomes, and not needs, drive teachers' efforts to improve their teaching. It also implies that professional accountability exceeded contractual accountability. Teachers considered teacher development as relating closer to personal accountability; this led to perceiving contractual accountability as unrelated to teacher development via self-evaluation. Views regarding the most important aspect of self-evaluation were divided between teacher development and teacher ability. Both imply that teacher's willingness and capacity to learn through self-evaluation practice is important. Teachers appeared to feel secure and in control of their self-evaluation practice independently of setting and teaching experience. However, their sense of accountability appeared to be influenced by the setting in which they taught and by their years in teaching. Years of initial training, and also of teaching experience, appeared to have an effect in perceiving professional values as a constraint in self-evaluation, staff attitudes appeared to be seen as a constraint by female teachers. Secondary teachers

seemed to perceive time as a constraint but nursery teachers did not. Such findings highlight the inextricable link between the personal and the contextual, imply different needs and expectations, indicate variations in self-evaluation practice and raise the issue of the academic orientation of schools and its effect on self-evaluation practice.

Answers coincided: professional problems become individualised in self-evaluation while teachers' performance is affected by several parameters that influence teachers' self-evaluation behaviour, especially when teachers do not think critically of their practice and are not supported. The effect of contextual influences in the practice of self-evaluation needs consideration since most teachers rated their self-evaluation practice in need of improvement, with novices and teachers working in secondary settings being less satisfied with the way they self-evaluated compared to very experienced teachers and ones working in the primary sector of education. Teachers appeared to be not fully equipped with evaluation knowledge and skills but appeared willing to participate in in-service training on self-evaluation. The noticed differences among speciality groups regarding changes applied in self-evaluation seemed to be an effect of experience, or to indicate different learning needs depending on speciality. This implies that policy support to teachers must have a differentiated approach and focus. Also, the noticed differences in attitudes regarding effective source of feedback in self-evaluation and in beliefs and focus in self-evaluation practice (thus in its outcomes) highlighted the role of institutional support. Teachers appeared to regard colleagues as a source for acquiring supportive feedback in self-evaluation.

Next I discuss the findings from the case studies and the postal survey.

CHAPTER EIGHT
CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS

In chapter two I outlined the value of practising teacher self-evaluation and in chapters five to seven I have provided examples of self-evaluation practice in Greece. This chapter triangulates evidence collected from the case studies and the postal survey to validate the findings. The analysis highlights teachers' perceptions of, and attitudes towards teacher self-evaluation and their sense of accountability by demonstrating self-evaluation benefits, purposes and processes and the way these link to teacher learning and development. It discusses supports and constraints and outlines its development in the Greek context and the implications for teachers and schools.

MEANING, BENEFITS AND VALUE

My argument is that for teacher self-evaluation to be a meaningful, purposeful and beneficial practice, the teacher and the school need to value and actively care to promote the exercise of states that Aristotle terms 'intellect' (νοῦς), 'correct thinking' (φρόνησις: phronesis) and teacher positive feelings. The value attached to self-evaluation practice and teacher willingness to advance understanding about it are vital for engagement in self-evaluation (Kremer-Hayon, 1993). No case-study teacher questioned openly its value; in the postal survey, 58.0% of the teachers were willing to participate if a formal self-evaluation training scheme was introduced (39.3% of teachers would devote two hours weekly, 31.3% two hours monthly). This reflects teachers' views of teaching and teacher self-evaluation: they were '*two sides of the same coin*':

> 'I have to examine my practice to find out if my goals and targets are of use to pupils. How else am I going to know?' (Nursery teacher N)
> 'Teacher self-evaluation is the internal search for understanding and acceptance; it's the hardship in exceeding your own self' (Postal survey definition)

Self-evaluation practice, perceived as inextricably linked to teaching (Elliott, 1994), refers to one's search for self-acceptance through one's efforts to develop understanding. Teachers perceived their role as involving their right to choose and act freely on what they considered appropriate for particular situations. This is reflected in anticipated benefits from self-evaluation. At the affective level self-evaluation provided satisfaction, motivating teacher's further efforts to understand practice. For instance,

nursery teacher Y tried the kinetic activities after evaluating her colleagues' views about her practice; it was these views that made her feel uncomfortable with her teaching decisions. At the cognitive level self-evaluation enabled the identification of the need to intervene, such as to correct mistakes. At the practical level self-evaluation assured the choice of appropriate ways to act in particular situations. For example, primary teacher K's engagement in repeated reflective and reflexive processes clarified her thinking of pupils' persistence to 'cut' words into syllables when reading. At the professional level it assisted teachers to learn from practice and from each other, to search for ways to develop professionally and show accountability. From the analysis of qualitative and quantitative data it was apparent that teachers disconnected their development from contractual accountability leading to a view that this is a personal matter.

Teacher self-evaluation perceived and practised as the '*teacher's business*', places a high burden on teacher ability. 36.4% of the stratified and 38.3% of the case study samples indicated 'teacher ability' as the most important aspect in teacher self evaluation. One's ability to think and to judge own actions correctly are conditions for creative practical reasoning (Garrison, 1999:304). This implies that in the case that a teacher devalues her own ability to offer knowledge to assist pupils to achieve, the usefulness of self-evaluation, and also the questioning of one's role as a teacher, can become problematic. This was evident in the secondary school teachers' questioning of the usefulness of their self-evaluations in the postal survey, which was a result of competition stemming from the value pupils attached to school-offered knowledge compared to the one acquired from private tuition. In Aristotelian terms, this means that one's negative stance (e.g. devaluating, uncritical) in self-evaluation (formal cause) connected to external influences (efficient cause) can determine the rationale for such practice (final cause) and diminish the role of the individual (material cause).

As Watkins and colleagues (2002:2) note, the belief that it is not the effort but the "ability (that) leads to success" indicates a 'performance orientation', which has negative effects for teachers and teaching (i.e. feelings of 'helplessness', 'reduced help-seeking', 'use of maladaptive strategies'). The effect of the focus on ability in the practice of self-evaluation can vary, depending on whether one chooses and acts freely in self-evaluation. As Garrison (1999:104) notes for Dewey 'conditions of freedom' that are necessary for creative practical reasoning are choice, desire and advanced abilities. I shall explain this through two examples of teachers who expressed feelings

of helplessness regarding the same event. Teacher F, who discovered a pupil hidden in the closet for the entire lesson, appeared to be caught up in routine practice to the extent that she was unwilling or unable to grasp the importance of examining the incident to learn from it. She believed she acted in an acceptable and sensible manner based on her prior experience. This was inadequate to provoke a critical examination of her situation or to make an effective decision. Experience alone was not a sufficient condition for her to understand her own practice and improve it (Lambert, 1984; Airasian & Gullickson, 1994). The Head did not act not because his '*hands were tied*' by legislation but because he believed that teacher F lacked the ability to perform well. He disapproved of her practice and had the choice to act differently. However, his aim was to minimise teachers' and parents' complaints and chose not to confront the teacher. This means that he acted 'at-will' by exercising what Aristotle calls 'proairesis'. His actions along with the established school practices provided little encouragement and support to teacher F. Consider colleagues 'light-hearted' reactions and the uncritical nature of the feedback she received. Successful teacher self-evaluation relates closely to the support the school environment provides.

Ross (1993:281-2) notes that for Aristotle involuntary action originates from an external source to the individual, and is based either on compulsion (this means the individual influenced by an "irresistible external force" feels fear to act differently), or on "ignorance of the specific circumstances" one experiences (the case of teacher F). Plenty of examples in this study indicated that when individuals cannot exercise their will and freedom of choice when they act, a shortage of good understanding follows (Garrison, 1999). The absence of will and freedom of choice can make impossible the practice of self-evaluation.

The Head however acted voluntarily and used 'proairesis'. Ross (1993:283-5) interprets Aristotle's 'proairesis' as 'preferred choice' and notes that it looks more like 'conscious will' as opposed to voluntary action as a 'calculated will'. The Head used 'proairesis' as a means to an end ('conscious will'). In Aristotle's words 'proairesis' is "βουλευτική όρεξις των έφ' ήμιν" ('vouleftiki orexis ton ef imin'): Nicomachean Ethics, 1112 a 18 - 1113 a 14), being either a "desirable mind" or "intellectual desire" 'originating from the individual' ('όρεκτικός νούς', διαννοητική όρεξις', 'ή τοιαύτη 'άρχή άνθρωπος': ibid. 1139 b 4). In this context, understanding teachers' choices and

actions when they self-evaluate their practice appears to be an asset for understanding teachers' perceptions and values, and also clarifying the meaning and value of learning from the self-evaluation process.

PURPOSES

The purposes I identified emerged from immersion in the unique context of each school and the analysis of the postal survey responses and the case studies. The purposes play an important role in shaping the conduct of teacher self-evaluation and the learning outcomes for teachers, pupils and schools. I was guided by previous research in the field, which referred to the evaluation of teachers as being shaped by key factors, such as teacher learning, development and accountability. The purposes are organised under headings for analytical reasons and should not be seen as independent from each other. For example, self-evaluating for accountability may relate to self-evaluation for determining teaching needs or for clarifying teacher understanding of classroom behaviour.

Self-Evaluation for Developing Understanding

My argument is that self-evaluation for developing understanding can be an active or a passive learning process for teachers depending on perceived needs. The teachers I studied, regardless of the specific purpose their self-evaluation served, or whether pursuing this consciously or unconsciously, did so to learn from practice. The study detected and explored self-evaluation purposes such as, self-evaluation for diagnosing and determining teaching and learning needs, assessing learning outcomes, clarifying teacher understanding of classroom behaviour, identifying one's own strengths and weaknesses, achieving awareness of one's own practice. Teachers' perceptions of the object of reflection, examination and change appeared to define the combination of these specific purposes in action. For instance, teachers' perception of nursery schools as primarily 'social places' allowed them to self-evaluate for diagnosis but prevented them from evaluating the perception itself and its effect on pupils' learning. As Schon (1983) stresses professional actions flow from clusters of thought images, thus, how a person perceives a situation (for example, perceiving a problem metaphorically or not) frames how she addresses problems in this situation. Further, the pursuit of each one of these purposes in self-evaluation can assist teachers reorganise

their understanding of practice in different areas. For example, self-evaluation for diagnosis targeted mainly on developing understanding in the area of teaching and learning needs, while self-evaluation for self-awareness related more to the questioning of one's educational perceptions and orientations.

The specific purpose of self-evaluation can define the kind of learning that teachers seek and acquire; "no general rule can help us know every time what we ought to do; we need to wait until we find ourselves in specific circumstances and consider them in total" (Ross, 1993:280). For example, self-evaluation for assessing pupils appeared to limit teacher focus on expected behavioural outcomes. Schon (1987) argues teachers may unwittingly focus on some aspects and ignore others. It was partly this focus on some aspects that led some nursery teachers to experience problems as '*dragging*' them and they disassociated from problem-solving. The problems remained and teachers did not clarify the cause. The dominance of personal memories, beliefs and experiences over professional knowledge, policies and practices, can contribute towards a lack of focus on questioning one's and others' judgements and examining principles underpinning decisions (e.g. individual, school, policy). To illustrate, teachers who drew on personal memories to judge and justify their professional actions, seemed unaware of the way their beliefs interfered with their professional role. They did not examine the appropriateness of their beliefs on the professional standards they used, or the effect this might have on different pupils.

The specific purpose in self-evaluation for understanding could define teachers' choice of further action. For instance, pupils' reactions led primary teacher N to reflect on her approach and question her pedagogy. For teacher NI parents' reactions led her to reconsider parental involvement for developing understanding of her practice and to question her attitude towards teacher-parent communication. In both cases self-evaluation practice was driven by interaction and was undertaken to advance understanding and facilitate decision-making. As such, they were "a matter of co-ordinating means and consequences" (Garrison, 1999:305). Such co-ordination appeared to depend on the way feedback acquired from incidents (what Schon (1983) calls 'critical incidents') was perceived as important, thus presenting a dilemma to search for alternative options. For example, the nursery teachers who emphasised social knowledge and skills were not so concerned about pupils' failure to achieve in learning areas they considered of low importance, such as learning to count. Their belief

diminished the value of academic knowledge and neglected available options. The nursery NC emphasised all areas and they saw other colleagues pursuing them. This was not sufficient to encourage to self-evaluate, to question and learn. For new learning to occur via self-evaluation established thinking, beliefs and practices need to become the objects of reflection. This requires of teachers to reflect on the usefulness of pursuing one purpose and not another.

Self-Evaluation for Accountability

The kind of professional identity teachers develop can account for the way they self-evaluate for accountability. For instance, primary teachers communicated pupils' problems believing that teachers' role required 'awakening' parents to the fact that their teaching alone could not ensure progress. Their aim was to 'diffuse' responsibility, not to use parents' help to increase pupils' learning. Ashton and Webb (1986) describe the belief about the extent to which one's teaching can affect pupils' learning as one's 'teaching efficacy'. Teacher's sense of teaching efficacy includes the questioning of assumptions in self-evaluation. For example, primary teacher D used dialogue with parents to get approval for her approach but the parents' rejection of her judgements did not lead to her re-examination of her assumptions. Rather she decided to give up on her efforts, as she no longer considered herself responsible for providing solutions to this pupil's problem. Not questioning one's own assumptions influences pupil's progress (Nash, 1973; Ashley, 1991) while excluding pupils' problems from one's level of influence indicates one's denial to accept responsibility for poor student performance (Airasian & Gullickson, 1994).

The effect of identity on self-evaluation for accountability was seen in nursery teachers in another context. They communicated their work to parents to get reassurance that pupils understood and were pleased with the learning experiences they offered. For instance, nursery teacher M was aware of pupils' differences in development (e.g. in language), however, she expected them to communicate nursery experiences to their parents and had incorporated a group discussion at the end of the school day to make sure pupils remembered. An explanation for this different focus in self-evaluation for accountability might be due to the status assigned to nursery schooling (non compulsory), or to its curriculum that reaches learning through

exploration and play, compared to the subject-based primary school curriculum and its mandatory assessment.

Self-evaluation for accountability, when related to one's sense of competence, appeared to influence one's approach to teaching. For instance, some nursery teachers did the work for pupils, scolded them when the work was not 'presentable', or became annoyed when pupils told their mothers they did not have a good day at school. In the postal survey, the nursery teachers' group emphasised the need for in-service training based on interactive dialogue. It was only this group that stressed the importance of purpose over the process in teacher self-evaluation. An explanation for this is that nursery teachers feel isolated and need to communicate their professional concerns to increase their feelings of efficiency. Another explanation is that they feel that they need to validate their interpretations of their teaching situation with another adult. Factors, such as speciality, level of schooling, academic orientation, school and curriculum, can account for differences in self-evaluation undertaken for accountability. For example, quantitative findings indicated differences among teachers seeking advice about the practice of self-evaluation (e.g. nursery teachers' positive response compared to the negative response of exact science teachers). Differences were also evident concerning who provided the most effective source of help (e.g. primary and exact science teachers favoured collegial support compared to physical education teachers' positive attitude towards support from 'advisers and others'). Such differences reflect different needs for the practice of self-evaluation and different self-evaluation outcomes depending on the purpose.

A common finding among, and within, groups of teachers was the blending of professional accountability with moral accountability, which overwhelmed contractual accountability. For instance, in the case studies the commonest statement was '*I self-evaluate for me, not the government*'. This reflects the fact that teachers were the sole evaluators of teaching practices since 1982. Similarly, the quantitative analysis of perceived self-evaluation benefits indicated that accountability was not valued as much as other benefits, such as learning outcomes. Accountability related to personal rather than collective accountability. However, the school and teaching experience had an impact on teachers' sense of accountability, which either was greater in the first and middle years of teaching, or the primary and nursery sector.

Such differences indicate that the school context plays an influential role in self-evaluation for accountability and raises an issue of the extent self-evaluation might be used to provide excuses either for reduced efforts or for hiding (individually or collectively) inefficient practices. Case study material provided evidence that teachers who passively accepted problems in their practice thought that problems could not be solved. Teacher expertise appeared to provide the basis for such justification. The persistent use of generalisations and judgemental expressions revealed a prevailing language in schools that was not challenged (e.g. through collegial discourse). "A great deal of practical judgement occurs… (when) words are settled upon… and the outcomes of…reasoning is thus…pre-empted" (Smith, 1999:334). Teachers might use such expressions to justify their teaching inefficiencies based on the lack of explicit criticism. Such lack was evident in the example of homework in the primary school: the belief that colleagues ought to support each other prevented teacher critique. However, this contradicted their belief that 'being open and sincere' was required in the practice of self-evaluation. Such contradictions suggest a gap between rhetoric and reality and a tendency to protect teaching from criticism. Overcoming the inconsistency between words and actions did not seem easy: first because of the focus on the manageability of self-evaluation practice and second because collegial action reinforced it. The institutional context maintained it. Teachers' attendance to 'acceptable discourse' or 'habitual' practices suggested feelings of insecurity, which had an effect on the way teachers self-evaluated and the sense of accountability they developed; teachers reported that when they were novices they did not think and act in the same way. 'Openness' among colleagues demands a school culture in which teachers feel secure (Little, 1982; Southworth, 1994; Harris & Antony, 2001).

Socialisation into the profession appeared to bring a 'professional conscience' to teachers (Eraut, 1994), which can drive them towards focusing on the manageability of self-evaluation. For instance, self-evaluating for protection or justification was a learning outcome of the professional conscience teachers had developed. Such evaluation implied a quest for what Ball calls 'performativity' (1999:10), that is, teachers accepting that the way they acted, was what they wanted. Aristotle notes: "judgement lies on sensation" ('ἐν τῄ αἰσθήσει ἡ κρίσης' (en te aisthese e crises): Nicomachean Ethics, 1108 b 30 – 1109 b 26). Teachers were the only 'judges' of learning in schools; such a focus could only be driven by the identity teachers had

constructed of their professional role and duties. This identity might have helped teachers feel empowered which the evidence suggests. However, it was constructed in a way that it did not appear to help them correct the inconsistencies in their practice and to be openly critical of their own and others' teaching. The school's role in detecting inefficiencies and caring for improvement in school practices becomes central in successful teacher self-evaluation, as is the impact of the school on establishing a culture that values and promotes self-evaluation. For example, primary teacher F's poor performance did not receive open examination and supportive action; her problem raised other problems which regardless of parents' demands and the Head's actions remained unsolved. Her case indicated the way conditions inside and beyond the school (e.g. legislation) could determine the practice of self-evaluation.

PROCESS

In this section I will be discussing two of the three types of teacher self-evaluation identified by Elliott (1983) that were practised by Greek teachers. These are, 'unreflective self-evaluation' and 'self-evaluation as practical deliberation'. The third type, 'explicit knowledge of technical rules' was not observed. An explanation for this is that the successful institutionalised practice of this type requires an approach to evaluation directed towards accountability while recognising the vital importance of self-evaluation; its active promotion as an integral part of initial and in-service training; and an encouraging and supporting school climate. This context was absent.

Unreflective Self-Evaluation

The similarities of self-evaluation behaviour among many teachers in the primary and nursery settings suggested that unreflective self-evaluation was in operation: teachers self-evaluated spontaneously, rapidly, implicitly and unsystematically and were unable to justify their choice of action during teaching or outside teaching situations (e.g. the example of primary teacher N talking to pupils and then to colleagues). The postal survey findings indicated that almost one in three teachers (29.7%) reported self-evaluating only while teaching, more than half self-evaluated unsystematically (59.3%: 'flexibly'). Ross (1993) mentions that for Aristotle there is a phase in thinking in which the correctness of specific actions is understood first and then general principles are extracted. This follows a process of productive

reasoning in which we deduce the correctness from other similar actions. Thus, "practical and testimonial reasoning" is cognitively understood not with reason but with a kind of perception that Aristotle calls 'phronesis' ('φρόνησις':correct thinking) (ibid.:311).

In this type of self-evaluation time appeared to be important. The limited time available resulted in a shallow attempt at the self-evaluation process. The case study groups claimed that the teaching process requires quick responses. Nursery teachers reported that they did not always attend to solve persistent problems and primary teachers reported that teaching was subjected to time limits which did not allow them to '*stop and think*'. Teachers tend to feel that it is not feasible during teaching to respond instantly without losing spontaneity and that taking time for reflection would digress them from the action of teaching (Court, 1988; Gilliss, 1988; Airasian & Gullickson, 1994). They could also feel exhausted at the end of school day and have little time to reflect (Freedman et al, 1998; Mitchell & Weber, 1999). However, writers disagree that thinking interrupts doing (Schon, 1983; Garrison, 1999). Watkins and colleagues (2002:3) note "time and pacing" as one element of teaching activity, arguing that such elements "display different conceptions of learning". They suggest that teachers who 'control time' view learning as 'instruction', while teachers who pay less attention to time are 'co-constructors'. Elliott (1993c) suggests that when teachers use instrumental thinking in their action-oriented reflections, their self-evaluations are driven by a technical rather than a practical interest. If this is the case, teachers' stance towards time suggests that there were teachers in this study who exhibited an 'instruction' orientation and a technical rather than practical interest in their self-evaluation practice. In the postal survey, time as a constraint was considered of medium to high importance; the greater difference was observed between nursery and secondary teachers. The former group did not see time as a constraint in self-evaluation, the latter did. One explanation for this is that secondary schools have a strong academic orientation and teaching is mostly prescriptive to match the requirements of selection procedures for university entrance exams. Nursery schooling is widely regarded as an initiation stage to institutional life that achieves its aim by socialising pupils. The 'time plethora' of pupils to learn, which nursery teachers reported, reflects this. The pupils' young age may influence the time needed for the type of self-evaluation a teacher pursues.

Another important dimension was 'habitual practice', that is, teacher implicit knowledge of 'safe' ways to act. For instance, the case study teachers stopped relying on the performance of individual students to reach judgements of their own performance when they developed an understanding of class performance. The understanding of 'safe' ways or rules for drawing conclusions about practice was tacitly known and used when needed (Elliott, 1983, Garrison, 1999; Bohme, 2001). "One cannot deliberate about the whole of one's... practice. For the most part it will proceed on the basis of unreflective self-evaluations grounded in tacit traditional knowledge" (Elliott, 1983:237). This tacit knowledge represents one's 'phronesis' of what is to be considered 'good' and 'right' in a specific context and time. A teacher who perceives a situation with 'phronesis' means that teacher uses her own ability and skills to think practically with the aid of a 'rule' that is considered satisfactory for her own practice (Ross, 1993; Smith, 1999). In this context, the rules one sets for practice can define self-evaluation processes and outcomes. For example, teacher H's rule '*the language used when providing feedback to low achievers needs to be plain and consistent*' determined the information she searched and acquired from them to determine the success of her intervening actions. Further, rules for satisfactory practice (or successful performance) can be common in groups of teachers. For instance, in nursery settings the two rules prevalent (nursery is a '*social place*' and nursery is '*place of opportunity*') reflected the way two groups of nursery teachers exercised their 'phronesis' when evaluating their practice. Aristotle's secondary kind of 'phronesis' (the ability of 'correct' thinking for oneself and for the state) (Nicomachean Ethics, a 24- b 30) helps explain the common point of reference that teachers shared and which made them reluctant to question the way they understood and attributed meaning. This 'phronesis' "involves the knowledge of what is 'correct', without reaching it through an analytical process"; it is encountered "in individuals with certain life experiences, even if they are not in a position to express general principles" (Ross, 1993:310-1).

Self-Evaluation as Practical Deliberation

Instances of self-evaluation as practical deliberation were also detected and explored. These indicated that the awareness of the need and the knowledge of how to carry out the self-evaluation prompted conscious action, which had the potential for changing beliefs and practices. For example, primary teacher NI's awareness of the

need to solve a pupil's problem led to inviting his mother to stay in the school to help, and also to sharing this decision with colleagues. Faced with their negative reaction in a way she had not anticipated made her reconsider the use of collegial dialogues and her belief about appropriate ways to solve classroom problems. She self-evaluated deliberately based on the sets of cause-effect relationships she had developed, guided by experience and reflection on what to do to understand and change her practice. She conducted self-evaluation to decide what was appropriate for her circumstances without relying on clear and exact rules. Her engagement in self-evaluation was a voluntary and conscious action and her judgements reflected her sense of responsibility for causing change to her practice or beliefs through the use of 'proairesis'. Elliott's self-evaluation as practical deliberation, Schon's (1983) reflection-on-action, and about action, and Airasian and Gullickson's (1994) definition of teacher self-assessment are grounded in principles observed in her action, such as consciousness, freedom of choice and willingness to assume responsibility for one's own action.

In this type of self-evaluation time appeared to be important too. For instance, in the case studies the efforts of teachers K and A to understand pupils' unresponsiveness to the way they taught literacy indicated that the use of 'proairesis' could lead to strenuous and lengthy reflective processes. Time was necessary for the cyclical process of reflectivity and reflexivity that led to meaningful solutions for these teachers. Thinking in Aristotelian terms (Ross, 1993:283), these teachers exercised 'proairesis' examining the means to accomplish an end by using prior knowledge. 'Proairesis' as "the outcome of deliberation...is a decision to act in a certain way" (Elliott, 1983:231). The need to 'think in a correct way' (phronesis) and choose accordingly was acknowledged (Ross, 1993; Dune, 1993; Smith, 1999) and intelligent judgements were sought. Such judgements make use of "practical wisdom (which) is *phronesis* (his italics), the intelligent use of practical reason" (Garrison, 1999:294) while questioning values, that is, the "ideals that serve to guide conduct" (Garrison, 1999:303). Such evaluation of practice can empower and motivate teachers to change their situations.

Limitations

According to Aristotle, since 'phronesis' refers to action in specific circumstances, it is better to know the conclusion of thinking than the preceding processes, instead of knowing the processes and not the reached conclusion

(Nicomachean Ethics, 1141 b 14-22). This way 'phronesis' is a perception reflecting one's direct capacity to think about what is 'correct' under specific circumstances without logical processing, that is one's 'common sense' (Ross, 1949; Dune, 1993; Pelegrinis, 2001). For instance, the rule 'pupils must learn academic knowledge' led to the unquestionable rating of subjects in the primary school, while the rule 'nursery is for pupils' socialisation' led some nursery teachers to disregard the necessity of pupils acquiring academic knowledge. These rules could not become the object of reflection because as Elliott notes "effective deliberation must always focus on actions which fall within the agent's sphere of freedom" (Elliott, 1983:230-1). What follows is that relying on one's 'phronesis' in self-evaluation can become problematic when certain conditions are not met, as in the previous example in which teachers were not free to choose because of their limited knowledge. The effect on self-evaluation becomes evident in the case of primary teacher L who insisted teaching 'a few extra things' in history, regardless of his awareness of pupils' lack of interest and attentiveness: his mistaken valuation of appropriate action distracted him from attending to the needs of his teaching situation.

Judging one's own practice based on 'phronesis' may produce outcomes reached without logical analysis even when one consciously questions practice, therefore misunderstandings cannot be overruled; "deliberation necessarily involves an element of shooting in the dark" (Elliott, 1983:234). What follows is the possibility that mistaken valuations might be involved when teachers reflect which can mislead their actions (McLaughlin, 1999). Quantitative data indicated that some teachers experienced negative feelings (e.g. stress:39.8%) when self-evaluating; case study findings revealed stress and uncertainty in some teachers. The magnitude of such feelings dominated self-evaluation practice for novice teachers. Ineffective management of negative feelings can contribute to the possibility of misconceptions. Both thinking and feelings influence judgements (Dadds, 1995; Nias, 1996). For Aristotle, "the individual as a source of action is a merging of will and mind" (Ross, 1993:306); mind and soul are inseparable parts of the self for Dewey too (Garrison, 1999).

Further, in the case of 'preferred choice' (proairesis), self-evaluation processes and outcomes depend on one's feelings of power, knowledge and skills, as these are experienced within a particular context (e.g. ways of interaction in the school). This

assigns a temporal and circumstantial role in their successful use; as Elliott (1983:283) notes the "object of 'proairesis' is predetermined after thorough thinking" of what realisation or accomplishment is possible. For example, primary teacher L while reporting that others did not influence his self-evaluations complained that colleagues did not assist him to understand and cope with a problem he faced with a special needs pupil. He expected others' help and consciously sought advice (conscious will) to develop a better understanding but due to his ignorance, he was not in a position to choose the kind of help the situation required. The situation he was experiencing exerted feelings of fear, which prevented him from framing the problem and coping successfully with it. Not getting the help teacher L expected disabled him and supported his 'ignorance' of what might work best in his situation. This led to the development of the belief that others did not influence his self-evaluations. The inconsistency between beliefs and actions can produce actions of 'compulsion' that constrain further deliberation on practice and the advancement of understanding. Elliott (1983:236) stresses that the judgement exercised in 'proairesis' "always goes beyond the rules even when *it asserts that they are applicable*" (my italics). Such applicability can be promoted or hindered by context.

CONDITIONS

The supporting and constraining conditions for teacher self-evaluation are explored at the levels of the teacher (micro level) and the school (meso level). Schools, as institutions, are reflections of what the state considers 'good' for its citizens and the ways it pursues to establishment. In Aristotelian thinking what is considered 'good' for the individual and what is 'good for the state' have 'tautological meanings since it is the state that makes possible the experience of a good life' (Ross, 1993; Cooper, 1998; Pelegrinis, 2001). For this research this means that the effects of conditions ought to be examined as interrelated (Ball, 1994:25). First I will examine the relationship of these levels in the practice of self-evaluation. Then, I will outline the concerns this study raised regarding the implications of this relationship for the improvement of teaching, teacher development and school learning in the Greek context. Last, I will discuss teachers' discourse as an outstanding force in the practice of self-evaluation that can assist the learning and development of teachers and schools.

The Teacher And The School

The discussion so far has provided indications that conditions operating at the level of the teacher such as ability, willingness, commitment and freedom to choose among options, were related to contextual conditions. For example, unwillingness to challenge one's tacit understanding of practice led some primary teachers to consciously and systematically avoid teaching a different age group; the school's policy, organisation, management and climate perpetuated such practice. This, however, could easily lead teachers to make it a habit to self-evaluate unreflectively. Besides, commitment required teacher openness to question their own and others' beliefs of what constituted the actions of the 'good' teacher, however what 'good' teaching was, rested solely on the interpretation of the individual. As the evidence of both sets of data revealed, unclear duties and the absence of explicit standards when conceiving and practising self-evaluation privately did not lead teachers to examine the value of questioning principles. Further, freedom to choose from options refers both to one's capacity (e.g. knowledge) to recognise options but also to their availability by the school or their provision by the government. For example, in the primary school the shortage of resources did not lead teachers to use the ones available, in nurseries the shortage of space led to limiting the learning opportunities offered, thus it restricted the use of all available teaching aids and the enactment of all the NC areas. An explanation of this is that teachers lacked the specific knowledge of how to use resources, or the capacity to improvise. Another explanation is that teachers considered most of the resources useless; however, they did not take the initiative to find any useful ones but lowered their expectations of practice to what was perceived as adequately acceptable. In either case, the school remained apathetic on the way available resources or the NC were used, neither cared to make provisions for new ones or to ensure that problems (e.g. the nursery's housing problem) were solved.

The dynamics developed when various conditions were related appeared to account for the identity that teachers construct for their role in teaching and pupils' learning and the feelings of confidence they develop of their capacities and skills. Comments in the case studies revealed that teachers felt they could teach as they liked, consequently their self-evaluation behaviour adapted to what was perceived as offered, expected, required and controlled. Such adaptation was observable in comments such as '*Half the pupils are from broken families. What can I do?*' '*At least, they should tell us*

how to teach them (the letters of the alphabet)', '*No matter what I do, it will be in vain*', '*If I don't find out, she won't learn*'. Such comments highlight the 'moral knowledge' that guided teachers' doings (Elliott, 1983), that is, the way teachers' ethical concerns influence judgements, and also the way teachers' sense of 'self-efficacy' (Bandura, 1982) related to the development of teachers' professional responsibility when experiencing specific circumstances. For Kelly (1963:126), 'determinism' (one aspect of which is control) and 'free will' "are essentially complementary aspects of the same hierarchical structure". In this context, dispositions, role beliefs, interests and ideological concerns, as developed under the influence of environmental conditions, become conditions themselves, affecting both expectation and sense of responsibility to self-evaluate. This way they can function as supportive conditions, but also they can create conditions that constrain both expectation and responsibility in the practice of self-evaluation. This was evident in this study when teachers practised 'self-restriction' in self-evaluation in opposition to what they declared as their belief:

> 'What characterises most teachers nowadays is the absence of philotimo; as we Greeks identify it, it is pride, interest for work. Teachers should try to make their own contribution…' (Teacher N)

From the case study and postal survey material it would appear that teacher contribution in teaching via the use of self-evaluation couldn't function independently of the tensions combined conditions create. These teachers when called to face tensions in self-evaluation, they were caught up in the interplay of various forces, which made it difficult to distinguish what was really involved in their judgements and decisions. For instance, the open communication in nursery settings could not help teachers due to the interference of other forces (e.g. structural conditions). Also the impact of pupils' young age on the understanding nursery teachers developed of their practice based solely on pupils' feedback in self-evaluation did not function independently of, but in relation to, other conditions (e.g. lack of advanced evaluation knowledge/ inadequate in-service training/ unsupportive organisational arrangements). The same appeared for other conditions this study detected such as time, classroom privacy, teacher knowledge and training, school organisation and management, duties and criteria, collegial communication. Teacher expectations had implications for pupils' progress (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; Brophy & Good 1970), while pupils' progress had implications for teacher understanding and expectations; teacher responsibility to self-evaluate had

implications for the improvement of teaching, while such improvement had implications for teachers assuming responsibility and developing via self-evaluation.

Authors have discussed factors, such as marital status, pay, school conditions (e.g. leadership, organisation, climate, structural properties) that influence teaching and teachers (e.g. Rosenholtz et al, 1986; Simons, 1987; Desander, 2000; Darling-Hammond et al, 2001; Ludlow et al, 2001; Drake et al, 2001). In teacher self-evaluation these factors appeared to matter in relation to one another. The evidence in this study suggests that processes initiated by the individual are important in the development of 'shared conceptions' in a particular group culture (Resnick, 1991) and such initiation cannot function independently from the conceptions that a particular group shares under the influence of combined conditions (Senge, 1990). This means that existing conditions can influence one's self-evaluation behaviour and at the same time be an effect of such behaviour. In this context, the relationship of conditions involved in self-evaluation practice and the dynamics occurring among and within them are fundamental to the constant shaping of its conduct and the learning outcomes acquired through its use.

The responsibility of the school (in the context of this study this includes also the responsibility of the government due to the centralised educational system) to care for this relationship and ensure conditions that can confront such dynamics becomes vital. In this study the lack of such acknowledgement appeared to have inhibited the practice of self-evaluation from developing into a more effective practice. Limited experience or knowledge, established thinking and practices, a perceived non-flexible organisation and unjust management of schools restricted the teachers in this study to stand critically towards the incidents that bothered them and prohibited the questioning of their occurrence. Teacher CH did not oppose extending break time because he was aware of the consequences in case he challenged alone a practice that was established in the school, not because he was convinced that this was the correct thing to do. The assistant Head consciously avoided raising professional issues that troubled him, not because he believed that it was a correct professional act but because he had learnt that colleagues rarely kept their word to talk openly in staff meetings. This was reinforced by the micro-political activities in the school. He chose to hide his problems, which restricted the development of his understanding and the development of mutual understanding. Postal survey findings raised the subjective nature of personal judgements as the main disadvantage of teacher self-evaluation. The use of the proverb 'John serves, John

drinks' was characteristic of teacher awareness of the possibility of mistaken valuations and implied the need for another individual's critique to validate conclusions.

Altering the negative impact of conditions affecting the practice of self-evaluation requires paying extra attention to the ways conditions interrelate and to the opportunities they simultaneously provide to teachers to exercise control over their actions. Take for example, the ways teachers escaped examination of the principles underlying policy documents and confronted initiatives (e.g. computer training in the primary school): this way might not promote understanding but allowed teachers to feel they had control over their actions which enhanced feelings of autonomy. Quantitative findings support this claim: the influence of 'staff attitudes' and 'professional values' on self-evaluation was lower when compared to other constraints (e.g. time). It would appear that when autonomy is defined with individual standards, misuse in its exercise could occur; this can result in low attendance to the influences exerted on self-evaluation. Such attendance appeared to vary depending on gender and teaching experience; for example females scored higher on 'staff attitudes', while teachers in the middle of their teaching years appeared more likely to perceive professional values underlying the staff culture as a constraint in self-evaluation compared to novices. Such differences imply differences in the development of awareness in self-evaluation behaviour among, and within, groups of teachers. What follows is that without explicit and collective questioning such differences have no chance to be dealt with, thus their effect on self-evaluation can become uncontrolled by the individual alone. Authors (Ball, 1987, 1994; Hargreaves, 1994) emphasise the political dimension of schooling and the need to understand schools as organisations. Both suggest system thinking in the practice of self-evaluation. Such thinking necessitates professionals to examine through explicit and critical discussions (Elliott 1983; Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Hargreaves & Dawe, 1990; Smyth, 1991) the dynamics that develop from interrelated conditions in the practice of self-evaluation. This seems a central point to be kept in mind when discussing the value of teacher self-evaluation that cannot, and should not, be disregarded.

Concerns Applied in the Greek Context

In the cases I studied teacher self-evaluation was mostly driven by teachers' 'common sense' of what was perceived to be the model of a 'good' teacher as construed

through experience. For example, nursery teachers adapted their teaching to what they perceived was 'right' for pupils of this age. Such adaptation required comparing their general predictions about accepted professional practice based on theory and the knowledge acquired from situational understanding about pupils' learning capabilities. This comparison allowed them to contrast what they had in mind with requirements (e.g. on literacy) and to develop a frame of rules of what was expected and needed in future actions. Primary teachers' action to build time into their schedule to cope with unexpected learning outcomes was the adaptation chosen to solve predicted difficulties without affecting the rest of their planning. It would appear that situational knowledge feeds back to self-evaluation and can define teacher judgements about practice. However, teachers' sense of 'good' evaluation practice was rarely questioned in schools. Schools functioned as a closed system ('*a closed circuit*', to use teacher NI's words) that failed to facilitate exchange of information among colleagues, thus to enhance teachers' capacity to use feedback in ways leading to advanced understanding and improvement of practice (Little, 1982; Southworth, 1994; MacGilchrist et al, 1997). The way a school operates becomes vital for successful practice of self-evaluation.

The use and transfer of situational knowledge via self-evaluation practice was evident in the feelings of confidence and perceptions of competency teachers developed over years in teaching. Experienced teachers reported: '*after all these years I can read in pupils' eyes what they want*', or '*now I can teach with closed eyes*'. In the quantitative analysis experienced teachers (25+ years) seemed more likely to feel satisfied with their self-evaluation practice compared to novices suggesting that experience advances confidence about one's self-evaluation practice. However, confidence arising from experience should not suggest that the use or transfer of knowledge is all that is needed for the improvement of practice via self-evaluation. The evidence presented in the case studies made this clear. Postal survey responses also suggest this. When teachers estimated their self-evaluation effectiveness nearly two thirds of them (64.5%: 57% medium value, 7.5% low value) thought their self-evaluation practice in need of improvement. Such response, especially when combined with the negative response (42.9%) on having received sufficient training on educational evaluation, implies that not only internal but also external factors impact on teachers' efforts to understand practice via self-evaluation. This raises concerns since teachers were the only judges of learning in schools: feeling unsatisfied and believing they

lacked evaluation knowledge cannot provide reassurance that self-evaluation practice had a serious effect on teaching and learning.

Evaluation knowledge, years of teaching experience and setting can have a significant impact on teachers' practice of self-evaluation. This was evident in both sets of data. For example, in the postal survey half of the sample with a long teaching experience consisted of teachers in primary settings, thus the higher response (compared to secondary teachers) they provided with regards to the effectiveness of their self-evaluation reflects the effect of experience and setting. An interpretation that follows is that teachers have different needs for support at different points of time and space that need to be addressed (Elliott, 1993a; Kerrins & Cushing, 2000; Howard & McColskey, 2001). Different perspectives and interests need to be considered. Ball (1987) suggests that teachers have 'vested, self and ideological' interests about career advancement. He also notes that the dynamics occurring in schools, their independency or their interrelation to "outside forces" need consideration (ibid:245). In the cases I studied, a lack of interest in teachers towards their teaching was evident with the school micro-politics contributing. Take for instance, the link between the Head's promotion in the primary school and teachers' perceptions of the strategies guiding his actions, such as his 'backing off' action when confronted with group requests. Following Ball's (ibid:168-173) analysis, it appeared that he was regarded as an 'active strategist' whose efforts were rewarded by his superiors. This lack of meritocracy appeared to result in the development of pessimistic views among other teachers regarding the prospects of career advancement; this did not help them focus on career plans via an attempt to improve their performance, or attend professional development programs.

Postal survey responses revealed confusion about the kind of support needed to develop practice: at least one in four teachers did not provide a clear answer in questions referring to evaluation: 30.4% was uncertain about having received sufficient training about educational evaluation, 34.8% about self-evaluation and 24.1% were not certain if they were willing to participate in formal evaluation training schemes. In the short questionnaire on educational orientations, 29% of the case study teachers agreed with the statement: 'further training on evaluation methodology and acquisition of evaluation skills is unnecessary', 17% was not certain. For some teachers the advancement of their evaluation knowledge and skills did not seem important, or were uncertain if it was important. School experiences once they become tacit knowledge in the setting can

prevent teachers from distinguishing which professional issues warrant attention in self-evaluation.

Although such findings do not refer to all teachers, and thus must be treated cautiously and not interpreted in isolation of the conditions mentioned above and in the case study chapters, they raise questions. How effectively can teachers engage in self-evaluation when they reject the development of their evaluation skills? When they doubt the effectiveness? When they are uncertain about its importance? When they lack knowledge (or capacity)? Or when personal criteria override professional ones? In other words, how valid can their self-evaluations be considered? What are the implications for the pupils they teach? The strength of concerns such questions raise is increased by other findings: teacher development and accountability towards the government were seen as different entities by the case study and the postal survey samples. The attitude measurements indicated a higher value placed on self-evaluation for improving students' learning and showing professional responsibility rather than for teacher development. Personal accountability prevailed in teacher development; for instance, personal development received the highest value. Confusion seemed prevalent about what constituted personal and professional identity.

The question raised is: if teachers considered their employer as having a minor role in their professional development and if they did not take steps to self-develop (as the analysis has indicated for some teachers), what chance does self-evaluation practice have to improve teaching? The evidence suggests it can be minimal and in some cases self-evaluation might result in learning that hinders such improvement. For instance, in the attitude scales, teachers' attention focused on improvement of learning outcomes without the equivalent attention to defining teaching needs; also learning outcomes were valued more than professional awareness. Such value placed on outcomes suggests a lack of attention to processes, which leads easily to adopting an instruction orientation and an approach to learning that is performance-oriented rather than learning-oriented (Watkins et al, 2002). Attention needs to be paid to 'micro self-evaluation'; the focus needs to be placed on learning outcomes and on the quality of learning occurring in schools (MacGilchrist, et al 1997; Reed & Street, 2002). This did not seem to be acknowledged by most teachers in this study. It would appear that not perceiving school or teaching experience as impacting on professional awareness or learning outcomes (as self-evaluation benefits) can result in a perceived personal control over

self-evaluation processes and outcomes, but also lead to a lack of examination of the impact of conditions on practice.

The case studies provided evidence that feelings of autonomy could be misused in self-evaluation, and also highlighted the impact on judgements when conditions do not become the objects of critical reflection. According to Kelly (1963:128-129) the constructs one develops (e.g. the construct of one's own control) provide a 'pathway of freedom of movement', that is, when one is confronted with a dichotomous choice he is free to decide what to elaborate. The way these teachers chose to exercise professional autonomy seemed inextricably related to the way they experienced it inside their schools. Schools as 'paradoxical institutions' can 'fabricate' the image they want to project (Ball, 1997a). Teachers need to be aware of how their actions reflect this image and what part they want to play in this 'fabrication', if teaching and teachers are to be reformed in 'authentic' ways (Ball, 1999) via self-evaluation. That is, if teachers are to become re-oriented without their teaching becoming valueless and meaningless. Otherwise, the manageability of self-evaluation practice can predominate and the main intention of self-learning, as a purpose of self-evaluation, can be lost. Schools enhance awareness when they incorporate procedures, such as peer discussions, to facilitate constructive questioning and criticism. This way they function as 'learning systems' (Senge, 1990; O'Neil, 1995; Conzemious & Conzemious, 1996; O'Sullivan, 1997; MacGilchrist at al, 1997; Zederayko & Ward, 1999; Ovando, 2001). The next section considers the form, content, use and effects of teachers' discourse on self-evaluation practice. Examining how teachers' discourse affected self-evaluation behaviour meant attending to the 'micro-politics' of the school without losing the 'bigger' picture, "the collectivity" (Ball, 1987:168) and avoiding "theoretical isolationism" (Ball, 1997:269).

Teachers' Discourse

Teachers' discourse is important for school learning (Lodge, 2001); as Ball (1994:22) notes: "w*e are* (his italics) the ...voices, the knowledge, the power relations that a discourse constructs and allows. We do not 'know' what we say, we 'are' what we say and do". This section outlines collegial discourse, the conditions that nurtured it and the implications for explicit and collective self-evaluation. Such evaluation is important to help teachers understand the mistaken views they might develop with regard to their practice (Elliott, 1993c; Tuohy, 1994; McLaughlin, 1999). Collegial

discourse needs to be explicit and critical to raise awareness of values driving practices (Carr & Kemmis, 1986) to assist in the development of common understandings and expand the stock of tacit traditional knowledge (Elliott, 1983). School improvement and teacher learning and development benefit from such an examination of practices (Hayson, 1985; Airasian & Gullickson, 1997; Elliott & Altricher, 2000; Harris & Antony, 2001).

Teachers' discourse was distinguished in analysis as formal and informal.

Formal discourse, used in the school's action-policy (which includes statements of teacher responsibilities), is characterised by being explicit and bureaucratic. Such discourse did not appear to promote a critical sharing of practice; for example, teachers avoided expressing their views in the pedagogic meetings that I observed and considered these meetings a 'waste of time'.

Informal discourse is teacher-initiated and varied according to the audience and subject discussed. This was evident from the discussions I witnessed and explored. For example, when teachers discussed subjects such as pedagogy, school organisation, class management and educational policy some teachers spoke only when certain teachers were present while others spoke only when they were addressed. Consider the discussion regarding the policy directive in the primary school: while not all teachers contributed, the discussion was neither critical nor consensual. Teachers did not question their interpretations neither did they change their views to a shared understanding about the directive. Such discourse had little chance to impact on teachers' self-evaluation practice.

When teachers experienced similar circumstances (e.g. same subject or year group as in the case of homework in the primary school), or trusted and respected the views of one another (e.g. criticising practice in the nursery schools), they discussed problems and critical issues, such as, strategies, management techniques, teaching plans and personal matters. To illustrate, '*I talk about my practice to teachers who see things and act in ways that I find acceptable*' (Interview, Primary Teacher NI). The discourse was more inclusive, supportive and positive. The quantitative responses of teachers who were alone or with another teacher of the same subject-speciality in the school indicated a valuing of this type of discourse. Such discourse provided opportunities that teachers could use to critically examine their practices and develop shared understandings.

When teacher performance became a subject for serious discussion and criticism the discourse was unprofessional and judgemental. The teacher, whose performance was discussed, was absent. Even when teacher performance caused problems to others it was not discussed openly. For instance, teacher F's performance caused problems for the main class-teacher (Assistant Head) but he did not mention them while she was present; '*this would be in vain*', he said. Such judgemental discourse did not help him, or teacher F, or the class pupils that they taught. Principles underlying professional values, such as 'supporting colleagues', were also avoided in the presence of many teachers, as were principles underlying policy. Consider the Head's response ('*oh dear*!') to the teacher CH's critique of the government showing disrespect to teachers.

It would appear that the behaviour of colleagues could motivate teachers to conform to the kind of collegial discourse they perceive as acceptable. In the schools studied, teachers did not question the type of discourse that prevailed in their schools due to their awareness of the consequences. This maintained the situation. If teachers talked openly for example, a consequence would be 'getting the label' which related to the fear of losing professional respect. Teachers worried about becoming a 'target' and avoided conflict situations and 'secret talk' ('talk behind one's back'), which they suspected but could not confront. Structural and organisational arrangements sustained the prevailing type of discourse. For instance, the timetable arrangements in the case of the primary school, or being the only adult in the class, restricted the chances for meaningful collegial discussions. Nursery teachers' 'quick drops' into other classrooms to discuss 'on the spot' issues was a management technique they developed to overcome classroom isolation. The academic pressure on primary teachers prevented this.

The perceptions of justice, flexibility, openness and co-operation that teachers hold about their work place, seemed important for their self-evaluation practice; teachers regarded these features important for open and critical conversations. Such features can help establish a climate, which facilitates change processes related to school improvement and teacher development (Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1986; Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991) and can be considered indicators of the centrality of teachers' work. These teachers perceived these features missing. The consequences for teaching and teachers were evident in their perception of 'levelling' and the feelings of 'being held under seizure' and 'burnt out'. Such perceptions indicate "the constraining power of the organisation… (which was) embedded in the actions of others" (Ball, 1987:279).

This power affected self-evaluation. Primary teacher NI's comment that unequal treatment at work causes a '*vicious circle*' in which teachers lose '*peace and clarity of mind*' when fighting for recognition of their rights, reflected how conditions create dissatisfaction. Seeing "one's rights in relation to those of others", not simply claiming them (Bohme, 2001:53) is what justice is about in the workplace. Lack of this view can lead to teachers' alienation or disaffection from engaging actively in teaching.

It has been argued that the Head has an important role to play in teacher evaluation by attending to the development of just, flexible and open procedures and by facilitating collegial communication (Rosenholtz et al, 1986; Griffin, 1990; Maxsy, 1991; Blase & Anderson, 1995; Bowring-Carr & West-Bunham, 1997; Mulford, 2001; King, 2002; Fullan, 2002; Davis et al, 2002). Ball (1987:278) notes conflict penetrates schools as organisations, the role of the head in the organisation of schools "is significantly concerned with *domination* (his italics)". In this study, the role of the Head, conceived by policy-makers as that of the person-in-between, as the 'equaliser', seemed not to provide teachers with a sense of justice, flexibility and openness in school procedures; neither did this role facilitate collegial communication. Take for instance, the Head's management action of 'backing off': some regarded it as '*unwillingness*', '*inadequacy*' '*apathy*' towards problem solution, some considered it '*fake*', others associated it to the way he was selected to the post. This impacted on their motivation to engage in thorough examination of practice; on their understanding of appropriate action; on their capacity to reach clear judgements; on the way feedback was utilised; on their sense of accountability.

DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-EVALUATION

Both sets of data indicated that teachers over the years changed their perceptions of teaching (Huberman, 1983; Broadfoot et al, 1993). They 'moved', for instance, from searching for prescriptive ways to teach and evaluate to valuing flexibility, classroom uniqueness and contextual data as important in self-evaluation. The favouring of pupils' authentic involvement by some teachers was a lesson learned from experience, as were the conscious efforts required to keep track with the year plan while 'being open' and prepared for unexpected changes. Such developments represent advancement in teachers' thinking that benefits self-evaluation. A major development in teachers' self-evaluation practice was to consider their own situational understanding as valuable

knowledge. Such development refers both to reflective practice and theorising about practice: consider N's reflective practice when reporting that pupils would understand the geographical concepts if she had used more concrete teaching aids, or nursery teacher H's theorising of the need to advance pupils' social awareness and skills.

Nonetheless, such development did not seem to be sufficient to alter the practice of self-evaluation in significant ways (e.g. result in explicit questioning of policy principles). It would appear that the processing of information at conscious or unconscious, individual or collective, conceptual or practical levels produced shared understanding about particular situations affecting the judgements, decisions and actions produced. For example, teachers used worksheets to demonstrate accountability to the school and parents. Such use reflected an institutional rule that was based on consensus, a kind of 'shared understanding' that acted to legitimate decisions reached without requiring complete convergence of interpretation (Resnick, 1991). Shared understanding reached this way did not appear to advance teachers' critical stance towards practice. Developing one's critical ability to reflect and theorise about practice appeared to need increased understanding of a theoretical and situational nature confirmed by explicit questioning and shared decision making processes. Teachers seemed to be aware, or at least to 'sense' this. For example, many postal survey responses connected advancement in self-evaluation with specific forms of in-service training (e.g. exemplary seminars or ones based on conversation). Case study teachers repeatedly connected self-evaluation practice with the need of advisers to communicate ways to improve practice. Writers note that the need to restore a disrupted understanding leads to conscious judgements, thus to conscious decisions about practice (Calderhead, 1984; Day & Calderhead, 1993; Airasian & Gullickson, 1994; Garrison, 1999).

In this study the development of self-evaluation while it was dependent on the individual, for example, one's capacity to change practice, it was determined by the interplay of personal (i.e. disposition) and contextual (i.e. treatment of teachers) factors:

> 'I don't believe in what I did ten years ago… I didn't change my principles… sometimes I have balanced them' (Teacher P)

The act of 'balancing' principles might be different for individual teachers depending on the social interaction that takes places in particular contexts. Airasian and Gullickson (1994:196) acknowledge the influence of many factors in self-assessment "…but two

main ones are dissonance in the environment and personal curiosity about beliefs and outcomes". For Aristotle, while accepting responsibility of one's own actions depends on the individual's free will, one's actions necessarily follow one's convictions (Ross, 1993:285-7):

> 'When you question what you are trying to achieve, you ask yourself: is it worth doing this and losing the other, which is more important?' (Interview, Primary Teacher CH)

Determining what is of worth for one's own practice allows one to reveal one's capacity to acknowledge and examine practice; also to express what one honours and considers as true and wise. This means to express in action one's virtues, such as the ones Aristotle describes as magnanimity (megalopsechia) (this means one's claim of honour) and one's sense of truth (alethia) and personal wisdom (sofrosene) (Ross, 1993). Such virtues facilitate self-acceptance and self-actualisation; both are necessary for adult development (O'Hanlon, 1993; Bredo, 1997). However, the practice of self-evaluation to be able to bring about sustained change (e.g. of principles) seemed to require not only a declared disposition to learn more about events and outcomes but also a critical stance towards the beliefs underpinning one's own and others' actions in the setting. In this context, teacher self-evaluation becomes an asset for teacher learning and development. This study's evidence cannot claim that all teachers expressed these virtues via their self-evaluation behaviour, or they self-evaluated because of a concern to self-develop and improve practice. This suggests that the full learning potential of their self-evaluative practice was not fully recognised and utilised. Such development in the Greek context relates closely to the fact that the worthiness of practice was not challenged by others, and also that teacher capacity to acknowledge and critically examine practice was established to be a personal rather than a professional, collaborative act.

CHAPTER NINE
CONTRIBUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study explores the practice of teacher self-evaluation and its relation to teacher learning and development in Greece and contributes accordingly to understanding that as a learning process. The role of context (personal, professional, institutional and policy) in teacher self-evaluation has been investigated. The study examined the dynamics that develop between and within different contexts at the levels of the teacher and the school and detected tensions, short-comings and differences in the conduct of teacher self-evaluation across teachers, or groups of teachers. This illuminated how features of these contexts relate to the sense of accountability that teachers develop and the implications for teacher learning and development. In this final section the contributions are summarised and recommendations are suggested for further research and action in Greece. The epilogue summarises why these teachers' self-evaluation practice did not stand a fair chance of operating differently and developing.

CONTRIBUTIONS

A small-scale study conducted in a context different from other studies, in social, political and cultural terms, might be seen as having little to offer to the broader field of the evaluation of teachers. Besides, Greek teachers are the sole evaluators of their teaching. This feature might make their self-evaluation practice look different from others who self-evaluate under different circumstances, those in which evaluation is based on explicit measurements (Milanowski & Heneman, 1994, 2001; Norman, 1994; Peterson et al, 2001). However, as this study has indicated (along with others, e.g. Stavrida, 1990; Solomon, 1992; Mavrogiorgos, 1993), Greek teachers self-evaluate in a highly centralised educational system; they have to teach from mandatory books, under the pressure of a national curriculum and bureaucratic procedures that delay the solution of problems teachers face in everyday practice. In this respect, their efforts to self-evaluate may not be as different as it may initially be thought. As the evidence revealed, self-evaluation practice was driven by similar concerns and was supported or constrained by similar factors as those recorded in the literature of case study and action research (e.g. Clift et al, 1987; Simons, 1987; CARN, 1993; MacBeath & the NUT,

1999); the management of learning and teaching (e.g. Hayson, 1985; Smyth, 1988; Elliott, 1990; MacGilchrist et al, 1995; Nunan & Lamp, 1996; Hargreaves, 1999); and change (e.g. Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; McLaughlin & Marsh, 1990; Ball, 1999; Elliott, 1998, 2000). For example, Freedman and colleagues (1988) described conditions that contribute to teachers' exhaustion ('burnt out'); similar examples were illustrated in the case study chapters documenting the impact of the educational policy, and hierarchical structure, on teachers' perceptions and feelings, such as being held 'under seizure'. Further, Greek teachers functioning in 'loosely coupled' settings (Rosenholtz et al, 1986) felt they could define teaching success in individualistic terms.

Researchers (Calderhead, 1984; Stufflebeam, 1991; Sawyer, 2001) have recorded the link between the decision-making process and the development of teachers' understanding. In this study, teachers self-evaluated to improve understanding of practice before they decided on further action. This implies that both their knowledge and development could benefit. However, perceiving self-evaluation as an implicit and quick process had an impact on the rationale used to justify self-evaluation action: 'stopping' to 'question' one's own actions while teaching was seen as losing control. Schon (1983) explains how this reasoning has come to prevail, while Elliott (1994) notes that teachers in England would not see the value of self-evaluating explicitly, reasoning that they 'self-evaluated anyway'. He argues that this attitude has become a 'cultural' factor, which hinders the development of teacher self-evaluation.

The studies I have reviewed made clear the connection between improvement, development, accountability and self-evaluation. The evidence from this study suggests that teachers self-evaluated to develop understanding of practice and for accountability purposes. For both purposes the self-evaluation process produced outcomes that caused or affected teacher learning. This learning determined the behaviour teachers adopted towards enhancing the quality of their practice and shaped the sense of accountability that they developed. This finding supports the argument that a shift is needed towards evaluation for learning (Hayson, 1985; Day, 1988; Bredeson, 2000; Watkins, 2001; Reed & Street, 2002). This shift would contribute to what is needed in teacher self-evaluation to assist teachers develop professionally. From the research it is apparent that if teachers are to use the learning they acquire from self-evaluation to develop as teachers they need evaluation knowledge and skills; this includes the use of reflective and diagnostic capacities. Elliott (1994) refers to this need as the 'methodological'

factor, arguing that the lack of attendance to its importance has hindered the development of teacher self-evaluation.

There are universal parameters regarding teacher learning and development and their relation to improvement of teaching, such as the need for, and importance of, feedback for developing understanding of one's own practice. The study demonstrated the usefulness of the information one acquires from monologue or interactive dialogue in determining and defining success to improve own practice; improvement of practice depends on situational analysis and the understanding that teachers develop of their practice (Hopkins et al, 1994). By being immersed in the context of teachers' self-evaluation practice I was able to develop some insights about the beliefs, perceptions and attitudes underpinning this practice and reflect on issues that support or constrain teachers' learning and development. An insight gained from this study was the realisation that teacher self-evaluation as a learning process is worthy as an end in itself. Many teachers in this study appeared to have developed this awareness.

However, their conception of teacher self-evaluation as an implicit and personal matter appeared to constrain the way they communicated what they had learnt from their self-evaluations, and also to contribute to their alignment to what was acceptable practice. It prohibited also the development and adoption of a critical shared language, collegial critical examination of practice and the development of a shared concern for effective learning. The study has provided indications that this depends on teachers developing a clear understanding of differences in concepts such as, assessing, monitoring, regulating, speculating, examining and criticising. Each concept, while it associates closely to, and is used in conjunction with the others, has a distinct meaning and function. To these teachers self-evaluation meant one or the other of these terms, which suggests that they did not understand these concepts and their interrelationship. This implies that the different possibilities each concept could offer was either not acknowledged, or ignored. Such differentiation in what teacher self-evaluation meant implies that these teachers could not make clear to others what they believed and valued. Their lack of understanding of these evaluation concepts meant that they could not communicate their evaluation of their own practice effectively and accurately.

Time, established thinking and practices related to structure and school culture appeared to be important dimensions to consider when attempting to develop an explicit

and critical communication of judgements. Taking the initiative to communicate judgements of one's own practice appeared to require more than empowerment. An overall lesson from this research concerns the way the individual context is influenced by the institutional, professional and policy contexts: the success of teacher self-evaluation can depend on the dynamics developed from this interrelationship. Teachers' self-evaluation behaviour seemed closely related to, and heavily influenced by, what was internalised as acceptable in these contexts. This internalised construct bounded communication, influenced change processes and problem solution and accounted for a gap between the 'ideal' behaviour teachers preached to the one encountered in action. Teaching might be conceived as 'doing' (Elliott, 1983) or 'making' (Squires, 2003) (Aristotle's conception of 'praxis' and 'techne' respectively). However, as Elliott (1983:234) notes:

> "The ends of activities... are derived from conceptions of 'good' life and refer to ethical ideals and values. These are qualities to be realised in action rather than products to be brought about by it... it's not possible to define such qualities with absolute precision.... For we never possess perfect moral knowledge to guide our doing"

This study indicated that self-evaluation can offer opportunities to teachers to realise in action the ethical dimensions of their teaching, however, the person-dependent and context-dependent aspects of self-evaluation can affect the quality of learning and the changes that this learning brings to practice. For teachers in this study the effect is reflected in the missed opportunity to use self-evaluation as a strategy for self-development; the effect for teaching is seen in their limited attempts to change practice.

Appreciating the outcomes of the interaction between the contexts that shaped self-evaluation practice at these levels may explain why teachers evaluated one way or another, but this is possible up to a certain extent. Outcomes are not static but continuously changing (Overton & Reece, 1973). Exploring the interaction between these contexts can lead to a deeper understanding of the self-evaluation process. For instance, it is important to understand the impact of the professional and policy contexts on teachers' virtues when teachers communicate judgements of practice. This could be the focus of another study since in this research teacher virtues were identified as playing a central role in understanding why teachers evaluated their practice.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The evidence of this study suggest that teacher self-evaluation, as a strategy adopted to promote teacher learning and development, can bring changes in practice that ensure effective school learning only when certain conditions are met. Researchers suggest that changing school practices requires changes at the levels of structure, policies and cultural beliefs (Cuban, 1990; Handy, 1994; Barber, 1995; Hargreaves, 1997; Dale, 1997; Codd et al, 1997; Holly & Hopkins, 1988). My recommendations regarding changes needed in the Greek context concern the establishment of a collaborative culture and the development of collaborative forms of self-evaluation. This requires the provision of training, evaluation and assessment skills, a concern for effective learning and structural changes.

Collaborative Culture

The evidence of this study indicated that effective leadership, flexible organisation, open relationships and justice in school procedures accounted for the way teachers perceived they ought to self-evaluate practice. All these are characteristics of school culture suggesting that successful implementation of self-evaluation can depend on adopting a whole school approach in evaluating teaching practice. Mentioning such approach in legislation (e.g. production of self-evaluation reports) and recognising teachers' right to self-evaluate their practice does not necessarily mean that this is all that these teachers needed to bring about radical improvement in their teaching practice, pupils' learning and their own development. Deeper changes are required, such as making allowances for the development of a collaborative school culture (Little, 1982; Hargreaves & Dawe, 1990). The suggestion is that a similar culture that allows space for inefficiencies to be dealt within schools views problems and failures as the responsibility of the group. Many teachers in this study wanted to co-operate but felt compelled to work on their own and concealed their problems to avoid confrontations and feelings of insecurity. Teachers wanted to experience the acknowledgement, reward and celebration of good practice. However, if a teacher sought to do something different to what was accepted at school level, the tensions associated with a school culture that was not collaborative would cause the teacher to remain within the accepted norm of school. In this way the opportunity for the school to utilise the understanding

teachers developed from their self-evaluations to promote learning in the setting to raise teachers' expectations of practice was minimised.

Collaborative Self-Evaluation

Indeed, this study has demonstrated the value of teacher self-evaluation, and that teachers have viewed it as an inextricable part of their teaching. Such a view provides a secure base on which to build processes and procedures that can assist teachers use it more successfully through collaborative action, for example to be given opportunities to be actively involved in planning and managing collaborative forms of self-evaluation. The management of such evaluation needs:

1) To address the development of a school policy that deals with its learning processes and outcomes. The lack of such policy led teachers in this study to value classroom isolation and exclude others (colleagues, parents and officials) from the learning experienced.

2) To consider ways to overcome teachers' normative behaviour (e.g. 'attendance to acceptable discourse') and the associated consequences (e.g. feelings of 'being the target'). These teachers appeared incapable of disregarding what was the norm in their school or changing their self-evaluation habits.

3) To provide opportunities to teachers to share critically experiences inside and outside teaching situations (e.g. peer reviews and observations).

4) To provide teachers with knowledge that can enable them to see the value of developing plans for collaborative action and team ownership.

5) To facilitate the fulfilment of such plans and action (e.g. by ensuring access to the kind of support that teachers demand).

6) To ensure that processes are in order so teachers can exhibit and explain to other teams in the school success and failure in their collaborative action.

7) To provide a climate of confidentiality to facilitate the explicit questioning of principles underlying beliefs and expectations. The research has illustrated that "beliefs may be myopic, biased, or subjective" (Airasian & Gullickson, 1994:201); ignoring them, neither assists teachers to change nor students to progress.

All these require changes at the policy level (e.g. funds for resources), the school level (e.g. in the timetable) and the practice level (e.g. teacher visiting other classrooms, or changing classrooms during the year, or co-operative teaching in one classroom). They also require internal mobility. The privilege of internal mobility that the above changes bring to practice can have a beneficial effect on self-evaluation practice since such mobility demands alertness and a departure from 'safe' ways to act (e.g. the habitual behaviour observed in this study). Internal mobility to be beneficial needs to pay due attention to the issues of respect and trust and consider teacher choice. As much as individual capacity ought to be respected, it is equally important that all teachers make their contribution in the management of collaborative self-evaluation processes. Sustained change requires change at individual level (Elliott, 1998). This means that the school needs to deploy and be held responsible for staff development plans. Such plans can make use of existing school expertise when appropriate. For example, primary teacher CH was qualified in computer technology, however, the school did not use his expertise; the implications concern the individual teacher (e.g. he was disappointed), the school (e.g. teachers were incapable of incorporating computer use into the timetable) and pupils' learning opportunities. Providing time for reviews of practice, mentoring and planned action to correct inefficiencies can be part of such plans. It is important not to assume that allocating time is enough; the study made evident that a specific focus and agenda are required for success in self-evaluation processes.

Training

From the evidence of this research and from personal experience of both initial and in-service training in Greece, I would argue that when teachers self-evaluated they used what they had tacitly learned from training and their own experience of education in the Greek culture. For example, trainers lecture instead of engaging teachers actively in their teaching. Teachers are also not asked to evaluate what they are taught. Teachers' comments such as, '*understanding research theories and findings (e.g. on motivation theory and co-operative learning) is difficult*' or '*these are theories, in practice it's different*' reveals a lack of understanding of the need to demonstrate the value so that teachers can consider the benefits of such theories for their own practice. Given this context, one cannot expect teachers to behave differently and involve others in their

self-evaluation practices. Teacher development needs to be conceptualised in Greece with a focus on adult development and on the ways teachers utilise the knowledge they bring and acquire from their particular situations to assist teachers develop their self-evaluation practice. Teacher development must be seen as a process that starts from initial training and is continuous until retirement. In initial teacher training, procedures of reflection and critique need to be incorporated (such as, one-to-one tutorials, collaborative planning, sharing experiences in critical group discussions, undertaking action-research projects in teams, examining reflective tools, e.g. diaries, portfolios, videotapes etc.) in order to familiarise teachers with the idea of sharing experiences in critical ways, acquainting them with processes and equipping them with techniques necessary for reflective and self-evaluation practice. In-service training needs to attend to the following:

1) Active learning needs to be used in training courses and teachers need to be encouraged to contribute their knowledge from practice. For example, courses on co-operative learning ought to make use of co-operative learning strategies during training. This was not the case for the teachers of this study.

2) To give teachers opportunities to discuss their values and the tensions that these cause in practice. Sadler (1985) calls such values 'axiological' (or 'higher-level criteria') and considers them important. Such questioning can assist teachers to determine their meaning for particular contexts. The role and use of different kinds of criteria adopted needs to be explicitly examined.

3) To promote personal and institutional self-evaluation; as noted above, teachers will need to have an active role in planning and implementing such training, and be protected and supported by set procedures (e.g. groups composed of various stakeholders) and individuals fit for this role.

It is vital to integrate courses on educational evaluation and procedures that enhance collaboration into daily routines (e.g. mentoring, Holden, 2002). It is clear from this study that teachers to self-evaluate successfully need continuous support and in some cases guidance (e.g. novices or when involved in initiatives). Regardless of who provides support or guidance (e.g. experienced teachers or experts), these individuals need to be committed, to have advanced understanding about educational evaluation and

learning processes and facilitate the practice of self-evaluation. It is vital not to assume that:

1) Greek teachers are ready, or will feel safe, to openly discuss their practice to experts imposed from the hierarchy. These teachers withheld information from the officers assigned to help them improve practice.

2) conflicting roles can be served simultaneously (for example, EA and Heads are by legislation assigned to act as supporters and evaluators). This can easily lead to the devaluing and distortion of self-evaluation processes.

3) teachers' lack of interest necessitates a disregard for self-evaluation practice.

4) individuals assigned to support teachers could use this experience for their own purposes without teacher agreement. Agreements need to be reached and procedures to be set out regarding the use of self-evaluation evidence.

5) training experiences need to be the same for novices and experienced teachers or for different subject specialists. Differences in self-assessments among novices and experienced teachers noted by researchers (Elliott, 1993a; Airasian & Gullickson, 1994) were detected among groups of teachers suggesting different interests and development needs through years. Training for self-evaluation will need to align to teachers' needs to have an impact or to change practice. Teachers expected relevant, practical and continuous assistance; such support has the potential to awaken teachers' appreciation of the self-evaluation process, the value for learning from engaging others and motivate them to proceed with excellence of practice.

6) different sources providing support (Ovando, 2001) can be the best solution. The choice of appropriate sources of support needs to align to teachers' perceptions of effective sources of support. For example, physical education teachers seemed ready to accept officers' support, this was not the case with the other groups; also nursery teachers appeared open to question each others' experiences, primary teachers held reservations.

Such issues and assumptions need the attention of planners that aim to improve teaching via an evaluation that fosters teacher development. Elliott (1983:237-8) distinguishes between professional development 'towards mastery' and development 'beyond

mastery' and urges adoption of the latter. This distinction reflects whether an educational system should reproduce and maintain traditional practices (thus target for teacher development 'towards mastery') or aim to develop teaching in ways suitable to the changing circumstances (thus aim for teacher development 'beyond mastery'). The kind of teacher development adopted reflects this difference and accounts for teacher learning via self-evaluation.

Evaluation And Assessment Skills

It is evident from this study that teachers need to acquire knowledge and skills in assessment and evaluation and feel confident to use them. These teachers viewed pupils' assessment and their self-evaluation as inextricably linked; however, a lack of such knowledge was evident from the analysis of the data. Acquiring proficiency in assessment is vital for pupils' progress and also for teacher situated learning. Teachers need also to enhance their capacity to understand the why, how, when and what to attend to in self-evaluation and to realise the effect of feedback on evaluative judgements. This implies that teachers need to question beliefs, such as others are '*strangers*' in their teaching, they should teach '*as they liked*', pupils lack the capacity to express opinions about teacher judgements and decisions. This demands that teachers realise the value of adopting a critical stance towards one's own and others' judgements. To facilitate involvement in self-evaluation teachers need to engage in dialogue (with pupils, colleagues, parents, officers). Authors have suggested strategies, techniques and tools to be used in self-evaluation (e.g. Moyles, 1988; Adams & Burgess, 1989; Kremer-Hayon, 1993; Airasian & Gullickson, 1997; Mitchell & Weber, 1999; Klenowski, 2002). Greek teachers need to become familiar with such literature, develop and use their own techniques to derive constructive feedback in their particular circumstances.

Concern for Effective Learning

A concern for effective learning needs to be developed at all levels of the educational system. This requires advancing teachers' understanding of the interrelationship of self-evaluation, assessment, curriculum and pedagogy. This understanding was missing and when related to the absence of explicit and clear

principles of excellence it did not help teachers to examine the criteria and standards they used in self-evaluation. Teacher evaluation needs to be guided by principles of excellence (K. Peterson, 2000) and hierarchically organised criteria and standards (Sadler, 1985) although criteria that represent cognitive complexity may be difficult to be defined (Dwyer, 1994).

To develop teacher realisation necessitates teacher duties to be clearly defined so criteria for good practices that promote pupils' learning can be explicitly identified. Teaching ought to be evaluated based on specified duties (Scriven, 1994) so teachers can develop conceptions of quality in teaching as others do, and use the self-evaluation processes to monitor common conceptions for their merit in their own situations and regulate their actions to challenge and change these conceptions. The teachers I studied seemed confused about what constitutes personal and professional identity suggesting that teachers' capacity to learn and change their practice through self-evaluation is highly dependent on duty specificity. Duty specificity allows teachers to validate teaching by using rationales for their own inferences and actions based on theoretical and empirical evidence that support them. Validity is important when interpretations of judgements are involved (Nuttall, 1987; Messick, 1989).

Structural Changes

In this study as identified by Simons (1987), teachers' right to 'privacy' and sense of 'territoriality' and 'hierarchy' had a serious effect on teacher self-evaluation. The belief that classroom isolation was the 'advantage' of the profession prevented teachers from considering their performance as an issue of common concern. Improvement of teaching, learning and development has little chance to occur when such attitudes prevail. The way schools are organised and operate needs to be reconsidered if teachers are to become the agents of change in Greece. For example, nursery schools could be organised so that greater exchange of ideas and practices takes place with primary colleagues.

Attention needs to be paid to the dynamics developed from the relationship of official procedures (e.g. permanency and promotion) and teacher self-evaluation because these procedures can constrain practice. The official procedure of promotion, for example, was not practised in a meritocratic way and was evident from the

promotion of the Head in the primary case study. What teachers came to value was the association with those in power which they saw as a route to promotion. This context did not motivate teachers to develop through the practice of self-evaluation, or to engage in innovative ways to improve learning. Perceptions, such as '*jockeying oneself into a convenient position*' and '*lawlessness*', prevailed. As Senge (1990) notes, feedback is a reciprocal flow of information, with every influence being both a cause and an effect.

Such perceptions reflected not only the way teachers perceived the educational system and the kinds of the relations fostered but also the responsibility to recognise openly their weaknesses in teaching. Such recognition is crucial since it signals a developed understanding based on a critical examination of one's own actions (Howard & McColskey, 2001). At an ethical level, such recognition constitutes a personal virtue, which, for Aristotle, is neither an emotion (since emotions do not involve choice and are not a stable state) nor a simple ability, but a conscious "tendency to control certain emotions and correct action in specific situations" (Ross, 1993:287). Virtue is 'exis proairetiki' (ἕξις προαιρετική: a habit based on proairesis: Nicomachean Ethics, 1106 a14–1107a2). This implies that teacher avoidance to recognise their weaknesses openly in opposition to adopting this as 'ideal', relates to concealing poor performance depending on context. Context can determine the kind of approach to evaluating teaching (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000). In this study, the school and policy environment appeared to remain apathetic towards ensuring ways that develop teachers' virtues and to promote a view of self-evaluation as teacher 'business'. Expecting teachers to exhibit their virtues without contextual support for such changes can be rather futile.

EPILOGUE

> "Since the system of education in democratic societies always reflects and refracts the definition of democracy that society accepts as legitimate and true, the educational change, occurring in a democracy at any time, will reveal, how that democratic society has interpreted itself in the past and how it intends to interpret itself in the future" (Carr & Harnett, 1996:13-4)

Greek teachers' self-evaluation practices, as reflections of the way teachers interpret the values of the Greek society, can be seen as indicators of how democratic principles are perceived as enacted in this context. This study demonstrated that the

stance teachers take as sole evaluators of the quality of school learning can assist in preserving a status-quo in practice and avoid its disconfirmation if it is defined in terms of teacher resistance to protecting 'vested rights' once these are perceived as being at stake. One could argue that such a stance highlights a conflict of interests (internal versus external evaluation, Nevo, 2001); teachers have a right to use their power to preserve what is considered as belonging to them. It could be argued that such a stance indicates a failure of effective communication between teachers and policy-makers (Nevo, 1994; Ball, 1997a). The important issue is that policy ought not to be considered a linear process, a matter of 'generation' and 'implementation', of 'product' and 'outcomes' (Bowe et al, 1992; Ball, 1994; Looney, 2001). In this research such a conception of policy accounted for disinterest and confusion in self-evaluation practice; not gaining anticipated benefits, such as increased wages, meritocracy and transparency in official procedures and decisions provided the rationale in these teachers to minimise their efforts to improve practice. In Aristotelian thinking, policy and 'phronesis' have a tautological meaning thus changes in the former necessarily affect the latter:

> "It is the same 'phronesis' that ensures the 'good' for the individual and the 'good' for the state, but with regard to the individual we call it 'phronesis', while with regard to the state we call it political science" (Ross, 1993:309).

This research indicated that teachers alone could exhibit a weakness in clarifying the worthiness of long-established conceptions that shape personal ideology. It also became evident that the effect of the shortages of the system on teaching can be demonstrated via teachers' self-evaluation practice. Teachers may perceive as their 'right' to act autonomously, however, struggling alone "to find practical ways around...difficulties of time, attitude and lack of training" (Withers, 1994:193) while experiencing prescribed ways of teaching, bureaucratic procedures and an individualistic school culture can be rather difficult. In the teachers I studied, such experiences resulted in tacit learning which framed their expectations and interest to commit to improving teaching via self-evaluation. "Evaluation systems are credible only where teachers are considered a professional resource rather than a source of bureaucratic scrutiny" (Wise & Darling-Hammond, 1985). Allotting power to teachers to evaluate their teaching without ensuring ways that support the effective use of this power seems neither wise nor efficient. Teacher self-evaluation, conceived in Greece in terms of control, appeared to

leave little space for caring about the ways it ought to be implemented. Such conception serves primarily the triad efficiency, effectiveness and economy (Harland, 1996), however, in evaluation, the identification of purposes and the controls exercised by its use are of most importance (Ball, 1990).

Unequal distribution of power in the Greek educational system supports the argument that the control given to teachers over evaluation practice is based on false grounds. Teachers' power to prevail over other sources of power exercised on them would only be possible if teachers, when given control over the information that concerns their performance, were supported in the management of this information. As the analysis indicated, this did not happen. For example, unclear duties led to a lack of concern for excellence in teaching practice, inadequate support to teachers (e.g. in-service training and resources) led to ignorance of important issues to consider when self-evaluating practice. The political decision to allot power to teachers raised expectations that could not be easily met. The metaphor of the bicycle the primary teacher described was indicative of a perceived lack, or inability, or indifference of the Greek educational system to cope with teacher inefficiencies and provide appropriate support to assist self-evaluation practice.

This could be avoided if policy-makers did not neglect the factors that account for teacher interest in self-evaluation and introduced supportive changes. When changes in society are rapid penetrating the educational situations, it is crucial to create and foster school conditions that assist teachers realise the limitations and benefits of teacher self-evaluation (Hopkins et al, 1994; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Elliott, 1998). Changes need to be specific, allow time for modifications and learning in particular contexts (Holly & Hopkins, 1988; Retallick, 1999) and incorporate creative modes of supervision that provide constructive feedback to teachers (Ovando & Harris, 1993; Lieberman, 1996). Such changes create space for 'deep' school improvement, which is driven by professional judgements reached through self-evaluation (Reed & Learmonth, 2001). Exercising teacher self-evaluation collectively can offer a safe way for sustaining change in schools (Elliott, 1998).

One could hold doubts about teachers evaluating their practice, however the teachers in this study insisted that they did so because they wanted, and needed, to find out how they were doing. The self-evaluation process is based on what Aristotle calls

'intellectual desire'. This research has demonstrated that the ways and conditions that stimulate this desire are important for the learning involved and the outcomes produced. The value of an evaluation that pays attention to the way teachers construct knowledge highlights the role of teacher learning to improvement of teaching. The merit of evaluation aiming for learning has become evident in this research. Teacher self-evaluation is primarily a learning process and ought to be valued for that. Attention needs to be paid to the way it is practised (reflectively, deliberately, critically, explicitly, and systematically) and the interplay among contexts that frame its conduct.

Teacher-self-evaluation is about teachers building their capacity to self-learn and self-develop to help others enhance their capacity for learning. Focusing on the learning of all individuals involved in the teaching process can assist schools to become learning communities (Stoll et al, 2002). Greek teachers have conceptualised and practised teacher self-evaluation as a duty that stemmed from and has directed them, in a context where teacher evaluation is the only duty over which they have absolute control. This can explain their attempts to preserve what they perceive their vested right by keeping the conduct and outcomes of their self-evaluation to themselves. However, this can hardly provide reassurance to others, and to themselves, about the quality and success of self-evaluation outcomes. This seems to be the price to pay as long as the conduct of teacher self-evaluation is perceived and safeguarded as a private enterprise which functions without support in a perceived apathetic environment.

The educational system manifests itself in teachers' successful or dwindling performance: this performance reflects the system's efficacy in promoting pupils' and teachers' learning and well-being. Greek teachers' self-evaluation practice fused by the hierarchical structure and management of the educational system, teachers' lack of support and of shared responsibility of the learning occurring in schools, requires a vision and organised efforts to examine and assess its quality and effectiveness in context. Whether teachers' practice reflected diverse expectations, lack of communication, or a struggle of conflicting interests, is a matter of interpretation. The issue remains that teachers' perceptions need to be understood and dealt with so self-evaluation can step away from being a hostage to practices, beliefs and values that hinder its development. Greek teachers' self-evaluation practice needs to step beyond reliance on '*the pang of consciousness and bulk of knowledge a teacher possesses which*

allow him to act based on the criteria he thinks appropriate' (Postal survey response). In practical and political terms this means that efforts aiming to advance teaching and learning need to address the practice of teacher self-evaluation in a holistic manner and seriously consider what support is needed to overcome factors that affect its successful conduct. It is worth keeping in mind Aristotle's view that

> "each man judges well the things that he knows, and of these he is a good judge" (Nicomachean Ethics, 1095a, in Cooper, 1998:32).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

THE PILOT STUDY

Procedures and Outcomes

After having described in the main text the rationale for using a pilot as a strategy, I describe here the procedures that I followed in the pilot in phases (initial, intermediate and final) and I outline the most important outcomes.

Initial phase

Question development. Oppenheim (1996:59) notes as aspects of piloting the testing of procedures, the question wording, the layout of the questionnaire, the escape category. My first step was to approach the Head and teachers in a school I had been working and discuss concepts related to teacher self-evaluation, such as accountability. My aim was to develop questions. The analysis of this discussion led in formulating individual questions regarding evaluation experiences and feelings raised out of them, benefits and outcomes of self-evaluation, views about pupils' role in teaching and the subject-matter, preferences regarding improvement of practice and beliefs about ways teachers learn and develop.

I went back and distributed these questions to fifteen teachers asking for written comments about the content and language used. I received twelve responses and held discussions with six respondents trying to clarify what they had in mind when giving a particular answer. Then, I rephrased some questions with three teachers and recorded their answers to assess the differences among explanations. After analysing responses I decided on the issues that my questions should address and ways of expressing them. The questions evolved around formal and informal evaluation experiences, perceived self-evaluation purposes and benefits, ways of conduct, educational orientations, criteria used in evaluation practice. The whole process lasted from spring to autumn 2000.

Intermediate phase

This phase involves the development of the instruments, the selection of schools for the pilot and main study fieldwork, the negotiation with teachers and the MOE for acquiring access and the conduct of pilot fieldwork.

Developing the Instruments. During winter 2001, based on the questions of the initial phase that seemed working well for my study's purposes, I constructed a questionnaire that included forty-four questions. I administered it to five teachers and repeatedly held informal discussions with each one of them inviting comments, noting issues to attend to, checking patterns in answers and the language used (deVaus, 1996; R. Petterson, 2000). In analysis I focused on variation in answers, ascription of meaning, tendency of agreement and reluctance in answering certain questions (Oppenheim, 1996; deVaus, 1996). This led to developing a shorter questionnaire (30 questions) that included open-ended and follow-up questions and clusters of statements intended to help me construct attitude scales. Issues relevant to my sample's self-evaluation behaviour were included (Cohen & Manion, 1994). I administered it to the same five teachers and checked practical issues, such as the time needed for completion, general impression (e.g. smoothness and monotony) to detect difficulties in following its flow (deVaus, 1996) and relevance to the teachers' particular teaching situation (Cohen & Manion, 1994). To check and match particular characteristics of the sample whose "outlook, attitudes, experiences were likely to cover a similar range and variety in order to avoid unanticipated responses later (in) the main sample" (Oppenheim, 1996:69) a revised questionnaire was mailed to thirty speciality teachers in several schools. Since this was an 'undeclared phase' comments were sought without informing respondents that the questionnaire was under development (deVaus, 1996:99). To minimise delivery time, I posted it to schools in a radius of 600 km from the return address. Nine schools (three nurseries, two primaries, two gymnasiums and two lyceums) received questionnaires that were addressed to the Heads and were accompanied by administration notes which asked for distribution, collection and return. Sixteen teachers responded, six of them offered comments.

I also used twenty-five questions from the initial phase to design a rough interview schedule. I was not certain which issues would be more relevant to my sample's needs, thus important to focus on during interviewing. The analysis of the informal discussions with the previous five teachers suggested that I needed to limit the focus in the interviewing process. For example, my initial choice to examine teachers' self-evaluation practice using the CIPP model (Stufflebeam, 1991) might provide a deeper insight but I felt it might be better in my case to attend to purposes, benefits, processes and the role of others assuming that this could provide information useful to what I was

looking to describe in this study. I ended up with an interview schedule that included 19 questions accompanied by prompts and related in some way and order. I reformulated the interview schedule to include nineteen questions, I reordered questions to facilitate skipping some or examining in detail others; for example, general views regarding self-evaluation were followed by questions of personal engagement.

Selection and negotiation. Then, I negotiated my access to schools (spring 2001). Little educational research occurs in Greece (OECD, 1997) thus teachers are unfamiliar in offering their accounts for research purposes. Besides, their strong opposition towards proposed evaluation policies suggests sensitivity towards issues surrounding evaluation. Teachers needed to be approached carefully to investigate teachers' interest for participation; this could help in acquiring valid findings. Also, formal regulations apply for accessing schools for research purposes: teachers, local Administration Offices and the Ministry of Education needed to be contacted. The names of the case study schools to education authorities needed also to be reported to the MOE.

My contacts with Administration Officers granted oral permission and allowed key informants to suggest which schools might be more willing to participate; this proved particularly helpful in the pilot fieldwork. Based partly on this information, I visited several schools (fifteen in total, seven of which were nurseries) informing teachers about the research aims and process, the need to include people willing to offer their accounts and the right of teachers to clear data, and to withdraw. In seven schools teachers expressed an explicit interest for participation; for example, in a primary school the staff engaged in a vivid conversation about the evaluation of teachers that continued when teachers finished their work. In some schools teachers appeared to be willing to participate but classroom observation seemed to make teachers hold reservations; to get a sense of the climate I faced, I cite a teacher's comment:

'You can come and attend in my classroom but not observe'.

It seemed that the concept 'observation' carried judgmental connotations; teachers seemed not willing to accept that anyone else should make judgements about their teaching but themselves. In some schools the majority of teachers did not exhibit an explicit interest: the time pressure and uncertainty about teaching in the same school the following year (during main fieldwork) were the excuses presented for hesitation to participate. These contacts resulted in selecting schools willing to participate and in reaching agreement of appropriate time to conduct research without intervening with

programmed activities. My next step was to request permission of access from the MO E documenting it for different audiences, such as for the Pedagogic Institute. The access granted included all schools throughout Greece, both primary and secondary. This facilitated my sampling decisions since I could select and approach any school.

Pilot fieldwork. In May 2001 the pilot fieldwork was conducted in a nursery and a lyceum -one week in each. This choice was based on the schools' variance in pupils' age and in the curriculum offered. I assumed that interviewing two contrasting samples could tap respondents of different kinds and background (Oppenheim, 1996), which might help in detecting easier any differences in teachers' self-evaluation practice. Six teachers in the lyceum and four in the nursery were interviewed. At this point of time, Lyceums hold preparations for high stake final exams and nurseries for the end of the school year celebration; this constrained extending the pilot fieldwork to interview more teachers. The timing of fieldwork, and also teachers' reservations were factors that did not permit conducting classroom observation. When analysing the collected data I used grounded theory procedures, trying to familiarise myself with this method of analysis; I also paid attention on questions that needed to be repeated or were frequently misunderstood, on ones that made respondents uneasy, especially interested or required time to reply (deVaus, 1996). This phase aimed to assist me reach final conclusions, for example with regard to the fitness of the instruments and methods that I wanted to use (e.g. semi-structured interview schedule).

Final Phase

In the final phase, and influenced by authors suggestions (Miles & Huberman, 1994; deVaus, 1996), I focused on 1) the levels that my data linked; 2) sampling decisions; 3) finalising the instruments; 4) the way I would manage the data. Moving from the conceptual level of designing the research to applying it and back to re-conceptualisation furthered my understanding; for example, I realised that using a structured interview schedule could not overcome unanticipated happenings. My pilot experience had the following implications for action.

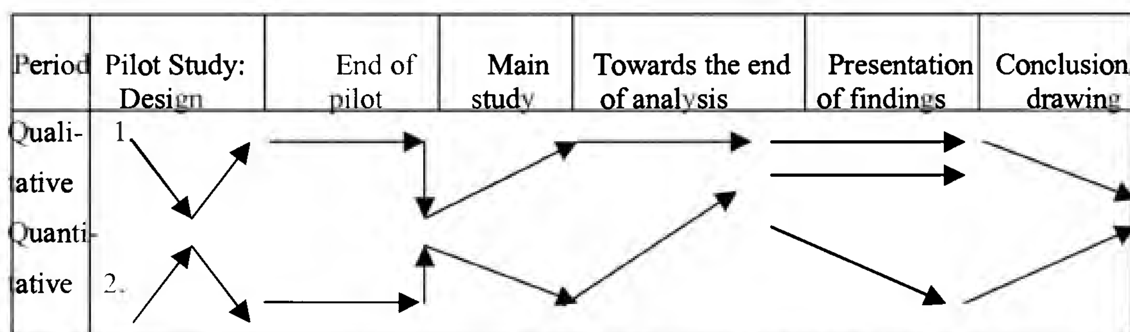
Linking qualitative and quantitative data. My research design included different methods; these would produce different types of data that would supplement and inform

one another. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that researchers need to think of purposes while 'thinking ahead' and identify three levels where data could link: in the design (in a study using multi-method approaches), in analysis (e.g. linking data filled by the same persons) and in presenting findings. All levels needed consideration since the different methods the study uses produce different types of data that supplement and inform one another. The study needed "spontaneous reactions and not carefully thought out positions" (Oppenheim, 1996:69), it needed teachers to be open and reflective about their self-evaluation practice but the time available was not enough for asking all teachers about all issues of concern. Time was not sufficient to ask all teachers about all issues of concern, so I purposefully linked data from mail questionnaires, interviews and reflective notes from the field and examined the way different data influence one another and how they link. Such examination helped me to get a broader view, notice inconsistencies, fill gaps, make comparisons between information provided by distinct data types, trace salient issues. I realised the modifications I needed to make and issues to attend to make the research design work better for my purposes. For example, pilot interview data suggested that training related more to the way teachers perceived self-evaluation than administration post held, thus the question on position held was replaced by the one on further training/qualifying degrees in the postal survey and my attention during fieldwork was directed towards examining the impact of training experiences on teachers. Examining differences among teachers' self-evaluation behaviour was possible by comparing data from different teachers, also ones the same teacher provided through different sources. Besides, phrasing and ordering items to be included on the scaled questions was possible by counting the frequency of occurrence of issues raised in such data. When both types of data pointed that some questions provided common patterns of response, these were dropped. This happened for example when asking if they 'hesitated to ask for advice': it received a high positive response in the questionnaire and seemed useless in interviewing. I needed teachers to be open and reflective about their practice; carefully thought responses, ones perceived as useless or finding most teachers in agreement, would not facilitate understanding the value attached to self-evaluation, or the reasons for specific ways of conduct.

I became aware that different types of data informed and influenced my understanding during analysis when assessing specific outcomes looking for verification. For

example, interview data indicated that teachers used recording for self-evaluation purposes on rare occasions; questionnaire responses confirmed this finding. Some times one data set supplied information overlooked by the others, other times they both provoked my curiosity. This made me think that they most probably would have a similar impact during the main study. The linking of qualitatively and quantitatively produced data helped me get a broader view of the information I collected. The pilot work was not carried out to extract finite conclusions from its findings (Oppenheim, 1996) but to check if sets of findings could support the theory I needed to develop. Sets of data ought to be valued for what each one has to offer. Triangulating data findings supported the drawing of conclusions. I think that even if I had treated data separately, it would still be difficult to keep one set of information from impacting on the other; all information was in my mind so at least unwittingly this might happen (Woods, 1996). The sequential linking of methods and data in this study is shown on figure 1 with the arrows indicating the timing of a simultaneous examination of different kinds of data:

Fig 1. Sequence of linking qualitative and quantitative Data



1. Data gathered from interviews, observation, informal discussions, documents, and short questionnaires in the case study sites.

2. Data gathered from the postal survey administered to the case study teachers and the stratified sample.

<u>Sampling decisions</u>. The pilot experience clarified the limitations of my sampling decisions. This is qualitative work and systematic sampling can not always be fully achieved because of its initial "unsystematic, exploratory nature, problems of negotiating access and problems of gathering and processing data through one set of ears and eyes" (Woods, 1996:54). However, "there is nothing wrong with that as long as undue claims about generality are not made" (ibid:54). This research seeks to understand Greek teachers' self-evaluation practice; teachers' descriptions would be instances of self-evaluation practice at specific moments of time and the claims made

would concern only their occurrence. Besides, investigating the meaning and processes used in teacher self-evaluation, the consequences on teaching and learning, the conditions influencing its conduct and development requires time, which I did not have. The initial design involved four case studies in one city and a postal survey to five hundred and twenty (520) teachers working in different types of state schools in fifty-two geographical districts. This sample size could include several typical cases in the four stages of education in Greece, and be representative. Since the aim was to develop an understanding of teachers' self-evaluation practice changing this aim seemed not to present a problem. The feasibility of the research activity in the time I had available was more important. I lowered the number of case study schools to two and amended the postal survey sample.

The types of schools to study presented a dilemma: focusing on settings distinctly different seemed to offer different possibilities from ones that presented similarities. For example, the pilot study indicated differences in educational orientations in different settings; such differences might account for differences in self-evaluation practice. The questionnaire responses of primary and nursery teachers indicated that 'teacher development' was the most important issue of self-evaluation, for secondary teachers this was 'teacher ability'. Secondary teachers explicitly contrasted the subjective nature of personal judgements with the need of objective means to evaluate the work of teachers; objectivity was a prime quest for this group. This might reflect what the educational system asks of them, for example, it could highlight external expectations particular to their situation, or be indicative of a different underlying philosophy due to other factors. In the context of this study, this difference indicated where homogeneity and heterogeneity of actors in different stage lied, thus proved right the choice to focus on heterogeneous groups to detect variance in perceptions regarding self-evaluation practice. Schools that have a closer match could provide opportunities for confirming similar instances. I assumed that similar settings and practices accommodate conditions that give rise to similar perceptions; this could facilitate detecting the origin of what authors call 'extreme' or 'deviant' cases in self-evaluation behaviour (Patton, 1980; Strauss, 1987; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Were deviant cases a result of external or internal influences to self-evaluation processes? Were they due to the individual teacher or to external factors? The probability of encountering the occurrence of similar issues (for example the objectivity issue stressed by secondary teachers) could be traced in a

homogenous group by examining extreme cases; this would provide more certainty when drawing conclusions. Thus, in order to limit the focus, to manage the process and to bind the research, new assumptions underpinned the study.
Nursery and primary schools have a closer match in terms of curriculum, proximity of pupils'' age and teachers' years of initial studies, teachers often share training courses and are under the same administration office. Besides, nurseries are usually 'hosted' inside primary school premises and both share common curriculum objectives; for example, in both schools the socialisation process is emphasised as part of pupils' learning. I assumed common features would make teachers react similarly to encountered problems. My own experience and familiarity with the primary sector contributed towards this choice which raised a problem. I needed to study more than one nursery because in nurseries there are only one or two (rarely three) teachers. Naming nurseries 'schools' when operating as independent 'classes' raised an issue as to what makes up a 'school': naming 'school' an institution does not mean that it functions as such. I tried to overcome this by choosing six nurseries that share buildings, equipment and co-operate in activities, such as celebrations and visits, and the student population is assigned randomly to them. I decided to treat them as my second case in the presentation of findings.
Another change I did in the initial design was to lower to seventeen (1/3) the geographical districts that I would administer the questionnaire. I kept the initial choice to include both primary and secondary schools. I thought that findings from groups of teachers that are not the focus of the study could help when drawing conclusions.

Finalising the instruments. I focused on giving a final form to the instruments. The pilot analysis reinforced the choice to use scales to examine the extent of teachers' consciousness of their self-evaluation practice. Basing the statements on things that teachers did, or did not do, could help distinguish between the teachers that were more or less knowledgeable about self-evaluation aspects. Were teachers aware of the importance of including others in their self-evaluation practice? Did they perceive self-evaluation as feeding their own learning? Checking on teachers' knowledge of self-evaluation aspects could then be set against teachers' claims. This would allow making links, such as linking professional consciousness with feelings and needs, to reveal why teachers prefer to act in certain ways. For example, teachers' sense of responsibility and

care may relate to teachers' self-evaluation behaviour, or the need to be autonomous and uncontrolled may influence the value placed on teacher self-evaluation.
Several writers suggest points to consider when constructing and developing scaled questionnaires (de Vaus, 1996; Oppenheim, 1996; R. Peterson, 2000). Starting with the issues I wanted to measure, I drew a conceptual map clustering statements that linked; my focus was on sub-areas that measured the same thing trying to figure out the scale's function within the context of my research. For example, when constructing the scale on perceived benefits I used a different clustering of statements, such as beneficial for teaching, pupils, learning outcomes, and decided what statements (items) to keep; on the scale on processes I merged the statements on processes with the ones that referred to the strategies teachers used. Then, I ranged the statements in a logical order of appearance; Oppenheim (1996:187) refers to the ordering of a scale as the 'reproducibility' of the scale. For example, a teacher logically would first identify the existence of a problem and then decide on what information to collect and from whom. Not all scales could be ordered (e.g. the scale on benefits). However, in the ones that could be ordered, the statements were scaled in terms of degree of deeper involvement. For instance, I considered the continuous observation and reflection on performance issues that once had caused trouble, as indicating a deeper involvement than discussing such issues with colleagues when searching for solution; the former lasted longer and demonstrated a devotion to be introspective of practice.

Oppenheim (1996) discusses the number of sub-areas to be included in a scale and the meaning that can be elicited from them in analysis; he argues that "the more aspects of a particular attitude included, the more likely the scores obtained will mean something in terms of underlying attitude rather than in terms of particular aspects of it" (ibid.:179). When selecting what statements to include I focused on the content and kept statements that received a high response rate; the criterion applied was that teachers should find them interesting and meaningful to their own situation. Three scaled-questions had ten-to-twelve sub-areas; one had five. The small number of items in the latter scale (on constraints) meant that I could not conduct Principal Components Analysis. This did not appear to be a problem since the main aim was to describe the practice of teacher self-evaluation, not to examine in detail all the constraints in its conduct. I purposefully included statements (one or two in every scale), which might get a low response rate. For example, in the scale on processes the statement referring to record keeping

received a low response rate in the pilot, and this was repeated in the main study's response. Statements, such as this of recording, examined issues that were suggested by the literature as relevant and influential to a teacher's self-evaluation behaviour, so checking on their degree of occurrence would be interesting.

The follow-up questions intended to provide a deeper insight that would allow closing them. Due to low response this could not be done. I kept some follow-up questions thinking that if analysed using grounded theory procedures, and not be included in statistical tables, they would not harm the study but advance understanding. I tried to include in some questions a category (other) that would allow teachers to express a point that was not referred to by the provided alternatives (escape category). Finally, I attended to the format of the questionnaire, for instance, what form the scaled questions should have, the kind of background information that would be most useful for my study and the wording of my questions (e.g. to have a clear meaning).

I gave this questionnaire to four teachers (two primary teachers and two secondary teachers) asking for clarity of statements, the user-friendliness format and estimates of the time needed for completion. Then, I made the final changes on it: some concerned the use of words and the emphasis put on some, others the relocation of statements to make them read better.

I also made changes in the interview schedule. Some issues seemed overlapping, for example, teachers replied with the benefits they perceived to be getting when asked why they self-evaluated. I combined questions and made a list of prompts. Some questions appeared not to be understood, for instance, teachers asked for clarification or for an example when asked to name criteria they used, or if they involved pupils during the self-evaluation activity. Such questions might have provided valuable information once understood and answered. Adopting authors' suggestions (e.g. Huberman & Miles, 1994; deVaus, 1996) I rephrased some, and removed others, assuming that I could elicit them during the focused or selective interviews. I came up with an interview schedule that included nine questions clustered into groups of content (the why of self-evaluation) and form (the what and how). This strategy helped when formulating the research questions. During the pilot interviewing it allowed dealing with one question area at a time; this provided time to focus on similar issues in the interview session and to handle separately the collected information during the initial phase of analysis.

Time Planning and Data Management. Then, I considered specific issues affecting analysis, such as time planning and data management. My pilot experience indicated that when analysing data I needed to spend several days to fully transcribe, code, write memos and make displays of my first interview, but with the rest I spent less time; the analysis was quicker because the same categories emerged. I planned my weekly fieldwork activities (Figure 3: 'Weekly activity plan'), and following Miles and Huberman's (1994:46-7) suggestions I calculated the time needed for data collection and analysis such as processing field notes, transcribing tapes, coding, writing memos and constructing displays. I decided to collect data in the morning the first six weeks and analyse them in the afternoon; then, data analysis to inform data collection. Minimising time in the sites intended to let in depth processing of field notes, coding and identifying what was missing and where to go to find it (Strauss, 1987).

Figure 3. Weekly activity plan

Initial Phase *Descriptive*						**IntermediatePhase** *Focused*		**Final Phase** *Selective*		
Week 1st	**2nd**	**3rd**	**4th**	**5th**	**6th**	**7th**	**8th**	**9th**	**10th**	**11th**
Semi-Structured interview with teachers A - B	Semi-structured interview with teachers C - D		Semi-structured interview with teachers E - F		Semi-structured interview with teacher G - H	Use theoretical sampling interview teachers	Use theoretical sampling interview teachers	Use theoretical sampling interview teachers	Use theoretical sampling interview teacher	Use theoretical sampling interview teacher
	Observe teacher A - B in staff-room	Observe teacher C - D in play-ground A - B in class rooms	Observe teacher C - D in staff-room	Observe teacher C - D in class-room	Observe teachers in play-ground	Observe 1 teacher from (ABCD) and 1 from theoretical sampling	Observe 1 teacher from theoretical sampling in class room	Observe 1 teacher from theoretical sampling in class room		
	Record informal talk	Record informal talk	Record informal talk	Record informal talk	Record informal talk	Record informal talk	Record informal talk	Record informal talk	Record informal talk	Record informal talk
	IN COMMON SCHOOL AREAS (e.g. STAFFROOM)									
Total : 2 Interview	2 Interview and **2** Observation	**4** Observation	2 Interview and **2** Observation	**2** Observation	2 Interview and **1** Observation	2 Interview and **2** Observation	2 Interview and **1** Observation	2 Interview and **1** Observation	1 Interview	1 Interview

Prioritising my needs, I decided to stick to pen and pencil techniques when analysing qualitative data and learn a statistical program for analysing quantitative responses. The time I had available for learning software programs was restricted by the fact that I fieldwork would be conducted in Greece. I directed my attention in developing a data management system that would work best in my case. I focused on developing further the system I used during the pilot for sorting and filing data. I came up with the following:

- My field notes and interview tapes to be headed with the name of sites, dates and persons involved [nursery4:16/1/02:A&H].
- Transcribed interviews to be set up in numbered paragraphs and put into folders with my field notes [nursery3:5/2/02:TH–3].
- Lists of categories [i.e. PURP for purposes], memos [e.g. memo/TR.EXP-training-experiences] and diagrams to be coded according to the topic they were referring to, to be referenced to the field notes they derived from, and to be stored in different files [for example, a diagram about purposes of nursery teacher A would be filed: D2-L/PURP:nursery4:20/1/02:A]. The files' front-pages to function as indexes this means to include material that could be retrieved easily from them.
- To keep a diary recording comments worries and issues needing consideration.
- To store the numbered and analysed questionnaires, separately for case studies and postal survey and to attach to them a 'segment-file' (e.g. segments from open-ended questions) and a record sheet that would link together these segments to be used during write-ups.
- To keep a log continuously documenting the procedures followed when collecting and analysing data and writing up the findings.
- To make a file that would include the questionnaire, the coding frames used in analysis as well as the labels for every question, answer categories with code values and a list of numbers allocated to variables; this means to produce a 'code book' (deVaus 1996; Oppenheim, 1996).

The whole process that involves the pilot study ended in August 2001.

APPENDIX 2

A. The Postal Survey Questionnaire (in Greek)
B. The Postal Survey Questionnaire (translated in English)
C. The Coding of the Questionnaire
D. Material Accompanying the Questionnaire (in Greek)
E. Material Accompanying the Questionnaire (translated in English)
F. Short Questionnaires (in Greek)
G. Short Questionnaires (Translated in English)
H. Interview Schedule (in Greek)
I. Interview Schedule (translated in English)

A. The Postal Survey Questionnaire (in Greek)

Οι πληροφορίες που θα δώσετε είναι πολύτιμες για τη διεξαγωγή της έρευνας με τίτλο **«Αξιολόγηση και Αυτοαξιολόγηση Εκπαιδευτικών: Εμπειρίες και Στάσεις Ελλήνων Εκπαιδευτικών»**. Μεμονωμένοι εκπαιδευτικοί δεν θα αναφερθούν, ούτε είναι δυνατόν να αναγνωρισθούν στα πορίσματα της έρευνας.

Παρακαλώ βάλτε / στα κατάλληλα τετράγωνα και συμπληρώστε τα κενά.

1. **Φύλο**

Άνδρας ☐
Γυναίκα ☐

2. **Χρόνια Υπηρεσίας**

1-4 ☐
5-11 ☐
12-24 ☐
25 + ☐

3. **Ειδικότητα**

- *Νηπιαγωγός* ☐
- *Δάσκαλος/α* ☐
- *Καθηγητής Φυσ. Αγωγής* ☐
- *Καθηγητής Ξένων Γλωσσών* ☐
- *Καθηγητής Μαθημάτων Θετικής Κατεύθυνσης* ☐
- *Καθηγητής Μαθημάτων Θεωρητικής Κατεύθυνσης* ☐

4. **Σχολείο που εργάζεστε**

Νηπιαγωγείο ☐
Δημοτικό ☐
Γυμνάσιο ☐
Λύκειο ☐

5. **Αρχικές σπουδές**

2 χρόνια ☐
4 χρόνια ☐

6. **Επιμόρφωση/ Άλλα Πτυχία**

Άλλο Πτυχίο ☐
ΣΕΛΔΕ ☐
Μαράσλειο ☐
ΜΑ ή MSc ☐
Διδακτορικό ☐
Κανένα ☐

1. Αισθάνεστε ότι έχετε πάρει ικανοποιητική εκπαίδευση γενικά για την εκπαιδευτική αξιολόγηση;

ΝΑΙ ☐ ΔΕΝ ΕΙΜΑΙ ΣΙΓΟΥΡΟΣ/ Η ☐ ΟΧΙ ☐

2. Για το πώς να αξιολογείτε τη διδακτική σας πρακτική;

ΝΑΙ ☐ ΔΕΝ ΕΙΜΑΙ ΣΙΓΟΥΡΟΣ/ Η ☐ ΟΧΙ ☐

Αν απαντήσατε **όχι**, εξηγείστε τι είδους εκπαίδευση θα σας βοηθούσε να αξιολογήσετε ικανοποιητικά τη διδακτική σας πρακτική:

....

....

3. Ποια/ ες λέξεις περιγράφουν καλύτερα τους προβληματισμούς σας για το πώς αξιολογείτε τη διδακτική σας πρακτική; *(Σημειώστε 1 ως 3 λέξεις)*

Φόβος ☐ ☐ Απομόνωση ☐ ☐ Απογοήτευση ☐ ☐

Αδιαφορία ☐ Μοναξιά Άγχος

Ενοχή Άλλη λέξη:..

4. Πιστεύετε ότι υπάρχουν μειονεκτήματα στη λειτουργία ενός τυποποιημένου σχήματος αξιολόγησης των εκπαιδευτικών;

ΝΑΙ ☐ ΔΕΝ ΕΙΜΑΙ ΣΙΓΟΥΡΟΣ/ Η ☐ ΟΧΙ ☐

Αν **ναι**, ποιο είναι κατά τη γνώμη σας το κύριο μειονέκτημα;.......................................
....
....

5. Αν προτεινόταν ένα τυποποιημένο σχήμα αυτό-αξιολόγησης και σας δινόταν επιμόρφωση, θα είσαστε διατεθειμένος/ η να συμμετάσχετε;

ΝΑΙ ☐ *ΔΕΝ ΕΙΜΑΙ ΣΙΓΟΥΡΟΣ/ Η* ☐ *ΟΧΙ* ☐

5.1. Πόσο χρόνο θα αφιερώνατε για τη συμμετοχή σας σε ένα τέτοιο επιμορφωτικό πρόγραμμα;

2 ώρες εβδομαδιαία ☐
2 ώρες μηνιαία ☐
2 ώρες κάθε τρίμηνο ☐

Άλλο (διευκρινίστε): **..**

6. Αφότου αρχίσατε να διδάσκετε έχετε αλλάξει σε σημαντικό βαθμό τον τρόπο που αξιολογείτε τη διδακτική σας πρακτική;

ΝΑΙ ☐ *ΟΧΙ* ☐

Αν **ναι**, παρακαλώ περιγράψτε μια αλλαγή

Πριν...
....

Τώρα...

....

7. Αν πιστεύετε ότι έχετε αποκομίσει οφέλη από την αυτό-αξιολόγηση σας, ποια είναι αυτά και ποιος ο βαθμός σημασίας τους;

	Υψηλός	*Μέτριος*	*Χαμηλός*
• Εφάρμοσα το αναλυτικό πρόγραμμα πιο αποτελεσματικά	☐	☐	☐
• Σχεδίασα το μάθημα και το δίδαξα πιο αποτελεσματικά	☐	☐	☐
• Βοηθήθηκα να δίνω στους μαθητές κατάλληλη δουλειά	☐	☐	☐
• Βοηθήθηκα να βρίσκω τρόπους που οι μαθητές μαθαίνουν καλύτερα	☐	☐	☐
• Αντιλήφθηκα πλεονεκτήματα και μειονεκτήματα στη διδασκαλία μου	☐	☐	☐
• Συνειδητοποίησα τις στρατηγικές που χρησιμοποιούσα	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐
• Ανέπτυξα δεξιότητες σαν εκπαιδευτικός			
• Συνειδητοποίησα τις εκπαιδευτικές αρχές που κατεύθυναν τη διδασκαλία μου	☐	☐	☐
• Βοήθησα συναδέλφους/ το σχολείο να γίνουν/ γίνει πιο	☐	☐	☐
αποτελεσματικοί/ αποτελεσματικό	☐	☐	☐
• Βελτιώθηκα σαν άτομο			
• Άλλο (Παρακαλώ διευκρινίστε).			

8. Πότε συνήθως αυτό-αξιολογείτε τη διδακτική σας πρακτική;

Πριν το μάθημα ☐

Κατά τη διάρκεια του μαθήματος ☐

Μετά το μάθημα ☐

Άλλη ώρα (Παρακαλώ διευκρινίστε):**...**

<u>Η προηγούμενη επιλογή σας σημαίνει ότι αυτό-αξιολογείστε</u>:

Σε καθορισμένα χρονικά διαστήματα ☐

Ελαστικά ☐

9. Όταν αυτό-αξιολογείστε αναζητάτε βοήθεια ή συμβουλή από άλλους;

NAI ☐ *OXI* ☐

10. Αν **ναι**, ποια ήταν η πιο αποτελεσματική πηγή βοήθειας ή συμβουλής;

Συνάδελφοι ☐
Διευθυντής Σχολείου ☐
Εκπαιδευτικός Σύμβουλος ☐
Άλλος (Παρακαλώ διευκρινίστε):..

11. Πόσο αποτελεσματική είναι η αυτο-αξιολόγησή σας; (Εκτιμείστε το επίπεδο της αποτελεσματικότητάς της):

Υψηλό ☐ *Μέτριο* ☐ *Χαμηλό* ☐

12. Σημειώστε το επίπεδο της συχνότητας των παρακάτω, όπως αυτές εφαρμόζονται από εσάς όταν αυτό-αξιολογείστε:

	Πάντα	Μερικές φορές	Ποτέ
α. Προσδιορίζω το θέμα που μου προκαλεί προβληματισμό	☐	☐	☐
β. Καθορίζω τι πληροφορίες χρειάζεται να μαζέψω	☐	☐	☐
γ. Προσδιορίζω τα κριτήρια που θα με βοηθήσουν να εντοπίσω επιτυχία ή πρόοδο στο πρόβλημα	☐	☐	☐
δ. Συζητώ με τους μαθητές μου όταν συλλέγω τις απαραίτητες πληροφορίες	☐	☐	☐
ε. Συζητώ/ αναλύω τις αποφάσεις μου με συναδέλφους	☐	☐	☐
ζ. Παρατηρώ πως οι συνάδελφοι χειρίζονται προβλήματα	☐	☐	☐
η. Σχεδιάζω αλλαγές για να ξεπεραστεί το θέμα που προκάλεσε τον προβληματισμό	☐	☐	☐
θ. Συλλογίζομαι πώς σχετίζονται οι πληροφορίες που συνέλεξα με τη διδακτική μου πρακτική	☐	☐	☐
ι. Συζητώ αρχές μάθησης που κατευθύνουν τη διδακτική πρακτική με άλλους συναδέλφους	☐	☐	☐
κ. Συζητώ τεχνικές και στρατηγικές αυτό-αξιολόγησης	☐	☐	☐
λ. Συνεχίζω να παρατηρώ την πρόοδο πάνω στο θέμα που προκάλεσε τον προβληματισμό	☐	☐	☐
• Κρατώ αρχείο που μπορεί να δώσει τυπικές αποδείξεις για την αυτό-αξιολόγησή μου	☐	☐	☐

13. Πόση σπουδαιότητα νομίζετε ότι έχουν οι επόμενες φράσεις;

Η αυτό-αξιολόγηση του εκπαιδευτικού:

	Μεγάλη	Μέτρια	Καμία
α. Βοηθά τους εκπαιδευτικούς να αναπτυχθούν επαγγελματικά	☐	☐	☐
β. Ελέγχει συνεχόμενα την πρόοδο στην επίδοση του εκπαιδευτικού	☐	☐	☐
γ. Κάνει τους εκπαιδευτικούς αποτελεσματικούς	☐	☐	☐
δ. Επιτρέπει στους εκπαιδευτικούς να είναι υπεύθυνοι σε γονείς, μαθητές	☐	☐	☐
ε. Επιτρέπει στους εκπαιδευτικούς να είναι υπεύθυνοι στην κυβέρνηση	☐	☐	☐
ζ. Επιτρέπει στους εκπαιδευτικούς να λειτουργούν ως υπεύθυνοι επαγγελματίες	☐	☐	☐
η. Προσδιορίζει ανάγκες της διδασκαλίας	☐	☐	☐
θ. Βελτιώνει τα μαθησιακά αποτελέσματα	☐	☐	☐
ι. Αποκαλύπτει υποβόσκουσες εκπαιδευτικές αρχές για τη μάθηση και την διδασκαλία	☐	☐	☐
κ. Αποκαλύπτει επαγγελματικές αρχές που προέρχονται από την κουλτούρα των εκπαιδευτικών	☐	☐	☐

14. Πόσο εμποδίζουν τα ακόλουθα την αυτο-αξιολόγησή σας;

	Αρκετά	Μέτρια	Καθόλου
α. Άλλα σημαντικά θέματα απαιτούν την προσοχή/ εξαντλούν την ενέργειά μου	☐	☐	☐
• **Η αυτο-αξιολόγηση είναι χρονοβόρα**	☐	☐	☐
• **Επαγγελματικές αρχές ή αξίες που καθορίζονται από την κουλτούρα των εκπαιδευτικών/ του επαγγέλματος**	☐	☐	☐
• **Η στάση των υπολοίπων συναδέλφων στο σχολείο προς την αυτο-αξιολόγηση**	☐	☐	☐
• **Η αποτελεσματική διδασκαλία μπορεί να εξασφαλισθεί και με άλλα μέσα/ τρόπους**	☐	☐	☐

- **Άλλος λόγος (Παρακαλώ διευκρινίστε):...**

15. Ποιο από τα παρακάτω θεωρείτε σαν **το πιο σημαντικό** για την αυτοαξιολόγηση του εκπαιδευτικού;

α. **Η ικανότητα του εκπαιδευτικού** ☐
ή
β. **Ο διαθέσιμος χρόνος** ☐
ή
γ. **Η αξιολόγηση σε συνεργασία με συναδέλφους** ☐
ή
δ. **Η βελτίωση του εκπαιδευτικού (ατομική – επαγγελματική)** ☐
ή
ε. **Άλλο** (Παρακαλώ διευκρινίστε): ....

Παρακαλώ συμπληρώστε τις επόμενες φράσεις:

16. Πιστεύω ότι **αυτοαξιολόγηση του εκπαιδευτικού σημαίνει**:

....

....

....

....

17. Το **κύριο μειονέκτημα** της αυτοαξιολόγησης του εκπαιδευτικού είναι:

....

....

....

....

ΣΑΣ ΕΥΧΑΡΙΣΤΩ ΓΙΑ ΤΗ ΣΥΝΕΡΓΑΣΙΑ

ΠΑΡΑΚΑΛΩ ΒΑΛΤΕ ΤΟ ΣΥΜΠΛΗΡΩΜΕΝΟ ΕΡΩΤΗΜΑΤΟΛΟΓΙΟ ΣΤΟ ΦΑΚΕΛΟ, ΚΛΕΙΣΤΕ ΤΟΝ ΚΑΙ ΕΠΙΣΤΡΕΨΤΕ ΤΟΝ ΣΤΟ ΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΤΗ ΤΟΥ ΣΧΟΛΕΙΟΥ.

B. The Postal Survey Questionnaire (translated in English)

PART 1. Background information – Please tick appropriate boxes
(No individual teacher will be identified in any of the results)

1. Male ☐
Female ☐

2. Years of teaching experience

1-4 years ☐
5-11 years ☐
12-24 years ☐
25 or more years ☐

3. Specialised as a:

Nursery teacher ☐
Primary teacher ☐
Physical Education teacher ☐
Foreign Languages teacher ☐
Pure Science teacher ☐
Exact Science teacher ☐

4. School you currently work at:

Nursery School ☐
Primary School ☐
Gymnasium ☐
Lyceum ☐

5. Years of initial study / training received to qualify as a teacher

2 years ☐
4 years ☐

6. Further Training/ Qualifying degrees

Other degree ☐
SELDE ☐
Maraslio ☐
Master ☐
PhD ☐
None ☐

PART 2. Please tick appropriate boxes or offer your opinion in the blank space provided

Question 1. Do you feel you have received sufficient training in educational evaluation?

Yes ☐ **Uncertain** ☐ **No** ☐

Question 2. What about evaluating your own teaching?

Yes ☐ **Uncertain** ☐ **No** ☐

If **no or uncertain**, please explain what training would help you evaluate your own teaching?

....

....

Question 3. Which words best describe your concerns about evaluating your own teaching practice? (Please tick one to three)

Fear ☐ **Isolation** ☐ **Disappointment** ☐

Indifference ☐ **Loneliness** ☐ **Stress** ☐

Guilt ☐ **Other** ....

Question 4. Do you think there are disadvantages in operating a formal scheme for the evaluation of teachers?

Yes ☐ **Uncertain** ☐ **No** ☐

If **yes**, what is the main disadvantage for you?..

....

Question 5. If a formal self-evaluation scheme was introduced and training was provided would you be willing to participate?

Yes ☐ **Uncertain** ☐ **No** ☐

Question 5.1. How much time would you devote to participating in such a training scheme?

2 hours weekly ☐
2 hours monthly ☐
2 hours every term ☐

Other (Please specify) ....

Question 6. Since you started teaching have you made any significant changes to the ways you evaluate your own teaching practice?

Yes ☐ **No** ☐

Please indicate one way that you modified your self-evaluation practice:

Before:...

....

Now:...

....

Question 7. Please indicate the importance of the benefits you think you derived from evaluating your own teaching.

		High	Medium	Low
a.	**I delivered the curriculum more effectively**	☐	☐	☐
b.	**I planned and carried instruction more effectively**	☐	☐	☐
b.	**I was enabled to give students appropriate work**	☐	☐	☐
c.	**I was enabled to find ways that students learn better**	☐	☐	☐
d.	**I realized strengths and weaknesses in my teaching**	☐	☐	☐
e.	**I became aware of strategies I used**	☐	☐	☐
f.	**I developed my skills as a teacher**	☐	☐	☐
g.	**I became aware of underpinning educational values**	☐	☐	☐
h.	**I helped colleagues and the school become effective**	☐	☐	☐
k.	**I developed myself**	☐	☐	☐
l.	**Other** (Please specify)			

Question 8. When do you usually evaluate your own teaching? (Please tick **only** one)

Before the lesson ☐
During the lesson ☐
After the lesson ☐

Other (Please specify): ....

Your previous choice means that you self-evaluate:

At fixed intervals ☐ **Flexibly** ☐

Question 9. When you evaluate your own teaching practice do you seek advice or help from others?

Yes ☐ **No** ☐

Question 10. If **yes**, which was the most effective source of help or advice? (Please tick only one)

Fellow teachers ☐
Educational advisers ☐
Headmaster ☐

Other (Please specify)...

Question 11. Estimate the level of effectiveness of your self-evaluation:

High ☐ **Medium** ☐ **Low** ☐

Question 12. Indicate the level of frequency of the following, as applicable to your own practice of self-evaluation.

	Always	Sometimes	Never
a. Identify issue causing concern	☐	☐	☐
b. Define appropriate information to collect	☐	☐	☐
c. Determine criteria that will help in identifying progress	☐	☐	☐
d. Discuss with pupils when obtaining information needed	☐	☐	☐
e. Discuss own decisions with others in the school	☐	☐	☐
f. Observe how other teachers handdle problems	☐	☐	☐
g. Plan changes to overcome the issue that has caused concern	☐	☐	☐
h. Reflect about the relation of information to own teaching	☐	☐	☐
i. Discuss about underlying teaching /learning principles	☐	☐	☐
j. Discuss self-evaluation techniques/ strategies	☐	☐	☐
k. Monitor progress on the issue that has caused concern	☐	☐	☐
l. Keep a record that provides formal evidence of self-evaluation	☐	☐	☐

Question 13. Indicate how important you think are the following for the practice of **teacher self-evaluation**:

	High	Medium	Low
a. It assists teachers' personal development	☐	☐	☐
b. It monitors teachers' progress in performance	☐	☐	☐
c. It makes teachers effective	☐	☐	☐
d. It makes teachers accountable to pupils and parents	☐	☐	☐
e. It makes teachers accountable to government	☐	☐	☐
f. It makes teachers professionally responsible	☐	☐	☐
g. It identifies needs in teaching	☐	☐	☐
h. Ii improves learning outcomes	☐	☐	☐
i. It uncovers educational values underpinning teaching practice and students' learning	☐	☐	☐
j. It uncovers professional values underpinning teachers' culture	☐	☐	☐

Question 14. To what extent do the following constrain you in evaluating your own teaching?

	High	Medium	Low
a. More important issues require my attention/ energy	☐	☐	☐
b. Self-evaluation takes too long	☐	☐	☐
c. Professional values underlying staff culture	☐	☐	☐
d. Staff attitudes towards self-evaluation	☐	☐	☐
e. Effective teaching can be ensured through other ways/means	☐	☐	☐

f. Other reasons (Please specify)..

Question 15. Please tick the most important for teacher self-evaluation?

a. **Teacher ability** ☐
or
b. **Time available** ☐
or
c. **Evaluating with colleagues** ☐
or
d. **Teacher development** ☐
or
e. **Other** (Please specify) ....

PART 3. Please complete the following statements:
Question 16. I think teacher self-evaluation means:

....

....

....

Question 17. The main disadvantage of teacher self-evaluation is:

....

....

....

Thank you for taking the time to fill in this survey.

Please place the completed survey in the envelope provided, seal and return it to the Head of your school.

C. The Coding of the Questionnaire

Explanations: [top numbers]: number of variable
[headings in capital letters]: label of variable
[number next to boxes]: number of categories used in variables
[headings in small letters]: questions/ statements used in the questionnaire

[1 / GENDER]

Male M
Female F

[2 / TEAC. EXP.]
Years of teaching experience

1-4 years 1
5-11 years 2
12-24 years 3
25 or more years 4

[3 / SPEC]

Specialism you teach

Nursery teacher 1
Primary teacher 2
Physical Education teacher 3
Foreign Languages teacher 4
Pure Science teacher 5
Exact Science teacher 6

[4 / SCHOOL]

School you currently work

Nursery School 1
Primary School 2
Gymnasium 3
Lyceum 4

[5 / INIT. TRAIN]
Years of initial study / training
received to qualify as a teacher

2 years 1
4 years 2

[6 / FUR. TRAIN]
Further Training/
Qualifying degrees

Other degree 1
SELDE 2
Maraslio 3
Master 4
PhD 5
None 6

[7 / EVAL. TRAIN]
Do you feel you have received sufficient training in educational evaluation?

Yes 1 Uncertain 2 No 3

[8 / S-EVAL. TRAIN]

What about evaluating your own teaching?

Yes 1 Uncertain 2 No 3

[9-16 / CONCERNS]

Which words best describe your concerns about evaluating your own teaching practice? (Please tick one to three)

Fear ☐ [9]
Isolation ☐ [12]
Disappointment [14] ☐
Indifference ☐ [10]
Loneliness ☐ [13]
Stress [15] ☐
Guilt ☐ [11]
Other [16] ☐

[17 / DISADVAN]
Do you think there are disadvantages in operating a formal scheme for the evaluation of teachers?

Yes ☐ 1 Uncertain ☐ 2 No ☐ 3

[18 / S-EV. FORMALITY]
If a formal self-evaluation scheme was introduced and training provided, would you be willing to participate?

Yes ☐ 1 Uncertain ☐ 2 No ☐ 3

[19 / DEV. TIME]
How much time would you devote to participating in such a training scheme?

2 hours weekly ☐ 1
2 hours monthly ☐ 2
2 hours every term ☐ 3
Other ☐ 4

[20 / CHANGES]
Since you started teaching have you made any significant changes to the ways you evaluate your own teaching practice?

Yes ☐ 1 No ☐ 2

[21 – 31 BENEFITS]
Indicate the importance of the benefits you think you derived from evaluating your own teaching.

	1 High	2 Medium	3 Low
[21] a. I delivered the curriculum more effectively	☐	☐	☐
[22] b. I planned and carried instruction more effectively	☐	☐	☐
[23] c. I was enabled to give students appropriate work	☐	☐	☐
[24] d. I was enabled to find ways that students learn better	☐	☐	☐
[25] e. I realized strengths and weaknesses in my teaching	☐	☐	☐
[26] f. I became aware of strategies I used	☐	☐	☐
[27] g. I developed my skills as a teacher	☐	☐	☐
[28] h. I became aware of underpinning educational values	☐	☐	☐
[29] i. I helped colleagues and the school become effective	☐	☐	☐
[30] j. I developed myself	☐	☐	☐
[31] k. Other	☐		

[32 / TI-PERIOD]
When do you usually evaluate your own teaching? (Please tick only one)

Before the lesson ☐
During the lesson ☐
After the lesson ☐
Other ☐ 4

[33 / TI-WAY]
When you evaluate, do you evaluate your own teaching practice:

At fixed intervals ☐ Flexibly 2 ☐

[34 / INVOL. OTHERS]
When you evaluate your own teaching practice do you seek advice or help from others?

Yes ☐ 1 No ☐ 2

[35 / EFFECT. SOURCE]
If yes, which was the most effective source of help or advice? (Please tick only one)
Fellow teachers ☐ 1
Educational advisers ☐ 2
Headmaster ☐ 3
Other ☐ 4

[36 / ESTIMATE]
Estimate the level of effectiveness of your self-evaluation:

High ☐ 1 Medium 2 ☐ Low 3 ☐

[37 – 48 / PROCESSES]
Indicate the level of frequency of the following, as applicable to your own practice of self-evaluation.

	1 Always	2 Sometimes	3 Never
[37] a. Identify issue causing concern	☐	☐	☐
[38] b. Define appropriate information to collect	☐	☐	☐
[39] c. Determine criteria that will help in identifying progress	☐	☐	☐
[40] d. Discuss with pupils when obtaining information needed	☐	☐	☐
[41] e. Discuss own decisions with others in the school	☐	☐	☐
[42] f. Observe how other teachers handdle problems	☐	☐	☐
[43] g. Plan changes to overcome the issue that has caused concern	☐	☐	☐
[44] h. Reflect about the relation of information to own teaching	☐	☐	☐
[45] i. Discuss about underlying teaching /learning principles	☐	☐	☐
[46] j. Discuss self-evaluation techniques/ strategies	☐	☐	☐
[47] k. Monitor progress on the issue that has caused concern	☐	☐	☐
[48] l. Keep a record that provides formal evidence of self-evaluation	☐	☐	☐

[49 – 58 / PURPOSES]

Indicate how important you think are the following for the practice of teacher self-evaluation:

	1 High	2 Medium	3 Low
[49] a. It assists teachers' personal development	☐	☐	☐
[50] b. It monitors teachers' progress in performance	☐	☐	☐
[51] c. It makes teachers effective	☐	☐	☐
[52] d. It makes teachers accountable to others (pupils, parents)	☐	☐	☐
[53] e. It makes teachers accountable to government	☐	☐	☐
[54] f. It makes teachers professionally responsible	☐	☐	☐
[55] g. It identifies needs in teaching	☐	☐	☐
[56] h. It improves learning outcomes	☐	☐	☐
[57] i. It uncovers educational values underpinning teaching practice and students' learning	☐	☐	☐
[58] j. It uncovers professional values underpinning teachers' culture	☐	☐	☐

[59 – 64 / CONSTRAINTS]

To what extent do the following constrain you in evaluating your own teaching?

	1 High	2 Medium	3 Low
[59] a. More important issues require my attention/ energy	☐	☐	☐
[60] b. Self-evaluation takes too long	☐	☐	☐
[61] c. Professional values underlying staff culture	☐	☐	☐
[62] d. Staff attitudes towards self-evaluation	☐	☐	☐
[63] e. Effective teaching can be ensured through other ways/means	☐	☐	☐
[64] f. Other reasons	☐		

[65 / IMP. ASPECTS]

Which one of the following is the most important for teacher self-evaluation?

a. Teacher ability ☐ 1

or

b. Time available ☐ 2

or

c. Evaluating with colleagues ☐ 3

or

d. Teacher development ☐ 4

or

f. Other ☐ 5

D. Material Accompanying the Questionnaire (in Greek)

1. Letter to the Head teacher

Λάρισα, 10/1/2002

Κύριε Διευθυντά/ Κυρία Διευθύντρια

Σαν φοιτήτρια του Ινστιτούτου Εκπαίδευσης του Πανεπιστημίου του Λονδίνου για την απόκτηση διδακτορικού διπλώματος, μου έχει δοθεί η ευκαιρία να ερευνήσω τον χαρακτήρα και τις μορφές της αξιολόγησης και αυτοαξιολόγησης των Ελλήνων εκπαιδευτικών. Ενδιαφέρομαι ιδιαίτερα να διερευνήσω τις αντιλήψεις και τις στάσεις των Ελλήνων εκπαιδευτικών προς την αυτοαξιολόγηση των εκπαιδευτικών και τους τρόπους τους οποίους χρησιμοποιούν οι Έλληνες εκπαιδευτικοί όταν αυτοαξιολογούν την διδακτική τους πρακτική. Σαν εκπαιδευτικός η ίδια, με πολύχρονη εμπειρία και εν όψει των πρόσφατων μεταρρυθμίσεων που αναφέρονται στο πως πρέπει να αξιολογούνται οι εκπαιδευτικοί, θεωρώ σημαντικό να περιγραφεί ο τρόπος που εκπαιδευτικοί στον ελληνικό χώρο αξιολογούν τη δουλειά τους, να παρουσιαστούν οι παράγοντες που προκαλούν διαφοροποιήσεις στην πρακτική αξιολόγησης τους και να ερευνηθούν οι επιπτώσεις για την επαγγελματική τους μάθηση και βελτίωση.

Το ερωτηματολόγιο χρειάζεται λιγότερο από 20 λεπτά για να συμπληρωθεί. Οι περισσότερες ερωτήσεις μπορούν να απαντηθούν σημειώνοντας στο κατάλληλο κουτί, ή κυκλώνοντας την κατάλληλη απάντηση, μπορούν όμως οι εκπαιδευτικοί που θα το συμπληρώσουν να σχολιάσουν κάτι που θα θεωρήσουν αναγκαίο.

Το σχολείο σας επιλέχτηκε τυχαία και είναι ένα από τα 68 που παίρνουν μέρος στην έρευνα. Θα σας ήμουν ευγνώμων αν συμπληρώνατε το ερωτηματολόγιο και φροντίζατε για την διανομή του σε ορισμένους εκπαιδευτικούς του σχολείου σας. Παρακαλώ δώστε το **μόνο** σε εκπαιδευτικούς με ειδικότητα που αναφέρουν οι επισυναπτόμενες οδηγίες για να μην υπάρξει αλλοίωση στα αποτελέσματα. Επειδή όπως καταλαβαίνετε η ανάλυση των ερωτηματολογίων είναι χρονοβόρα και ο χρόνος που μπορεί να διατεθεί γι αυτό είναι προγραμματισμένος και περιορισμένος, θα σας παρακαλούσα να επιστρέψετε τα συμπληρωμένα ερωτηματολόγια όλα μαζί -κλεισμένα στο δικό του φάκελο το καθένα-το αργότερο μέχρι το πρώτο δεκαήμερο του Μαρτίου 2002.

Θα ήθελα να σας διαβεβαιώσω, και εσάς προσωπικά αλλά και τους εκπαιδευτικούς, ότι οι απαντήσεις όλων θα αντιμετωπισθούν με απόλυτη εχεμύθεια και ότι σε οποιαδήποτε δημοσιευμένη εργασία που θα προκύψει από αυτή την έρευνα κανένα σχολείο ή άτομο δεν θα κατονομασθεί ή θα είναι δυνατόν να αναγνωρισθεί.

Αν θα θέλατε, εσείς προσωπικά ή κάποιος εκπαιδευτικός, να πληροφορηθείτε για τα αποτελέσματα της έρευνας, παρακαλώ σημειώστε το όταν επιστρέψετε τα ερωτηματολόγια και θα ήμουν ευτυχής να σας στείλω μια περίληψη των αποτελεσμάτων μόλις αναλυθούν.

Σας ευχαριστώ θερμά.

Αλεξάνδρα Γούλα
Αγνοδίκης 6
Λάρισα, 41447

2. Administration Notes

ΟΔΗΓΙΕΣ

- Είναι σημαντικό οι εκπαιδευτικοί που θα συμπληρώσουν το ερωτηματολόγιο να καταλάβουν ότι η ανάλυση της έρευνας θα εστιάσει όχι σε μεμονωμένα άτομα ή σχολεία, αλλά σε ομάδες ατόμων και ότι δεν υπάρχει πιθανός τρόπος να αναγνωρισθούν σαν άτομα.

- Το γράμμα και τις οδηγίες συνοδεύουν:

  Ερωτηματολόγια για τους εκπαιδευτικούς
  Γράμματα για τους εκπαιδευτικούς και φάκελοι

  Παρακαλώ φροντίστε να παραλάβει ο κάθε εκπαιδευτικός που θα επιλεγεί ένα από όλα αυτά.

- Είναι βασικό για σημειωθεί ότι ΜΟΝΟ ένα ΔΕΙΓΜΑ των εκπαιδευτικών του σχολείου πρέπει να συμπληρώσει το ερωτηματολόγιο συμπεριλαμβανομένου και του εαυτού σας. Διανείμετε το ερωτηματολόγιο σε:
  Δύο νηπιαγωγούς αν το σχολείο σας είναι νηπιαγωγείο

  Δύο δασκάλους/ δασκάλες
  Ένα εκπαιδευτικό Φυσικής Αγωγής
  Ένα εκπαιδευτικό Ξένων Γλωσσών, αν το σχολείο σας είναι Δημοτικό

  Ένα εκπαιδευτικό Φυσικής Αγωγής
  Ένα εκπαιδευτικό θετικής κατεύθυνσης
  Ένα εκπαιδευτικό θεωρητικής κατεύθυνσης, αν το σχολείο σας είναι Γυμνάσιο

  Ένα εκπαιδευτικό Ξένων Γλωσσών
  Ένα εκπαιδευτικό θετικής κατεύθυνσης
  Ένα εκπαιδευτικό θεωρητικής κατεύθυνσης, αν το σχολείο σας είναι Λύκειο

- Παρακαλώ υπενθυμίστε στους εκπαιδευτικούς να συμπληρώσουν αν είναι δυνατόν το ερωτηματολόγιο κατά διάρκεια της παραμονή τους στο σχολείο. Το ερωτηματολόγιο πρέπει να συμπληρωθεί μεμονωμένα και ΟΧΙ ομαδικά.

- Συμπληρωμένα ερωτηματολόγια πρέπει να επιστραφούν σε σας **κλεισμένα** στον ατομικό τους φάκελο **μέσα σε δυο βδομάδες**. Παρακαλώ **επιστρέψτε τα κλεισμένα**, χρησιμοποιώντας τον απαντητικό φάκελο που σας στάλθηκε, αφού συμπεριλάβετε το δικό σας, αν είναι δυνατόν **μέχρι τις 10 Μαρτίου 2002**.

3. Letter to the Teachers

<u>Προς όλους τους εκπαιδευτικούς που συμπληρώνουν το ερωτηματολόγιο</u>

Αγαπητέ συνάδελφε,

Σαν φοιτήτρια για την απόκτηση διδακτορικού διπλώματος, μου έχει δοθεί η ευκαιρία να ερευνήσω την πρακτική της αξιολόγησης των Ελλήνων εκπαιδευτικών. Με ενδιαφέρουν ιδιαίτερα οι αντιλήψεις και στάσεις των Ελλήνων εκπαιδευτικών προς την αυτοαξιολόγηση και τους τρόπους τους οποίους χρησιμοποιούν οι Ελληνες εκπαιδευτικοί όταν αυτοαξιολογούν την διδακτική τους πρακτική. Σαν εκπαιδευτικός η ίδια και εν όψει των πρόσφατων μεταρρυθμίσεων που αναφέρονται στο πως πρέπει να αξιολογούνται οι εκπαιδευτικοί, θεωρώ σημαντικό να περιγραφεί ο τρόπος που οι εκπαιδευτικοί στον ελληνικό χώρο αξιολογούν τη διδακτική τους πρακτική, να παρουσιαστούν οι παράγοντες που προκαλούν διαφοροποιήσεις και να ερευνηθούν οι επιπτώσεις στην επαγγελματική τους βελτίωση.

Πιστεύω ότι αυτό το ερωτηματολόγιο σας δίνει μια ευκαιρία να διατυπώσετε τη γνώμη και τους προβληματισμούς σας δηλώνοντας τις απόψεις σας για την αξιολόγηση των εκπαιδευτικών και να καθορίσετε τι σημαίνει για σας η αυτοαξιολόγηση. Το ερωτηματολόγιο χρειάζεται περίπου 20 λεπτά να συμπληρωθεί και αυτό πρέπει να γίνει μεμονωμένα – η προσωπική σας εμπειρία και οι δικές σας απόψεις είναι αυτές που είναι σημαντικές και πολύτιμες. Δεν θα πρέπει ούτε να βιαστείτε ούτε να αφιερώσετε πολύ χρόνο όταν συμπληρώνετε το ερωτηματολόγιο. Οι περισσότερες ερωτήσεις μπορούν να απαντηθούν σημειώνοντας στο κατάλληλο κουτί, κυκλώνοντας την κατάλληλη απάντηση ή προσθέτοντας ένα μικρό σχόλιο. Σε κάθε περίπτωση, σιγουρευτείτε ότι απαντάτε στην ερώτηση.

Είναι σημαντικό να γνωρίζετε ότι δεν υπάρχει κανένας πιθανός τρόπος να αναγνωριστείτε προσωπικά. Μπορείτε να βεβαιωθείτε γι αυτό με το να επιστρέψετε το ερωτηματολόγιο σε κλειστό φάκελο. Ο φάκελος αυτός θα σταλεί κλειστός σε μένα. Αυτό σας εγγυάται απόλυτη εχεμύθεια. Οι απαντήσεις σας θα αναλυθούν ανεξάρτητα από το σχολείο που εργάζεστε. Η ταυτότητα του σχολείου σας θα χρησιμοποιηθεί μόνο για ερευνητικούς σκοπούς: για να διαβεβαιώσει ότι εκπαιδευτικοί από διάφορες γεωγραφικές περιοχές της Ελλάδας είχαν την ευκαιρία να εκφράσουν τις απόψεις τους για το θέμα που ερευνάται.

Επειδή όπως καταλαβαίνετε η ανάλυση των ερωτηματολογίων είναι χρονοβόρα και ο χρόνος που μπορεί να διατεθεί γι αυτή είναι περιορισμένος, θα σας παρακαλούσα να συμπληρώσετε και επιστρέψετε το ερωτηματολόγιο κλειστό, στο διευθυντή του σχολείου σας το αργότερο σε 15 μέρες.

Αν θα θέλατε να πληροφορηθείτε για τα αποτελέσματα της έρευνας, παρακαλώ ζητείστε από τον Διευθυντή/ Διευθύντρια να με ενημερώσει γι αυτό. Θα ήμουν ευτυχής να σας στείλω μια περίληψη των αποτελεσμάτων μόλις αναλυθούν.

Ευχαριστώ για τη βοήθεια και συνεργασία.

E. Material Accompanying the Questionnaire (translated in English)

1. Letter to the Headteacher

Larisa, 10 – 1 – 2002

Dear Headmaster,

I have been given the opportunity to research into the nature of teacher self-evaluation as part of a PhD undertaken at the Curriculum Studies department, Institute of Education, University of London. I am particularly interested in exploring Greek teachers' perceptions of and attitudes towards teacher self-evaluation and the ways they have been evaluating their own practice. Having experienced teaching myself for many years and in the light of the currently introduced educational reforms regarding the ways teachers should be evaluated, I find it important to describe how teachers evaluate their own teaching practice in the Greek context; to search for the factors that cause variations in teachers' self-evaluation behaviour; and to investigate the impact of Greek teachers' self-evaluation practice on their own learning and development.

The questionnaire should not take more than 20 minutes to complete. Most of the questions can be answered by circling or ticking the relevant answer; I would appreciate additional comments wherever you, or the teachers, feel appropriate.

Your school was randomly chosen and is one of the 68 taken part in this survey. I would be grateful if you could distribute this questionnaire to a few members of your staff -yourself included. Please give it only to teachers suggested from the enclosed guidelines, so the accuracy of results won't be affected. It would be appreciated if you could return the completed questionnaires to me, in the provided stamped addressed envelopes, by 10 March, 2002.

I would like to assure you, and the members of your staff, that all replies will be treated with the strictest confidence and no school or individual teacher will be identified in any published work resulting from this survey.

If you, or members of your staff, are interested in finding out about the study's results, please indicate it when returning the questionnaires and I will be pleased to send you a summary of results once processed.

With grateful thanks,

Alexandra Ghoula

2. Administration Notes

Instructions

- It is important that the teachers completing the questionnaire understand that there is no possible way that they can be identified, thus complete confidentiality is guaranteed.

- Accompanying this letter and notes you will find:
  Teacher questionnaires
  Teacher covering letters and envelopes

  Please make sure each selected teacher receives one of each.

- It is essential to note that only a sample of teaching staff should complete the questionnaire. Distribute the questionnaire to:

  Two nursery teachers
  If your school is a nursery school

  Two primary teachers
  One physical education teacher
  One foreign language teacher
  If your school is a primary school

  One physical education teacher
  One pure science teacher
  One exact science teacher
  If your school is a gymnasium

  One foreign language teacher
  One pure science teacher
  One exact science teacher
  If your school is a lyceum

- Please give teachers time to complete questionnaires (preferably during school day). They should complete them on their own and NOT in pairs or groups.

- Completed questionnaires should be returned to you in SEALED envelopes, within two weeks. Please return them SEALED to me, including your own, if possible by 10 March, 2002.

3. Letter to all teachers completing the questionnaire

Dear colleague,

I have been given the opportunity to research the nature of teacher self-evaluation as part of a PhD. I am particularly interested in exploring teachers' perceptions of and attitudes towards teacher self-evaluation that is, the ways you have been evaluating your own practice. Having experienced teaching myself and in the light of the currently introduced educational reforms regarding the ways teachers should be evaluated, I find it important to describe how Greek teachers evaluate their own teaching practice in the Greek context; to search for the factors that cause variations in teachers' self-evaluation behaviour; and to investigate the impact of this practice on their own learning and development.

I believe this questionnaire gives you a chance to raise your concerns regarding the evaluation of your own practice, define what self-evaluation means for you and state your views about the evaluation of teachers. It takes about 20 minutes to complete and should be done individually – it is your own view and experience of self-evaluation that is important. You should work through the items at a reasonable pace, neither rushing, nor considering each item for too long. The questions asked can be answered either by circling or ticking the relevant boxes, or writing a short comment. Either way, make sure you answer according to the instructions.

It is important that you know that there is no possible way of being identified. You can be reassured by returning your questionnaire to the headmaster, sealed in the envelope provided. Your questionnaire will be forwarded sealed to me; this ensures that your identity is fully protected. Your answer will be processed independent of the school in which you work. The school's identity will be used by this study only for research purposes -to ensure that teachers in several geographical areas in Greece have had a chance to express their views about the issue under investigation.

In case you would like to be informed about the results of the survey and the more detailed case studies once processed, please ask the headmaster to inform me about it.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP.

F. Short Questionnaires used in the Case Studies (in Greek)

Questionnaire 1: Exploring educational orientations

Θα ήθελα πολύ να γνωρίσω τις απόψεις σας για την ποιοτική διδασκαλία. Το ερωτηματολόγιο αυτό αποτελεί συμπληρωματικό κομμάτι εκείνου που έχετε ήδη συμπληρώσει.

Παρακαλώ κυκλώστε την κατάλληλη φράση και στις δύο στήλες. Παράδειγμα:

Στην τάξη μου αυτό είναι..... Αυτό είναι.....

Πάντα	Αρκετές φορές	Σπάνια	Καθόλου	Σημαντικό	Ασήμαντο	Δεν
Εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	για μένα	για μένα	ξέρω

A. Κάποιοι ισχυρίζονται ότι η διδασκαλία και η μάθηση είναι πιο αποτελεσματικές αν ο εκπαιδευτικός υιοθετήσει παιδοκεντρική προσέγγιση.

Στην τάξη μου αυτό είναι..... Αυτό είναι.....

Πάντα	Αρκετές φορές	Σπάνια	Καθόλου	Σημαντικό	Ασήμαντο	Δεν
Εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	για μένα	για μένα	ξέρω

B. Κάποιοι ισχυρίζονται ότι η διδασκαλία θα έπρεπε να χρησιμοποιείται για να αποκτήσουν κοινωνικές δεξιότητες/ αξίες οι μαθητές.

Στην τάξη μου αυτό είναι..... Αυτό είναι.....

Πάντα	Αρκετές φορές	Σπάνια	Καθόλου	Σημαντικό	Ασήμαντο	Δεν
Εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	για μένα	για μένα	ξέρω

Γ. Κάποιοι ισχυρίζονται ότι οι στόχοι διδασκαλίας θάπρεπε νάναι οι ίδιοι για όλους τους μαθητές.

Στην τάξη μου αυτό είναι..... Αυτό είναι.....

Πάντα	Αρκετές φορές	Σπάνια	Καθόλου	Σημαντικό	Ασήμαντο	Δεν
Εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	για μένα	για μένα	ξέρω

Δ. Κάποιοι ισχυρίζονται ότι όλοι οι στόχοι μπορούν να αξιολογηθούν με διαγωνίσματα και άλλες τεχνικές μέτρησης.

Στην τάξη μου αυτό είναι..... Αυτό είναι.....

Πάντα	Αρκετές φορές	Σπάνια	Καθόλου	Σημαντικό	Ασήμαντο	Δεν
Εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	για μένα	για μένα	ξέρω

E. Κάποιοι ισχυρίζονται ότι οι μαθητές θα έπρεπε να ενθαρρύνονται να μαθαίνουν ανεξάρτητοι μέσα από εξερεύνηση στις τάξεις.

Στην τάξη μου αυτό είναι..... Αυτό είναι.....

Πάντα	Αρκετές φορές	Σπάνια	Καθόλου	Σημαντικό	Ασήμαντο	Δεν
Εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	εμφανές	για μένα	για μένα	ξέρω

Ζ. Κάποιοι ισχυρίζονται ότι η αξιολόγηση των μαθητών που βασίζεται στην απομνημόνευση και στην κατανόηση χωρίς να ζητείται εφαρμογή, αποδίδει μια πλήρη εικόνα του γνωστικού επιπέδου των μαθητών.

Στην τάξη μου αυτό είναι..... Αυτό είναι.....

Πάντα Εμφανές	Αρκετές φορές εμφανές	Σπάνια εμφανές	Καθόλου εμφανές	Σωστό για μένα	Λάθος για μένα	Δεν ξέρω

Η. Κάποιοι ισχυρίζονται ότι τα επιτεύγματα των μαθητών πρέπει να αξιολογούνται συστηματικά σε σχέση με τους στόχους διδασκαλίας για να μπορέσει ο εκπαιδευτικός να διαγνώσει τα δυνατά και αδύνατα σημεία της διδασκαλίας του.

Στην τάξη μου αυτό είναι..... Αυτό είναι.....

Πάντα Εμφανές	Αρκετές φορές εμφανές	Σπάνια εμφανές	Καθόλου εμφανές	Σωστό για μένα	Λάθος για μένα	Δεν ξέρω

Θ. Κάποιοι ισχυρίζονται ότι μια υποστηρικτική και ευχάριστη ατμόσφαιρα στην τάξη συνεισφέρει στη μάθηση.

Στην τάξη μου αυτό είναι..... Αυτό είναι.....

Πάντα Εμφανές	Αρκετές φορές εμφανές	Σπάνια εμφανές	Καθόλου εμφανές	Σημαντικό για μένα	Ασήμαντο για μένα	Δεν ξέρω

Ι. Κάποιοι ισχυρίζονται ότι η επιμόρφωση πάνω στη εκπαιδευτική αξιολόγηση και στην απόκτηση δεξιοτήτων αξιολόγησης είναι αχρείαστη (μη απαραίτητη).

Αυτοί σκέφτονται... Αυτό είναι.....

Πάντα σαν εμένα	Αρκετές φορές σαν εμένα	Σπάνια σαν εμένα	Καθόλου σαν εμένα	Σωστό για μένα	Λάθος για μένα	Δεν ξέρω

Κ. Κάποιοι ισχυρίζονται ότι η πιο αξιόλογη γνώση είναι η επιστημονική και όχι αυτή που αποκτιέται μέσα από εμπειρία.

Αυτοί σκέφτονται... Αυτό είναι.....

Πάντα σαν εμένα	Αρκετές φορές σαν εμένα	Σπάνια σαν εμένα	Καθόλου σαν εμένα	Σημαντικό για μένα	Ασήμαντο για μένα	Δεν ξέρω

Σας ευχαριστώ που συμπληρώσατε το ερωτηματολόγιο.

Θα βοηθούσε πολύ αν μπορούσατε να αφιερώσετε χρόνο για να διευκρινίσετε κάποιες απαντήσεις σας συζητώντας μαζί μου. Αν το επιθυμείτε παρακαλώ επιστρέψτε το ερωτηματολόγιο σε μένα, ειδάλλως βάλτε το σε κλειστό φάκελο και επιστρέψτε το στον Διευθυντή.

Questionnaire 2: Exploring teachers' professionalism

Που θα τοποθετούσατε τον εαυτό σας στα παρακάτω ερωτήματα

1. Αισθάνεστε υπεύθυνος για την πρόοδο των μαθητών σας;
Ελάχιστα........./........./ ..../ ..../ .... Πάρα πολύ

2. Πιστεύετε ότι έχετε την ευθύνη να φροντίζετε για την επαγγελματική σας βελτίωση;
Ελάχιστα........./........./ ..../ ..../ .... Πάρα πολύ

3. Συζητάτε με τους συναδέλφους σας ζητήματα και προβλήματα που αφορούν τη διδασκαλία σας;
Ελάχιστα........./........./ ..../ ..../ .... Πάρα πολύ

Questionnaire 3: Exploring environmental conditions to understand job satisfaction, stress, work centrality

Που θα τοποθετούσατε τον εαυτό σας στα παρακάτω;

1. Το κλίμα που επικρατεί στο σχολείο μου αισθάνομαι ότι λειτουργεί για μένα:
Περιοριστικά /.........../ ..../........./........../........../Υποστηρικτικά

2. Το κλίμα στα σχολείο μου είναι για τους συναδέλφους μου:
Περιοριστικό /.........../ ..../........./........../........../Υποστηρικτικό

3. Οι συνάδελφοί μου με θεωρούν:
Μη συνεργάσιμο/......../......../......../......../...../ Αρκετά συνεργάσιμο

4. Για μένα οι επαγγελματικές σχέσεις είναι:
Ασήμαντες/.........../........./........./........./........./Πολύ σημαντικές

5. Όταν χρειάζεται να πάρω αποφάσεις για τη διδασκαλία μου αισθάνομαι ότι λειτουργώ:
Υπο έλεγχο/............/........../........./........../.,......./.Αυτόνομα

6. Πιστεύω ότι ένα ευχάριστο σχολικό κλίμα για τον τρόπο που διδάσκω είναι:
Άσχετο /........./.........../......../........./........../ Πολύ σχετικό

7. Αισθάνομαι ότι για να υπάρχει ένα ευχάριστο σχολικό κλίμα κάνω προσπάθειες:
Λίγες /.........../.........../.........../........./........../ Πάρα πολλές

Questionnaire 4: Exploring attitudes towards engagement in school-based training that focuses on evaluation issues

1. Πιστεύεις ότι πρέπει απαραίτητα να αυτοαξιολογείς τη δουλειά σου;
Yes *No*
2. Ενδιαφέρεσαι και μπορείς να συμμετάσχεις σε σεμινάρια με στόχο την ανάπτυξη δεξιοτήτων αξιολόγησης ;
Yes *No*
3. Έχεις ελεύθερο χρόνο για μια τέτοια συμμετοχή;
Yes *No*
4. Είναι σε θέση το σχολείο σου να μεριμνήσει (ή να παρέχει) τους απαραίτητους πόρους για τη λειτουργία ενός τέτοιου προγράμματος;
Yes *No*

G. Short Questionnaires used in the Case Studies (translated in English)

Questionnaire 1: Exploring educational orientations (Translated in English)

I would very much like to know your views about teaching. This questionnaire is complementary to the one you have already completed.

Please circle in both columns. For example:

In my classroom, this is .... This is something that is....

Always Apparent	*Mostly Apparent*	*Rarely Apparent*	*Never Apparent*	*Important to me*	*Not important to me*	*Don't know*

A. Some teachers say that teaching and learning are more effective if the teacher adopts a pupil-centred approach.

In my classroom, this is.... This is something that is....

Always Apparent	*Mostly Apparent*	*Rarely Apparent*	*Never Apparent*	*Important to me*	*Not important to me*	*Don't know*

B. Some teachers say that the content of teaching ought to be used for the development of thinking, social skills/ attitudes and values.

In my classroom, this is.... This is something that is....

Always Apparent	*Mostly Apparent*	*Rarely Apparent*	*Never Apparent*	*Important to me*	*Not important to me*	*Don't know*

C. Some teachers say that instructional goals should be the same for groups of pupils.

In my classroom, this is.... This is something that is....

Always Apparent	*Mostly Apparent*	*Rarely Apparent*	*Never Apparent*	*Important to me*	*Not important to me*	*Don't know*

D. Some teachers say that all goals can be assessed by tests and other measures.

In my classroom, this is.... This is something that is....

Always Apparent	*Mostly Apparent*	*Rarely Apparent*	*Never Apparent*	*Important to me*	*Not important to me*	*Don't know*

E. Some teachers say that independent and discovery learning ought to be encouraged in classrooms.

In my classroom, this is.... This is something that is....

Always Apparent	*Mostly Apparent*	*Rarely Apparent*	*Never Apparent*	*Important to me*	*Not important to me*	*Don't know*

F. Some people say that assessment based more on memorization and comprehension provides a full picture of pupils' cognitive level.

In my classroom, this is.... This is something that is....

Always Apparent	*Mostly Apparent*	*Rarely Apparent*	*Never Apparent*	*Right for me*	*Wrong for me*	*Don't know*

G. Some teachers say that pupils' achievements ought to be assessed systematically and be in line with instructional goals in order for the teacher to diagnose strengths and weaknesses in teaching.

In my classroom, this is.... This is something that is....

Always Apparent	*Mostly Apparent*	*Rarely Apparent*	*Never Apparent*	*Right for me*	*Wrong for me*	*Don't know*

H. Some teachers say that a supportive and pleasant classroom atmosphere is conducive to learning.

In my classroom, this is.... This is something that is....

Always Apparent	*Mostly Apparent*	*Rarely Apparent*	*Never Apparent*	*Important to me*	*Not important to me*	*Don't know*

I. Some teachers say that training on evaluation methodology and skills is unnecessary for the teacher evaluating teaching.

These teachers' think.... This is something that is....

Always Like mine	*Mostly like mine*	*Rarely like mine*	*Never like mine*	*Right for me*	*Wrong for me*	*Don't know*

J. Some teachers say that the worthiest knowledge is the one acquired formally and not from experience.

These teachers' think.... This is something that is....

Always Like mine	*Mostly like mine*	*Rarely like mine*	*Never like mine*	*Important to me*	*Not important to me*	*Don't know*

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.

It would be helpful if you could devote some time to discuss and clarify further your answers with me. If you wish that, please return the questionnaire to me; otherwise place it in the envelope provided, seal and return to the Head of your school.

Questionnaire 2: Exploring teachers' professionalism

In the following continuum where would you put yourself?

1. Do you feel accountable for your pupils' progress?
   A little………/………/ ………/ ………/ ……….. A lot

2. Do you feel accountable for your own professional development?
   A little………/………/ ………/ ………/ ……….. A lot

3. Do you keep in touch or discuss with fellow teachers problems and ideas?

   A little………/………/ ………/ ………/ ……….. A lot

Questionnaire 3: Exploring environmental conditions as these are related to job satisfaction and work centrality

In the following continuum where would you put yourself?

1. The climate in my school is for me:
Restrictive /…………/ ………/………/………../………../Supportive

2. The climate in my school is for my colleagues:
Restrictive /…………/…………/…………/………../………./Supportive

3. My colleagues regard me as:
Non cooperative/………/………/………/……..../……/Very cooperative

4. I feel that for my well-being collegial relations are:
Unimportant/…………/………/………/………/………/Very important

5. When decisions need to be made regarding my teaching I feel:
Controlled/…………../………../………/………../,……../Autonomus

6. I consider a pleasant school environment for my teaching as being:
Irrelevant /………/…………../………/………/…………/ Very relevant

7. The effort and energy I invest in contributing to a pleasant school climate is:
Little /…………/…………/…………/………/………../ A lot

Questionnaire 4: Exploring attitudes towards engagement in school-based training that focuses on evaluation issues

1. Do you think self-evaluation is a 'must' in your practice?
   Yes *No*
2. Are you interested and willing to engage in a program aiming to advance your evaluation skills?
   Yes *No*
3. Do you have the time needed for participating in such a program?
   Yes *No*
4. Can the school provide the resources needed for such a program?
   Yes *No*

H. Interview Schedule (in Greek)

Ονομα Σχολείου Ημερομηνία
Ονομα Εκπαιδευτικού
Ειδικότητα Χρονια Υπηρεσίας

Χρόνια αρχικών σπουδών Αλλα πτυχία

[Σας ευχαριστώ που δεχτήκατε να συμμετάσχετε σε αυτή την έρευνα. Οπως ήδη γνωρίζετε, αυτή η έρευνα στοχεύει να εξερευνήσει πως οι εκπαιδευτικοί στην Ελλάδα αυτοαξιολογούν την δουλειά τους, να περιγράψει τις απόψεις, εμπειρίες και επιθυμίες τους σε σχέση με την αξιολόγηση των εκπαιδευτικών. Αυτό που ζητείται από σας είναι να μοιραστείτε τις σκέψεις και τις εμπειρίες σας σχετικά με την αυτοαξιολογησή σας]

Γιατί θα λέγατε ο εκπαιδευτικός θάπρεπε (ή δεν θάπρεπε) να αυτοαξιολογεί την δουλειά του;

[Για να είναι αποτελεσματικός
Γιατί είναι επαγγελματική ευθύνη/ προσωπική ευθύνη
Για να αναπτυχθεί προσωπικά / επαγγελματικά
Για να διασφαλίσει την πρόοδο των μαθητών
Για να διαγνώσει δυνατά και αδύνατα σημεία στη διδασκαλία του
Για να μπορεί να λογοδοτεί στους μαθητές/ γονείς/ συναδέλφους/ διευθυντή/ κυβέρνηση/ κοινωνία
Για να μάθει ο ίδιος]

Μου λέτε λοιπόν, ότι οι εκπαιδευτικοί που αυτοαξιολογούν τη δουλειά τους λαβαίνουν πρώτιστα υπόψη τους ....

[Τι θα λέγατε για:
Τα δικά τους ενδιαφέροντα/ τα ενδιαφεροντα των παιδιών/ των γονιών/ της κυβέρνησης
Τις δικές τους προσδοκίες/ τις προσδοκίες των άλλων
Την επίτευξη των στόχων του αναλυτικού προγράμματος]

Εσείς;Ποιός θα λέγατε ότι είναι ο κύριος λόγος που σας ωθεί στην αυτοαξιολόγηση;

Αντιμετωπίζετε ή αντιμετωπίσατε στο παρελθόν εμπόδια που περιόρισαν την αυτοαξιολογική σας πρακτική;

[Θέματα χρόνου / Ενέργειας
Σχολικού περιβάλλοντος
Συμπεριφοράς / Ανάγκες παιδιών
Σχέσεων –τι θα λέγατε για θέματα όπως εμπιστοσύνη, ειλικρίνεια, έλεγχος διαχείρησης της τάξης
Οργάνωσης του σχολείου –τι θα λέγατε για εποπτικά υλικά/ άλλες διευκολύνσεις π.χ. φωτοτυπικά μηχανήματα
Γενικής οργάνωσης του σχολικού συστήματος
Προσωπικές ανάγκες και προβλήματα]

Αν κατάλαβα καλά, μου λέτε ότι αυτό που σας επηρρέασε περισσότερο ήταν ....;

Τι θα λέγατε για παράγοντες όπως

[Η σχολική μονάδα αυτή καθεαυτή
Η ηλικία των παιδιών
Το περιεχόμενο του μαθήματος που διδάσκει ο εκπαιδευτικός
Τα χρονια και η ποιότητα των αρχικών σπουδών και / ή της προσφερόμενης επιμόρφωσης
Δεξιότητες πούχει αποκτήσει ο εκπαιδευτικός πάνω στην αξιολόγηση
Προσωπικά χαρακτηριστικά του εκπαιδευτικού –ποιά ακριβώς;]

Τι ακριβώς κάνετε όταν αυτοαξιολογείτε τη δουλειά σας;

[Σχεδιάζετε την αυτοαξιολόγησή σας;
Θα λέγατε ότι η αυτοαξιολόγησή σας είναι ανοικτή ή προαποφασισμένη;
Γιατί είναι σημαντικό για σας να ακολουθείτε αυτή/ αυτές τις διαδικασίες;
Θα μπορούσε νομίζετε να γίνει και αλλιώς;
Άρα αυτοαξιολογείστε κυρίως πριν/ κατά τη διάρκεια/ μετά τη διδασκαλία, - σχεδόν όλη την ώρα
Σε τακτά χρονικά διαστήματα/ ελαστικά
Υπάρχει κάποιος ειδικός λόγος γι αυτό;]

Χρησιμοποιείτε κάποιες ειδικές μεθόδους/ υλικά/ εργαλεία, όταν αυτοαξιολογείστε;

[Σκέφτεστε για κάποιο συγκεκριμμένο στόχο
Κρατάτε σημειώσεις/ ημερολόγιο
Συμπληρώνετε ανοικτά ερωτηματολόγια αυτοαξιολόγησης/ τσεκαρετε έτοιμες απαντήσεις
Χρησιμοποιείτε ερωτηματολόγια μαθητών
Καταγράφετε γεγονότα
Βιντεοσκοπείτε μαθήματα
Ρωτάτα/ συζητάτε με άλλους συναδέλφους
Ζητάτε από συναδέλφους να παρακολουθήσουν τη διδασκαλία σας
Συζητάτε τις ανησυχίες/ προβλήματα σχετικά με την αυτοαξιολογησή σας στις συνεδριάσεις

Υπάρχουν κάποιοι ειδικοί λόγοι που σας κάνουν να χρησιμοποιείτε αυτές τις μεθόδους/ τα υλικά/ τα εργαλεία;

Είπατε πριν ότι εμπλέκετε (ή δεν εμπλέκετε) άλλους όταν αυτοαξιολογείστε. Γιατί το κάνετε (ή δεν το κάνετε);

Ποιούς ακριβώς εμπλέκετε περισσότερο; Υπάρχουν κάποιοι ειδικοί λόγοι γι αυτό;

[Τι θα λέγατε για την εμπλοκή ειδικών πχ. Πανεπιστημιακών/ εκπαιδευτικών συμβούλων /μαθητών
–θάπρεπε αυτά που λένε οι μαθητές για τη διδακτική κατάσταση που βιώνουν να λαμβάνονται υπόψην;
-Θάπρεπε να ρωτούνται από τον εκπαιδευτικό πού αυτοαξιολογείτε;
Ισως φανεί αστείο, αλλά υπάρχουν διαφορές στο να ερωτηθούν συνάδελφοι από το να ερωτηθούν μαθητές;]

Μιλώντας γενικά θα λέγατε ότι έχετε αλλάξει τον τρόπο που αυτοαξιολογείστε κατά την διάρκεια των χρόνων που διδάσκετε;

Νομίζετε ότι είναι σημαντικό για κάποιον να αλλάζει τον τρόπο που αυτοαξιολογείται; Γιατί;

I. Interview Schedule (translated in English)

School name: **Date of visit:**
Teacher name:
Teacher specialty: **Years of experience:**
Years of initial study **Other degrees:**

(Thank you for agreeing to take part in this study. As you already know, it is an exploratory study, aiming to find out how teachers in the Greek context evaluate their own teaching, to describe teachers views, experiences and wishes related to the evaluation of teachers. Would you be kind enough to share your thinking and experience about your self-evaluation practice please?)

(Content: reasoning, purposes, perceived benefits)

1. Why would you say a teacher should (or shouldn't) self-evaluate his/her own practice?
   Prompt: *to be effective*
   it's professional/ personal responsibility
   to develop personally/ professionally
   to deliver better teaching
   to ensure pupils' progress
   to diagnose strengths/weaknesses
   to account to pupils/parents/ colleagues/ head/ government/ society
   to learn
   other?
2. So you are saying that teachers evaluating their own practice take mostly into consideration….
   Prompt: *their own interests/ the interests of pupils/ parents/ government's*
   their own expectations, expectations of others
   the achievement of curricular aims/ targets
   other
3. What about you? What is the major reason that drives you to self-evaluate?

(Conditions – Consequences)

4. Do you, or did you in the past, find that there are constraints that limit your conduct of self-evaluation?
   [Prompts: *time/ energy*
   school environment
   pupils' behaviour/ needs
   relationships –what about trust, openness, control
   classroom management/ school organisation –what about equipment/ facilities
   educational system's organisation
   personal needs and problems
   other?

5. So you are saying that what affected you the most was…
   Prompt: *the setting*
   pupils' age
   subject-matter
   years and quality of study and /or training
   evaluation skills
   personal characteristics: which exactly ?
   other?

(Form – Processes)

6. **What exactly do you do when you self-evaluate?**
Prompt: *do you plan your self-evaluation*
would you say your self-evaluation is open-ended/ predetermined/ other
why is it important for you to follow this procedure
could it be done otherwise? How?
So, you self-evaluate before / during / after teaching, most of the time
at fixed intervals, flexibly
any particular reasons for that?

7. **Do you use any particular methods/ material/** tools, when conducting self-**evaluation?**
Prompt: *reflect deliberately*
write memos
fill self-evaluation questionnaires/ checklists
pupils questionnaires
diary
record of events
videotape lessons
ask / hold discussions with other teachers
ask colleagues to observe your teaching
bring your concerns regarding your self-evaluation to formal meetings
other

7a. **Any particular reasons for using these particular methods/ material/ tools?**

(Others' involvement)

8. **You mentioned before that you involve (or)(do not involve) others when you self-evaluate. Why do you do it (don't do it)?**

8a. **Who exactly do you involve? Any special reasons for that?**
Prompts: *What about specialists*
educational advisers
parents
pupils' –should pupils' accounts of the teaching situation be taken into consideration? Asked for teacher self-evaluation purposes? Why is that?
What about your colleagues' accounts? teachers from other schools?
It might seem silly but is there any difference in asking fellow teachers, from asking pupils? Why is that?

(Change process)

9. **Speaking generally would you say that you have changed your self-evaluation practice over the years you taught?**

9a. **Do you think it's important for one to change his/ her self-evaluation practice?**

9b. **Why is that?**

APPENDIX 3

A. Profile of the Stratified Sample
B. Statistical Evidence

A. Profile of the stratified sample

112 teachers with a range of teaching experience (1-4=14.3%, 5-11=27.7%, 12-24==35.7%, 25+=22.3% (at a=0.05: χ^2=1.149, df=3, p=0.797) filled the questionnaire. Depending on speciality they worked in primary and secondary settings (at a=0.05: χ^2=197.923, df=15, p=0.000, Cramer's V=0.767).

Tables 1, 2, 3 show that in the total sample: the majority (63.3%) were female teachers, 65 (58%) respondents had more than twelve years in the profession, 41 (36.6%) worked in primary schools.

Table 1. Gender per speciality

Gender	SPECIALITY						
	Nursery	Primary	Physical Ed.	Foreign Lang.	Pure science	Exact science	Total
Female	17 (23.9%)	11 (15.5%)	10 (14.1%)	15 (21.1%)	7 (9.9%)	11 (15.5%)	71(63.4%)
Male	1 (2.4%)	11 (26.8%)	7 (17.1%)	5 (12.5%)	11 (26.8%)	6 (14.6%)	41(36.6%)
TOTAL	18 (16.1%)	22 (19.6%)	17 (15.2%)	20 (17.9%)	18 (16.1%)	17 (15.2%)	112

NOTE: at a=0.05: χ^2=15.163, df=5, p=0.009, Cramer's V=0.368)

Table 2. Gender per years of teaching experience

Gender	YEARS of TEACHING EXPERIENCE				
	1-4 Years	5-11 Years	12-24 Years	25+ Years	TOTAL
Female	13 (18.3%)	16 (22.5%)	28 (39.4%)	14 (19.7%)	71 (63.4%)
Male	3 (7.3%)	16 (36.6%)	15 (36.6%)	12 (29.3%)	41 (36.6%)
TOTAL	16 (14.3%)	31 (27.7%)	40 (35.7%)	25 (22.3%)	112

NOTE: at a=0.05: χ^2=5.394, df=3, p=0.152

Table 3. Gender per school of current work

Gender	SCHOOL of CURRENT WORK				
	Nursery	Primary	Gymnasium	Lyceum	TOTAL
Female	17 (23.9%)	23 (32.4%)	16 (22.5%)	15 (21.1%)	71 (63.4%)
Male	1 (2.4%)	18 (43.9%)	10 (24.4%)	12 (29.3%)	41 (36.6%)
TOTAL	18 (16.1%)	41 (36.6%)	26 (23.2%)	27 (24.1%)	112

NOTE: at a=0.05: χ^2=9.172, df=3,p=0.027, Cramer's V=0.286

78 teachers (69.6%) had four years of initial study/ training to qualify as teachers (table 4); 34 teachers (30.4%) with two years of initial training were primary and nursery teachers (at a=0.05: χ^2=73.719, df=5, p=0.000, Cramer's V=0.0811).

Table 4. Gender per years of initial studies to qualify as a teacher

Gender	YEARS of INITIAL STUDIES		
	2 Years	4 Years	TOTAL
Female	22 (31%)	49 (69%)	71 (63.4%)
Male	12 (29.3%)	29 (70.7%)	41 (36.6%)
TOTAL	34 (30.4%)	78 (69.6%)	112

NOTE: at a=0.05: χ^2=0.36, df=1, p=1.000

Table 5. School per further training/ qualifying degrees

School	FURTHER TRAINING	
	'None'	Total
Nursery	12 (66.7%)	18 (16.1%)
Primary	22 (53.7%)	41 (36.6%)
Gymnasium	15 (57.7%)	26 (23.2%)
Lyceum	20 (74.1%)	27 (24.1%)
TOTAL	69 (61.6%)	112

NOTE: at a=0.05 χ^2=21.216, df=15, p=0.123

In the total sample 69 teachers (61.6%) reported they had not received any further training or education after employment: 43 (62.3 %) were female teachers (at a=0.05: χ^2=0.859, df=5, p=0.888), 50 (72.5%) had four years of initial studies (χ^2=23.994, df=5, p=0.000, Cramer's V=0.463). Among schools, teachers working in lyceum (20: 74.1%) had received the lowest further training (table 5); among specialities, 14 out of 17 (82.4%) physical education teachers had attended no further training or education, the highest attendance was in primary teachers: 16 out of 22 (72.7%) (Table 6).

Table 6. Speciality per further training/ qualifying degrees

SPECIALITY	FURTHER TRAINING /QUALIFYING DEGREES						
	Other Degree	SELDE	Maraslio	Master	PhD	NONE	Total
Nursery	5 (27.8%)	1 (5.6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	12 (66.7%)	18 (16.1
Primary	6 (27..3%)	6 (27.3%)	4 (18.2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	6 (27.3%)	22 (19.6
Physical Ed	2 (11.8%)	1 (5.9%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	14 (82.4%)	17 (15.2
ForeignLang.	1 (5%)	3 (15%)	0 (0%)	1 (5%)	0 (0%)	15 (75%)	20 (17.9
Pure science	3 (16.7%)	2 (11.1%)	0 (0%)	1 (5%)	1 (5.6%)	11 (61.1%)	18 16.1
Exact science	0 (0%)	3 (17.6%)	0 (0%)	2 (11.8%)	1 (5.9%)	11 (64.7%)	17 15.2
TOTAL	17 (15.2%)	16 (14.3%)	4 (3.6%)	4 (3.6%)	2 (1.8%)	69 (61.6%)	112

NOTE: at a=0.05: χ^2=45.166, df=25, p=0.005, Cramer's V=0.284

The statistical checking of independence χ^2 indicated that **there is** a statistical significant difference between the levels of speciality and years of teaching experience (at a=0.05, χ^2=26.776, df=15, p=0.029, Cramer's V=0.282) (table 7). Examining the

count of cases, the association lied on the answers of nursery and primary teachers with twenty-five or more years of experience. This means that half of the sample with a long teaching experience consisted of primary and nursery teachers. The difference was also due to the majority of pure science teachers (55.6%) having twelve to twenty-four years and exact science teachers (29.4%) being novice.

Table 7. Years of teaching experience per speciality

Experience	SPECIALITY						
	Nursery	Primary	Physical Ed	Foreign Lang	Pure science	Exact science	Total
1-4 Yrs	1 (6.3%)	3 (18.8%)	4 (25%)	2 (12.5%)	1 (6.3%)	5 (31.3%)	16 (14.3%)
5-11 Yrs	4 (12.9%)	3 (9.7%)	8 (25.8%)	7 (22.6%)	5 (16.1%)	4 (12.9%)	31 (27.7%)
12-24 Yrs	5 (12.5%)	8 (20.0%)	2 (5.0%)	10 (25%)	10 (25%)	5 (12.5%)	40 (35.7%)
25 + Yrs	8 (32.0%)	8 (32.0%)	3 (12.0%)	1 (4.0%)	2 (8.0%)	3 (12.0%)	25 (22.3%)
TOTAL	18 (15.1%	22 (19.6%	17 (15.2%)	20 (17.9%)	18 (16.1%)	17 (15.2%)	112

NOTE: at a=0.05: χ^2=26.776, df=15, p=0.029, Cramer's V=0.282

No statistical significant difference was noted between years of teaching experience and school of current work (at a=0.05: χ^2=14.058, df=9, p=0.121). Table 8 shows that the sample was distributed evenly in secondary schools but in the primary sector of education, primary teachers were more than double from nursery teachers.

Table 8. Years of teaching experience per school of current work

Experience	School of Current Work				
	Nursery	Primary	Gymnacium	Lyceum	Total
1-4 years	1 6.3%	4 25.0%	7 43.0%	4 25%	16 14.3%
5-11 years	4 12.9%	10 32.2%	7 22.6%	10 32.3%	31 27.7%
12-24 yrs	5 12.5%	16 40.0%	8 20.0%	11 27.5%	40 35.7%
25 + years	8 32.0%	11 44.0%	4 16.0%	2 8.0%	25 22.3%
TOTAL	18 16.1%	41 36.6%	26 23.2%	27 24.1%	112

NOTE: at a=0.05: χ^2=14.058, df=9, p=0.121

Table 9. Years of teaching experience per years of initial studies

Experience	Years of Initial Studies		
	2 Yrs	4 Yrs	Total
1-4 years	1 6.3%	15 93.8%	16 14.3%
5-11 years	5 16.1%	26 83.9%	31 27.7%
12-24 years	13 32.5%	27 67.5%	40 35.7%
25 + years	15 60.0%	10 40%	25 22.3%
TOTAL	34 30.4%	78 69.6%	112

NOTE: at a=0.05: χ^2=17.844, df=3, p=0.000, Cramer's V=0.399

A statistical significant difference was noted between 1) initial studies/ <u>or</u> 2) further training and teaching experience (1) χ^2=17.844, df=3, p=0.000, Cramer's V=0.399 and 2) χ^2=27.174, df=15, p=0.020, Cramer's V=0.284) (tables 9 and 10). Examining the count of cases between initial studies and experience the difference lied on experienced teachers (25+ years: 60%) with two initial training years and teachers

with less than twelve years in teaching (87.2%) but with four initial study years. This means that in the total sample the majority of teachers with less than 12 years had four years of initial studies, while in the group of very experienced teachers (25+ years) most teachers had two years. In the case of further training and teaching experience the association lied on the groups of teachers with more than 12 teaching years having attended a one-year training course (SELDE) and in the band 5-11 years in which 80.6% of teachers had received no further training. This means that 24.6% of experienced teachers had attended SELDE, while 80.6% of teachers with 5-11 years of experience had not attended any further training or held another degree.

Table 10. Years of teaching experience per further training/ degrees

Experience	FURTHER TRAINING/ DEGREES						
	Other Degree	SELDE	Maraslio	Master	PhD	NONE	Total
1-4 Yrs	2 (12.5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (12.5%)	1 (6.3%)	11 (68.5%)	16 (14.3%)
5-11 Yrs	3 (9.7%)	0 (0%)	2 (6.5%)	1 (3.2%)	0 (0%)	25 (80.6%)	31 (27.7%)
12-24 Yrs	8 (20.0%)	9 (22.5%)	2 (5.0%)	1 (2.5%)	0 (0%)	20 (50.0%)	40 (35.7%)
25 + Yrs	4 (16.0%)	7 (28.0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (4.0%)	13 (52.0%)	25 (22.3%)
TOTAL	17 (15.2%)	16 (14.3%)	4 (3.6%)	4 (3.6%)	2 (1.8%)	69 (61.6%)	112

NOTE: at a=0.05: χ^2=27.174, df=15, p=0.020, Cramer's V=0.284

B. Statistical evidence

EFFECTS AND INTERACTION:

Tables I, II, III and IV, present the means, standard error and a 95% confidence interval for the means of F1 and F3 (Q7) for each level of teaching experience and each school.

Table I. Effect of teaching experience on 'professional awareness' (Q7F1)

Years of teaching experience	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	1.607	.179	1.252	1.963
5-11	1.574	.115	1.346	1.803
12-24	1.656	.097	1.464	1.848
>/ = 25	1.602	.137	1.330	1.875

Table II. Effect of school on 'professional awareness' (Q7F1)

School of current work	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nursery school	1.433	.180	1.076	1.791
Primary school	1.669	.099	1.473	1.866
Gymnasium	1.645	.114	1.420	1.871
Lyceum	1.692	.136	1.423	1.961

Table III. Effect of teaching experience on 'learning outcomes' (Q7F3)

Years of teaching experience	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	1.488	.173	1.144	1.832
5-11	1.396	.111	1.175	1.617
12-24	1.447	.094	1.261	1.632
>/ = 25	1.494	.133	1.230	1.758

Table IV. Effect of school on 'learning outcomes' (Q7F3)

School of current work	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nursery school	1.193	.174	.847	1.539
Primary school	1.558	.096	1.367	1.748
Gymnasium	1.397	.110	1.179	1.616
Lyceum	1.677	.131	1.416	1.937

Tables V and VI, present the mean of F1 and F3 (Q7) for all combinations of 'teaching experience' and 'school'.

Table V. Interaction of teaching experience x school for professional awareness (Q7F1)

Years of teaching experience	School of current work	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	Nursery school	1.000	.559	-.110	2.110
	Primary school	1.875	.279	1.320	2.430
	Gymnasium	1.679	.211	1.259	2.098
	Lyceum	1.875	.279	1.320	2.430
5-11	Nursery school	1.333	.323	.693	1.974
	Primary school	1.550	.177	1.199	1.901
	Gymnasium	1.714	.211	1.295	2.134
	Lyceum	1.700	.177	1.349	2.051
12-24	Nursery school	1.400	.250	.904	1.896
	Primary school	1.844	.140	1.566	2.121
	Gymnasium	1.813	.198	1.420	2.205
	Lyceum	1.568	.169	1.234	1.903
>/= 25	Nursery school	2.000	.198	1.608	2.392
	Primary school	1.409	.169	1.075	1.744
	Gymnasium	1.375	.279	.820	1.930
	Lyceum	1.625	.395	.840	2.410

Table VI. Interaction of teaching experience x school for 'learning outcomes' (Q7F3)

Years of teaching experience	School of current work	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	Nursery school	1.000	.541	-7.411E-02	2.074
	Primary school	1.750	.271	1.213	2.287
	Gymnasium	1.619	.204	1.213	2.025
	Lyceum	1.583	.271	1.046	2.120
5-11	Nursery school	1.222	.312	.602	1.842
	Primary school	1.400	.171	1.060	1.740
	Gymnasium	1.429	.204	1.023	1.835
	Lyceum	1.533	.171	1.194	1.873
12-24	Nursery school	1.133	.242	.653	1.614
	Primary school	1.688	.135	1.419	1.956
	Gymnasium	1.208	.191	.829	1.588
	Lyceum	1.758	.163	1.434	2.081
>/= 25	Nursery school	1.417	.191	1.037	1.796
	Primary school	1.394	.163	1.070	1.718
	Gymnasium	1.333	.271	.796	1.870
	Lyceum	1.833	.383	1.074	2.593

NOTE: The coefficient of multiple determination of the linear model for F1 was R^2=0.129 and for F3 was R^2=0.130.

Table VII presents the mean, the equivalent standard error and a 95% confidence interval for the mean of F2 (Q7) for each level of teaching experience.

Table VII. The effect of teaching experience on 'accountability' (Q7F2)

Years of teaching experience	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	1.952	.169	1.618	2.287
5-11	1.910	.108	1.696	2.125
12-24	1.998	.091	1.817	2.178
>= 25	1.914	.129	1.657	2.170

Table VIII presents the mean, the equivalent standard error and a 95% confidence interval for the mean of F2 (Q7) for each school.

Table VIII. Effect of school on 'accountability' (Q7F2)

			95% Confidence Interval	
School current work	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nursery school	1.628**b**	.169	1.292	1.935
Primary school	2.040**ab**	.093	1.855	2.225
Gymnasium	1.909**ab**	.107	1.697	2.121
Lyceum	2.197**a**	.128	1.943	2.450

NOTE. 1. Means that are followed by the same letter do not differ statistically significantly at significance level a=0.05.

2. The coefficient of multiple determination of the linear model for F2 was $R^2=0.279$.

Tables IX, X, XI and XII, present the means, standard error and a 95% confidence interval for the means of F1 and F2 (Q12) for each level of teaching experience and each speciality.

Table IX. Impact of teaching experience on 'reflecting' (Q12F1)

			95% Confidence Interval	
Years of teaching experience	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	1.572	.142	1.289	1.855
5-11	1.509	.092	1.325	1.692
12-24	1.457	.087	1.284	1.630
/= 25	1.597	.122	1.355	1.840

Table X. Impact of speciality on 'reflecting' (Q12F1)

			95% Confidence Interval	
Specialty	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nursery teacher	1.526	.152	1.224	1.827
Primary teacher	1.375	.113	1.151	1.599
Physical education teacher	1.556	.129	1.298	1.813
Foreign languages teacher	1.648	.155	1.339	1.957
Pure science teacher	1.650	.158	1.336	1.964
Exact science teacher	1.449	.117	1.216	1.681

Table XI. Impact of teaching experience on 'judging and recording' (Q12F2)

			95% Confidence Interval	
Years of teaching experience	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	1.606	.142	1.323	1.889
5-11	1.831	.093	1.647	2.015
12-24	1.850	.087	1.677	2.023
>/= 25	1.639	.122	1.396	1.882

Table XII. Impact of speciality on 'judging and recording' (Q12F2)

			95% Confidence Interval	
Specialty	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nursery teacher	1.574	.152	1.272	1.876
Primary teacher	1.693	.113	1.468	1.917
Physical education teacher	1.852	.130	1.594	2.109
Foreign languages teacher	1.859	.156	1.549	2.168
Pure science teacher	1.681	.158	1.367	1.996
Exact science teacher	1.730	.117	1.498	1.963

Tables XIII and XIV, present this interaction for the mean of F1 and F2 (Q12) for all combinations of levels of 'teaching experience' and 'speciality'.

Table XIII. Interaction of teaching experience x speciality for 'reflecting' (Q12F1)

Years of teaching experience	Specialty	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	Nursery teacher	1.000	.471	6.360E-02	1.936
	Primary teacher	1.333	.272	.793	1.874
	Physical education teacher	1.500	.236	1.032	1.968
	Foreign languages teacher	2.000	.333	1.338	2.662
	Pure science teacher	2.000	.471	1.064	2.936
	Exact science teacher	1.600	.211	1.181	2.019
5-11	Nursery teacher	1.778	.272	1.237	2.318
	Primary teacher	1.333	.272	.793	1.874
	Physical education teacher	1.667	.167	1.336	1.998
	Foreign languages teacher	1.524	.178	1.170	1.878
	Pure science teacher	1.333	.211	.915	1.752
	Exact science teacher	1.417	.236	.948	1.885
12-24	Nursery teacher	1.533	.211	1.115	1.952
	Primary teacher	1.375	.167	1.044	1.706
	Physical education teacher	1.500	.333	.838	2.162
	Foreign languages teacher	1.400	.149	1.104	1.696
	Pure science teacher	1.600	.149	1.304	1.896
	Exact science teacher	1.333	.211	.915	1.752
>/= 25	Nursery teacher	1.792	.167	1.461	2.123
	Primary teacher	1.458	.167	1.127	1.789
	Physical education teacher	1.556	.272	1.015	2.096
	Foreign languages teacher	1.667	.471	.730	2.603
	Pure science teacher	1.667	.333	1.005	2.329
	Exact science teacher	1.444	.272	.904	1.985

Table XIV. Interaction of experience x speciality for 'judging and recording' (Q12F2)

Years of teaching experience	Specialty	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	Nursery teacher	1.000	.472	6.228E-02	1.938
	Primary teacher	1.500	.272	.959	2.041
	Physical education teacher	1.938	.236	1.469	2.406
	Foreign languages teacher	2.000	.334	1.337	2.663
	Pure science teacher	1.500	.472	.562	2.438
	Exact science teacher	1.700	.211	1.281	2.119
5-11	Nursery teacher	1.833	.272	1.292	2.375
	Primary teacher	1.833	.272	1.292	2.375
	Physical education teacher	1.844	.167	1.512	2.175
	Foreign languages teacher	1.786	.178	1.431	2.140
	Pure science teacher	1.750	.211	1.331	2.169
	Exact science teacher	1.937	.236	1.469	2.406
12-24	Nursery teacher	1.650	.211	1.231	2.069
	Primary teacher	1.625	.167	1.293	1.957
	Physical education teacher	2.125	.334	1.462	2.788
	Foreign languages teacher	2.150	.149	1.853	2.447
	Pure science teacher	1.850	.149	1.553	2.147
	Exact science teacher	1.700	.211	1.281	2.119
>/= 25	Nursery teacher	1.813	.167	1.481	2.144
	Primary teacher	1.813	.167	1.481	2.144
	Physical education teacher	1.500	.272	.959	2.041
	Foreign languages teacher	1.500	.472	.562	2.438
	Pure science teacher	1.625	.334	.962	2.288
	Exact science teacher	1.583	.272	1.042	2.125

NOTE: The coefficient of multiple determination of the GLM was for F1: R^2=0.136 and for F2: R^2=0.162.

Table XV presents the mean, the equivalent standard error and a 95% confidence interval for the mean of F3 (Q12) for each speciality.

TABLE XV. Impact of teaching experience on 'interactive dialogue' (Q12F3)

Years of teaching experience	Mean	Std. Error	90% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	1.703**b**	.132	1.484	1.952
5-11	2.108**a**	.086	1.966	2.250
12-24	2.083**ab**	.080	1.950	2.217
>/= 25	2.097**ab**	.113	1.909	2.285

NOTE: Means that are followed by the same letter do not differ statistically significantly at significance level a=0.10.

Table XVI presents the mean, the equivalent standard error and a 95% confidence interval for the mean of F3 (Q12) for each speciality.

Table XVI. Impact of speciality on 'interactive dialogue' (Q12F2)

Specialty	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nursery teacher	1.919	.140	1.640	2.198
Primary teacher	2.066	.104	1.858	2.273
Physical education teacher	1.993	.120	1.755	2.231
Foreign languages teacher	1.894	.144	1.608	2.180
Pure science teacher	2.050	.146	1.759	2.341
Exact science teacher	2.065	.108	1.850	2.280

Table XVII presents the mean, the equivalent standard error and a 95% confidence interval for the mean of F3 (Q12) for all combinations of levels of factors 'teaching experience' and 'speciality'.

Table XVII. Interaction of teaching experience x speciality for 'interactive dialogue' (Q12F3)

Years of teaching experience	Specialty	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	Nursery teacher	1.667	.436	.800	2.534
	Primary teacher	1.667	.252	1.166	2.167
	Physical education teacher	1.917	.218	1.483	2.350
	Foreign languages teacher	1.833	.308	1.220	2.446
	Pure science teacher	1.333	.436	.466	2.200
	Exact science teacher	1.800	.195	1.412	2.188
5-11	Nursery teacher	2.000	.252	1.499	2.501
	Primary teacher	2.222	.252	1.722	2.723
	Physical education teacher	2.000	.154	1.693	2.307
	Foreign languages teacher	2.143	.165	1.815	2.471
	Pure science teacher	2.200	.195	1.812	2.588
	Exact science teacher	2.083	.218	1.650	2.517
12-24	Nursery teacher	1.800	.195	1.412	2.188
	Primary teacher	2.167	.154	1.860	2.473
	Physical education teacher	2.500	.308	1.887	3.113
	Foreign languages teacher	1.933	.138	1.659	2.207
	Pure science teacher	2.167	.138	1.893	2.441
	Exact science teacher	1.933	.195	1.546	2.321
>/= 25	Nursery teacher	2.208	.154	1.902	2.515
	Primary teacher	2.208	.154	1.902	2.515
	Physical education teacher	1.556	.252	1.055	2.056
	Foreign languages teacher	1.667	.436	.800	2.534
	Pure science teacher	2.500	.308	1.887	3.113
	Exact science teacher	2.444	.252	1.944	2.945

NOTE: The coefficient of multiple determination of the linear model for F3 was R^2=0.239.

Tables XVIII, XIX, XX, XXI, XXII and XXIII present the means, standard error and a 95% confidence interval for the means of F1, F2 and F3 (Q13) for each level of teaching experience and each school.

Table XVIII. Effect of teaching experience on 'professional responsibility' (Q13F1)

Years of teaching experience	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	1.348	.168	1.014	1.682
5-11	1.373	.108	1.158	1.587
12-24	1.465	.091	1.284	1.646
>/= 25	1.398	.129	1.142	1.655

Table XIX. Effect of school on 'professional responsibility' (Q13F1)

School of current work	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nursery school	1.238	.169	.902	1.574
Primary school	1.400	.094	1.214	1.586
Gymnasium	1.469	.107	1.257	1.681
Lyceum	1.478	.127	1.225	1.731

Table XX. Effect of teaching experience on 'teacher development' (Q13F2)

Years of teaching experience	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	1.783	.162	1.461	2.106
5-11	2.012	.104	1.805	2.218
12-24	2.031	.088	1.858	2.205
>/= 25	1.921	.124	1.674	2.168

Table XXI. Effect of school on 'teacher development' (Q13F2)

School of current work	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nursery school	1.998	.163	1.675	2.322
Primary school	1.945	.090	1.767	2.124
Gymnasium	1.942	.103	1.738	2.146
Lyceum	1.862	.123	1.618	2.106

Table XXII. Effect of teaching experience on 'improvement of students' learning' (Q13F3)

Years of teaching experience	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	1.509	.155	1.201	1.817
5-11	1.490	.099	1.292	1.687
12-24	1.365	.084	1.198	1.532
>/= 25	1.273	.119	1.037	1.509

Table XXIII. Effect of school on 'improvement of students' learning' (Q13F3)

School of current work	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nursery school	1.217	.156	.907	1.526
Primary school	1.446	.086	1.275	1.617
Gymnasium	1.576	.098	1.381	1.771
Lyceum	1.398	.117	1.165	1.631

Tables XXIV, XXV, XXVI present the means, the equivalent standard error and a 95% confidence interval for the mean of F1, F2 and F3 (Q13) for all combinations of levels of 'teaching experience' and 'school'.

Table XXIV. Interaction of experience x school for 'professional responsibility' (Q13F1)

Years of teaching experience	School of current work	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	Nursery school	1.000	.525	-4.247E-02	2.042
	Primary school	1.500	.263	.979	2.021
	Gymnasium	1.393	.198	.999	1.787
	Lyceum	1.500	.263	.979	2.021
5-11	Nursery school	1.083	.303	.481	1.685
	Primary school	1.400	.166	1.070	1.730
	Gymnasium	1.607	.198	1.213	2.001
	Lyceum	1.400	.166	1.070	1.730
12-24	Nursery school	1.400	.235	.934	1.866
	Primary school	1.450	.136	1.181	1.719
	Gymnasium	1.375	.186	1.006	1.744
	Lyceum	1.636	.158	1.322	1.951
>/=25	Nursery school	1.469	.186	1.100	1.837
	Primary school	1.250	.158	.936	1.564
	Gymnasium	1.500	.263	.979	2.021
	Lyceum	1.375	.371	.638	2.112

Table XXV Interaction of teaching experience x school for 'teacher development' (Q13F2)

Years of teaching experience	School of current work	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	Nursery school	1.500	.506	.495	2.505
	Primary school	2.063	.253	1.560	2.565
	Gymnasium	1.821	.191	1.441	2.201
	Lyceum	1.750	.253	1.247	2.253
5-11	Nursery school	2.250	.292	1.670	2.830
	Primary school	1.925	.160	1.607	2.243
	Gymnasium	1.821	.191	1.441	2.201
	Lyceum	2.050	.160	1.732	2.368
12-24	Nursery school	2.150	.226	1.700	2.600
	Primary school	1.953	.127	1.702	2.204
	Gymnasium	2.250	.179	1.895	2.605
	Lyceum	1.773	.153	1.470	2.076
>/=25	Nursery school	2.094	.179	1.738	2.449
	Primary school	1.841	.153	1.538	2.144
	Gymnasium	1.875	.253	1.372	2.378
	Lyceum	1.875	.358	1.164	2.586

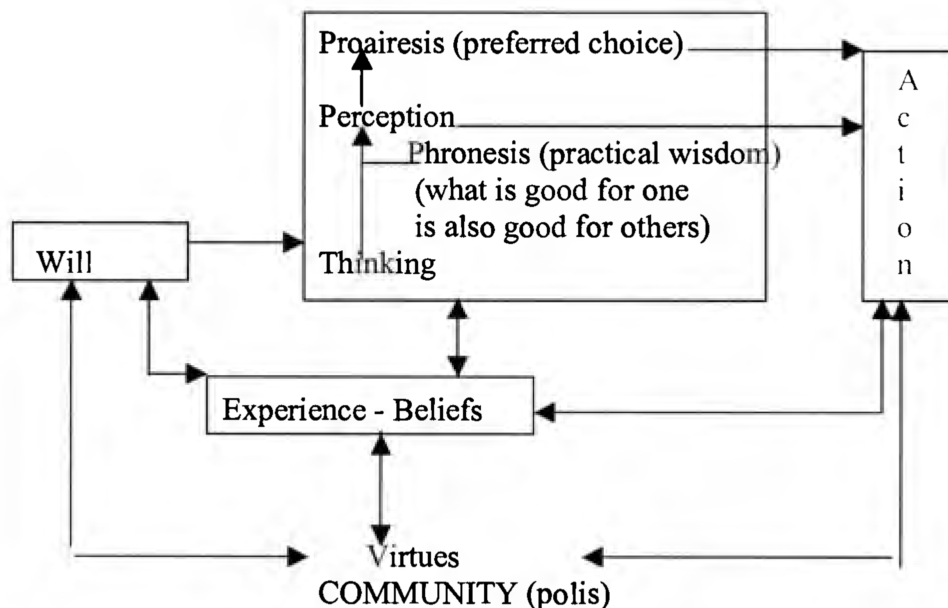
Table XXVI Interaction of experience x school for improvement of students' learning (Q13F3)

Years of teaching experience	School of current work	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-4	Nursery school	1.000	.484	3.931E-02	1.961
	Primary school	1.375	.242	.895	1.855
	Gymnasium	1.786	.183	1.423	2.149
	Lyceum	1.875	.242	1.395	2.355
5-11	Nursery school	1.167	.279	.612	1.721
	Primary school	1.750	.153	1.446	2.054
	Gymnasium	1.643	.183	1.280	2.006
	Lyceum	1.400	.153	1.096	1.704
12-24	Nursery school	1.200	.216	.770	1.630
	Primary school	1.567	.125	1.319	1.815
	Gymnasium	1.375	.171	1.035	1.715
	Lyceum	1.318	.146	1.029	1.608
>/=25	Nursery school	1.500	.171	1.160	1.840
	Primary school	1.091	.146	.801	1.381
	Gymnasium	1.500	.242	1.020	1.980
	Lyceum	1.000	.342	.321	1.679

NOTE: The coefficient of multiple determination of the linear model for F1 was R^2=0.063, for F2 was R^2=0.097, for F3 was R^2=0.208.

APPENDIX 4

Aristotle sees moral life as the "rational exercise of virtues within socio-political life" (Cooper, 1998:29). He refers to virtues as 'ethikai aretai' which should not be translated as 'moral virtues' but as meaning 'excellence of character' conducive to thrive within the 'polis' (city or state) (Cooper, 1998; Bohme, 2001). Aristotle refers to virtues as 'topoi', which is interpreted to mean 'common references' or 'moral discourse' (Cooper, 1998; Bohme, 2001). For instance, the virtue of justice, when conceived as 'topos', is "the ability to allow each to receive what is due without regard for one's interests". In this context, demanding justice means not simply claiming, but perceiving one's rights in relation to those of others (Bohme, 2001:53). Magnanimity as a 'topos' means "being able to discern one's own interests and allowing others to gain recognition" which implies resisting demands, temptations, mastering oneself (ibid:53). Virtues are preconditions of one's moral conception of oneself, of one's life as a 'human being', thus characterising the 'free man' within the community (Bohme, 2001:53). The following figure presents Aristotle's views in a simplified schema with regards to feelings, thinking, action and virtues and their interrelationships. This representation of philosophical thought helps to indicate my interpretations and analysis of the findings in this study. It highlights my stance towards the teachers and the phenomena that I studied.



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