PERSPECTIVES OF PRESERVICE TEACHERS ON THE ROLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN QUEENSLAND: AN INTERPRETIVIST STUDY

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M Education

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Faculty of Arts
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University of Adelaide
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Abstract

This thesis examines the perspectives of one cohort of secondary school preservice teachers regarding the roles of secondary school teachers as they explained their professional world both before and following a school based supervised professional experience.

A total of thirty-five participants (twenty-nine females and six males), aged between 21 and 48 years old, were involved in the study. All participants were enrolled in nationally accredited Initial Teacher Education (ITE) programs which led to qualifications to teach into secondary schooling curriculum areas. The participants were variously enrolled in the following programs: the Combined Degree Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Science, the Combined Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Arts, and the Combined Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Business or the Graduate Diploma in Education (Secondary).

This qualitative study adopted an approach that focussed on the perspectives of the research participants, and how their social reality regarding the roles of teachers in Queensland secondary schools’ is constructed. Through the interpretivist paradigm of symbolic interactionism, and reflecting the key principles of grounded theory methodology, the data collection drew on research frameworks and methods proposed by Crotty (1998), O’Donoghue (2007), Punch (2000) and Seidman (2006), and involved undertaking semi-structured interviews with participants. Additionally, the project was positioned within an historical socio-political perspective of both schooling and teacher education in Queensland. This approach, drawing heavily on the works of Britzman (1986), Furlong (2012), Lortie (1975), Weber & Mitchell (1995) and Zemke (2007) and provided a longitudinal examination of the precursor influences that collaboratively contributed to the formation of contemporary perspectives of preservice teachers in Queensland.

The various qualitative analysis processes proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1990) underpinned the interpretation of the data. These coding processes are foundational to the grounded theory aligned methodology that informs this study. Following a process of open coding and line-by-line coding of the data, four main themes emerged from the data. From these themes, three core propositions were derived. These propositions are:
• It was the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context.

• It was the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm.

• It was the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people.

Referencing earlier work undertaken by Cross & Ndofirepi (2015), Sumara & Luce-Kaplar (1996) and Wright & Tuska (1968), in conjunction with the three core propositions identified within the data, a model was developed and referred to as the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework. This framework highlights the changing perspectives that preservice teachers report as they progress through their initial teacher education.
List of Abbreviations

ABS  Australian Bureau of Statistics
ACARA  Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority
ACDE  Australian Council of Deans of Education
ACER  Australian Council of Educational Research
AEU  Australian Education Union
AITSL  Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership
AO  Order of Australia
APST  Australian Professional Standards for Teachers
ATAR  Australian Tertiary Admissions Rank
C2C  Curriculum into the Classroom
CAE  College of Advanced Education
CARE  Committee against Regressive Education
CASPer  Computer-based Assessment for Sampling Personal Characteristics
DET  Department of Employment and Training
GAMSAT  Graduate Australian Medical School Admissions Test
HPE  Health and Physical Education
ITE  Initial Teacher Education
MACOS  Man: A Course of Study
NADPE  National Directors of Professional Experience
NAPLAN  National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy
NEA  National Education Association
OECD  Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OP  Overall Position
PISA  Program for International Student Assessment
QC  Queen’s Counsel
QCT  Queensland College of Teachers
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>QSE 2010</td>
<td>Queensland State Education Project 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEMP</td>
<td>Social Education Materials Project</td>
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<tr>
<td>SETE</td>
<td>Studying the Effectiveness of Teacher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEW</td>
<td>Social-Emotional Wellbeing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPE</td>
<td>Supervised Professional Experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STOP</td>
<td>Society to Outlaw Pornography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCAT</td>
<td>Teacher Capability Assessment Tool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEMAG</td>
<td>Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFA</td>
<td>Teach for America</td>
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<td>TFA</td>
<td>Teach for Australia</td>
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<tr>
<td>TIMMS</td>
<td>Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study</td>
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<tr>
<td>TNE</td>
<td>Teachers for a New Era</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>USC</td>
<td>University of the Sunshine Coast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VET</td>
<td>Vocational Education and Training</td>
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Statement of Original Authorship

I certify that this work contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in my name in any university or other tertiary institution and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text. In addition, I certify that no part of this work will, in the future, be used in a submission in my name for any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution without the prior approval of the University of Adelaide and where applicable, any partner institution responsible for the joint award of this degree.

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I also give permission for the digital version of my thesis to be made available on the web, via the University’s digital research repository, the Library Search and also through web search engines, unless permission has been granted by the University to restrict access for a period of time.

I acknowledge the support I have received for my research through the provision of an Australian Government Research Training Program Scholarship.

Signature: _______________________

Date: 16 January, 2017
Acknowledgements

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To my colleagues and friends within the School of Education at USC and the School of Education at the University of Adelaide, who have encouraged and supported me over many years, thank you. Your generosity of spirit, empathy, and wise counsel has been much appreciated.

To my friends and family without whom I would not have persevered in this endeavour. You have sacrificed much in order to allow me to pursue this goal. Your sacrifices have not gone unnoticed. I thank you from the bottom of my heart.

And finally, to the preservice teachers who volunteered to participate in this study. Thank you for allowing me into your world and trusting me with your thoughts, feelings, and confidences. I am eternally grateful.
Chapter 1
Introduction

This chapter begins by providing an overview of the study and establishes the research area and topic and the general research question, along with the research guiding questions that form its basis. Following this, the chapter presents the conceptual framework underpinning the research question and details the purpose and the significance of the study. An outline stating the researcher’s personal position is presented, as this is an essential element of contextualising the research. Finally, the chapter concludes with an outline for the remainder of this thesis.

1.1 Overview of the study: The research area, topic and research questions

The research focus for this study is preservice teacher education, sometimes referred to as initial teacher education (ITE). Preservice teacher education in all Australian states, including Queensland, has a long and multi-faceted history (Anderson, 1960; Aspland, 2006; O’Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008; Wyeth, 1955). Preservice teacher education in Queensland is inextricably linked to the development of schools, the social, political, cultural and philosophical aspects of schooling and the broader educational milieu within the state. In this researcher’s role as a preservice teacher educator in a regional Queensland university, it became increasingly apparent that students entering an Initial Teacher Education (ITE) program at university viewed the roles of secondary school teachers through several lenses. Upon reflection, this researcher speculated that preservice teachers’ lenses were quite likely shaped over time by several factors that had influence on their perspectives:

- The preservice teacher’s personal perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers, gained through the lived experience of being a secondary school student.
- The preservice teacher’s personal perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers developed during the period of the preservice teacher education
program, (as preservice teachers position themselves in the role of a secondary school teacher).

- The preservice teacher’s personal perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers, developed through exposure to social and cultural artefacts (i.e. various forms of popular media including news programs, current affairs, movies, television, family background, cultural beliefs and social values). See Figure 1 below:

![Figure 1](image)

**Figure 1.** Lenses through which preservice teacher perspectives are shaped

This speculation as to preservice teachers’ perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland focussed the study on the topic of the importance of understanding and exploring teachers’ roles as an integral component of initial teacher education programs. Further reflection led to considerations of how those perspectives may alter once a preservice teacher had experienced a school-based Supervised Professional Experience (SPE). As a result, a general research question began to develop around what these perspectives were, and how they might influence the ongoing perspectives of preservice teachers as they transition into their professional positions. It was from this that the following research questions emerged.
1.2 The Research Question

The overall question this research project will consider is: ‘What are the perspectives of preservice teachers in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland?’ Using methods similar to those outlined by O’Donoghue (2007) and Punch (2000) to facilitate the development of guiding questions to support the general research question, the following guiding research questions were proposed:

- What were the perspectives that preservice teachers held in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland schools, prior to attending a supervised professional experience (SPE) placement; and what reasons (if any) did the participants give for these perspectives?
- What factors or influences impacted on preservice teachers during their supervised professional experience placement in relation to the perspectives they held of the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland schools?
- What was the significance of these impacting factors or influences on preservice teachers in shaping their developing roles as teachers?
- What were the perspectives preservice teachers held in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland schools, upon completion of a supervised professional experience (SPE) placement; and
- What reasons, if any, did preservice teachers attribute to these changing perspectives?

As mentioned above, the methodological approach used for this research project is based on the work of O’Donoghue (2007) and Punch (2000). This methodological approach has been developed and refined in order to provide “appropriate down-to-earth questions such that they will yield a quantity and quality of data which, when subjected to analysis, will allow us to generate theory regarding the participants’ perspectives” (O’Donoghue, 2007, p.37). As such, this methodological approach was determined to be entirely appropriate for use within the study.

This overview has so far outlined the parameters of the conceptual framework to the study, and points it towards a qualitative research project that seeks to ascertain the perspectives that preservice teachers hold concerning the roles and/or identities of secondary school teachers. The approach or methodology
underpinning this study became one based on the traditions of grounded theory. The principal methods of data collection involved the use of semi-structured interviews followed by appropriate data analysis practices.

1.3 Background

The University of the Sunshine Coast (USC) is a new, regional university in South East Queensland which gained university status in 1999 (Louden, 2008). Initially opening in 1996 as the Sunshine Coast University College, it was renamed the University of the Sunshine Coast in 1999. The university campus is located approximately 100 kilometres, (or one hour’s drive), north of Brisbane, which is the capital city of Queensland. As at the beginning of the 2017 academic year, USC had a student body of approximately 14,000 Effective Full Time Student Load (EFTSL).

The School of Education at the University of the Sunshine Coast began to offer programs in initial teacher education (ITE) in 2005. The School of Education currently offers several distinct ITE programs:

- A four-year undergraduate combined degree program (Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Science, Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Business) for students who wish to become secondary school teachers.
- A four-year undergraduate Bachelor of Primary Education program for students who wish to become primary school teachers.
- A four-year undergraduate Bachelor of Early Childhood Education program for students who wish to become early childhood teachers.
- A one-year Graduate Diploma of Education program, available to domestic and international students who have previously completed a suitable undergraduate degree. This program initially comprised three distinct cohorts – Early Childhood, Primary School and Secondary School preservice teachers. It now comprises only a secondary school cohort.

Currently, there are approximately 780 preservice teachers enrolled across the four Education Programs offered by the School of Education. Distribution within the current USC School of Education cohorts show that approximately 184 preservice
teachers are majoring in Early Childhood Education (education sector age range of 0 – 8 years), approximately 247 preservice teachers are majoring in Primary Education (education sector age range of 5 – 11 years) and approximately 349 preservice teachers have chosen to major in Secondary Education (education sector age range of 12 – 17 years). As with most tertiary institutions, these enrolment numbers are subject to fluctuation due to a wide variety of external and internal factors.

The external accrediting body for teacher registration in Queensland is the Queensland College of Teachers (QCT). The QCT was instituted by an Act of the Queensland Legislature – the Education (Queensland College of Teachers) Act 2005. More recently, the QCT has become a part the federal body through which nationally agreed Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (APST) and nationally agreed Initial Teacher Education Program accreditations are managed. The federal body is the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL). In effect, the QCT is the Queensland based face of AITSL. The QCT oversees all aspects of Initial Teacher Education accreditation in Queensland – approving the structure, length, delivery method and content of all programs of ITE leading to teacher registration (for which the QCT is also responsible). For the ITE courses currently offered at USC, secondary undergraduate preservice teachers undertake four Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) placements in school settings (with a minimum total of 80 days of placement), as integrated components of their programs of study. Graduate Diploma preservice teachers undertake two SPE placements in school settings (with a minimum total of 62 days of placement), as integrated components of their program of study. This research project draws participants from the approximately 350 preservice teachers enrolled within secondary combined degree undergraduate and secondary graduate diploma programs, who are preparing to become secondary school teachers.

USC draws a student cohort from a diverse socio-economic demographic. When considering the composition of the participant cohort for this study, it was considered essential to review the available data on student demographics in order to develop an understanding of the cohort of preservice teachers in the School of Education. It appeared axiomatic that an exploration of the participant demographic would assist in development towards a more holistic understanding of the participant cohort in the study. The current student catchment of USC is predominantly located in the coastal and hinterland corridor, stretching from Hervey Bay in the Fraser
Coast region in the north, to the Redcliffe peninsular in the Moreton Region in the south. A breakdown of the demographic of this catchment region is reflected in the currently available student statistics on USC student enrolment, which is in turn drawn from Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) data. Table 1 shows a 2.0% participation rate of Sunshine Coast residents in USC.

Table 1. USC participation rate of Sunshine Coast resident population 1996 – 2010

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estimated Resident Population</td>
<td>210,471</td>
<td>218,179</td>
<td>225,899</td>
<td>232,546</td>
<td>239,797</td>
<td>247,167</td>
<td>256,403</td>
<td>267,613</td>
<td>277,830</td>
<td>286,591</td>
<td>295,084</td>
<td>304,070</td>
<td>313,851</td>
<td>323,419</td>
<td>330,934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USC Student enrolments</td>
<td>608</td>
<td>1,409</td>
<td>2,132</td>
<td>2,605</td>
<td>2,964</td>
<td>3,258</td>
<td>3,760</td>
<td>3,987</td>
<td>4,124</td>
<td>4,771</td>
<td>5,483</td>
<td>6,152</td>
<td>6,822</td>
<td>7,998</td>
<td>9,030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation rate of USC students per 1000 population</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Importantly, within this 2.7% participation rate in 2010 at USC, there is an accompanying level of socio-economic disadvantage, as outlined by Local Government Area in Table 2 below.

Table 2. SES Status by Local Government Area, 2006

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LGA Region</th>
<th>Socio-Economic Index of Disadvantage by LGA, 2006</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quintile 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraser Coast</td>
<td>48.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gym pie</td>
<td>46.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moreton Bay</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somerset</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunshine Coast</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USC Catchment TOTAL</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 Indicates that approximately 47% of USC students are identified as being in the lowest two quintiles of the socio-economic index of disadvantage. The Australian Government MyUniversity website corroborates the lower SES enrolment figures (18.8%) for USC, in addition to providing a useful snapshot of the overall USC student cohort (see Table 3 below).

Table 3. MyUniversity SESA enrolment figures for USC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Demographics (2012)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student Numbers – Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>65.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student Numbers – Citizenship</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic</td>
<td>90.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Domestic Student Background</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander</td>
<td>1.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low socio-economic status</td>
<td>18.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-English speaking background</td>
<td>0.68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional/remote</td>
<td>22.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student Numbers – Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total student numbers</td>
<td>9,749</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Arguably, those education students within this particular cohort will bring their individual perspectives and overall worldviews with them to USC and into school settings (Participation and Equity, 2008). Preservice teachers who are first-in-family to a tertiary institution, and/or who are from lower SES demographics, and/or who have entered university as mature aged students, challenge the stereotypical view of middle-class school leavers as the model of a typical preservice teacher. As such, the general background of the participant cohort does have some considerable bearing on the positioning of the study. It can be speculated that the rapid uptake of students into USC Education Programs post 2005 reflects changing social, educational and economic conditions in the university’s catchment area. These conditions, (apart from changing arrangements to Federal government funding), continue to have a positive impact on student
enrolment numbers within Education Programs at USC. This is evidenced in the current cohort numbers across all School of Education program offerings. This study does not investigate the myriad of reasons behind students’ enrolment in USC Education Programs per se. This study does, however, consider student understandings and perspectives of USC Education Programs, as a useful backgrounding to investigate preservice teachers’ perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland Schools.

As a preservice teacher educator involved in program and course development and delivery to secondary school preservice teachers in Queensland, this researcher has experienced first-hand the multiple organizational considerations involved in the design, development and delivery of ITE programs (Ingvarson, Elliott, Kleinhenz, & McKenzie, 2006). The following organisational considerations provide a snapshot of the considerations requiring management within Education Programs at USC:

- The requirement for secondary school preservice teachers to undertake a specified amount of supervised professional experience (SPE) to satisfy the registration requirements of the state-based external accrediting body, the Queensland College of Teachers (QCT), and ultimately the federal accrediting body – the Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL).

- The requirement for secondary school preservice teachers to meet both state-level preservice teacher requirements, as required by the QCT, and meet concurrent national teacher professional standards and program requirements as stipulated by AITSL.

- The requirement for secondary school preservice teachers to demonstrate both breadth of knowledge across discipline areas, as well as depth of knowledge in two specific discipline areas.

- The complexity of developing and offering a program of sufficient flexibility to meet the needs of preservice teachers undertaking an intensive 12-month Graduate Diploma of Education (Secondary) program.

- The challenge to deliver meaningful, balanced and academically rigorous combined-degree undergraduate programs, in close collaboration with discipline course providers within the university structure.
The management and coordination of a large cohort of international preservice teachers within the Graduate Diploma of Education (Secondary) program.

The above characteristics provide a snapshot of the scope of organizational considerations encountered in the development and delivery of ITE programs across Queensland, and specifically at the University of the Sunshine Coast.

Pragmatic organisational considerations, such as those listed above, have to date tended to be at the forefront of the thinking of USC Education Program academic staff, as the combined undergraduate and Graduate Diploma programs have developed and been delivered over the past ten years. These considerations continue to remain very much a core priority for all academic staff, as the USC School of Education continues to develop and deliver programs across early childhood, primary and secondary education to meet the changing requirements imposed by requirements external to the institution. The constantly shifting landscape of initial teacher education within Australia will require pragmatic organisational considerations for the USC School of Education to remain at the forefront of ITE programs, in the short to medium term. This is currently evidenced by the recent design, development and accreditation of a two-year Master of Teaching (Secondary) program to replace the existing one year Graduate Diploma in Education (Secondary) program. The transition from State based to national teacher professional standards, a State based curriculum to a national curriculum, State and national funding and policy changes to both the school and higher education sectors and the embedding of educational targets at a national level by way of standardized testing regimes, all have combined to produce a rare set of difficult circumstances which all preservice teacher education institutions must contend with.

In this sense, it was deemed timely to continue with the pragmatic approach that the School of Education had been following. In this instance, the approach was to consider a review of education programs within the university, with a view to further enhancing the Australian Bureau of Statistics one possible path of enquiry into enhancing the efficacy of preservice teacher programs at USC was to undertake research, with a view to generating theory surrounding the perspectives that preservice teachers held in relation to secondary school teachers in Queensland. The generation of theory of this nature would allow a measure of
substantive research to inform practice: the practice in this instance being enhancing the efficacy of preservice teacher programs at USC, in one sector: Secondary Education.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study aims to develop understandings of, and to build a substantive theory about preservice teachers’ perspectives of the roles and identities of secondary school teachers in Queensland. In light of this aim, the study will generate finding that may have implications for secondary school teachers, teacher educators, initial teacher education programs and possible future research directions in the field of initial teacher education. It can be speculated that a greater understanding of the perspectives of preservice teachers, as they progress through their various university programs and transition into the profession, may assist in informing the development and review of university based initial teacher education programs and courses. Additionally, the implications of this study may be in the area of early-career teacher professional development. Insights into the changing perspectives of teacher roles may assist employing bodies in design, development and delivery of professional development packages, frequently presented to teachers during transition to the initial years of employment in educational organizations.

1.5 Personal Position – The researcher’s personal perspective of Queensland

In order to understand the researcher’s worldview in undertaking a study into the perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland, an examination of this researcher’s personal lens in viewing Queensland and Queensland schools is presented. An exploration of this researcher’s personal experiences of the processes of schooling in Queensland will highlight how deeply ingrained these images are on the psyche of the researcher and position the researcher within the overall research project. To assist the reader, the following narrative section will, by-and-large, be presented in the first-person, thereby giving voice to the researcher’s personal perspectives.

Harms (2005, para.23) reported one of his university friends as commenting, “It’s very well-known that the closer a place is to the equator, the less civilized the society”. This statement may well be a truism when considering
broader Queensland society. Queenslanders, as a whole, have historically been portrayed in popular Australian media as being quintessentially provincial. Arguably, the insularity of Queenslanders has been present in the urban and rural cultural mentality of the east coast of Australia since Queensland became a separate Colony from New South Wales on 10 December 1959. Goodman (1968, p.20) outlined that in the early days of the Queensland Colony:

Isolation in time helped to develop provincialism, of a parochialism, which seemed to mark Queenslanders off as somewhat different according to those people in other Australian colonies.

In a more recent attempt to quantify the essence of Queensland and of Queenslanders, Harms (2005, para. 3) reflected that:

Queensland is a place, a people, a history, a climate, an architecture. But it is also a mood, a feeling, a spirit, a state of mind. It is known for its political eccentricities, its down-on-the-farm conservatism, its parochial uncomplicated people and its get-the-big-bulldozer economy.

It may be argued that this essence of difference extends further than the private face of individual Queenslanders, and permeates key areas of government, the arts, sport and schooling. In the foreword to Made in Queensland: A New History (Fitzgerald, Megarrity, & Symons, 2009), Professor Peter Coaldrake made reference to “the issue of ‘Queensland difference’” in the broad terms of social, cultural, political and educational difference. Fitzgerald, Megarrity & Symons (2009) detailed many significant areas in which Queensland has been set aside and viewed as different to both New South Wales and Victoria (emphasizing perceived, if not real, differences in the cultural standing of the capital cities of each State). Fitzgerald, Megarrity & Symons suggested, “Queenslanders remained attached for decades to a nostalgic vision of an imagined rural past” (2009, p.109). Goodman (1968, p.109) stated that:

Tropical lassitude was used as an excuse for the Queenslanders’ apparent slowing down compared with the typical Australian – slowness of speech, slowness of gait, slowness of thought, even
slowness in progress. To the outsider Queensland became the “hill-billy state”.

Until relatively recently, Brisbane continued to cling to its sobriquet of *A Big Country Town*. Additionally, in the early 1980s, Brisbane had a “reputation as a cultural backwater full of redneck politicians” – a view that Sydney and Melbourne newspapers were happy to outline often and with relish (Fitzgerald, et al., 2009, p.171). Brisbane (and by extension Queensland) began to lay aside the mantle of cultural backwater in 1982 (with the Commonwealth Games) and later in 1988 (by hosting the World Expo). These two highly successful key events signaled the turning point of a slow but steady move towards a more cosmopolitan capital city and a State that was ready to move ahead (Fitzgerald et al., 2009).

In many regards, Harms’ (2005) earlier statement holds true to my recollection of childhood and schooling in Queensland. Schooling and educational ideas were known to be distinctly ‘Queensland-flavoured’ by my classmates and me; yet if asked to elaborate, we would have been hard pressed to offer a reason as to why this was so. As a primary and secondary school student in Queensland, there was simply an acceptance that this was how schools and schooling operated…from the way we paraded on the daily school assemblies (held on the parade ground), how we sang “God Save the Queen”, drank our free daily milk and memorized the main rivers, ports and towns of the Queensland coast in Social Studies class. To my fellow schoolmates and me, schooling conducted in other states of Australia was deemed distinctly different. Those students who had attended schools in other states were viewed as manifestly alien when they arrived at our school… often tolerated with a level of novelty until they could prove themselves as being able to fit into the Queensland mould. Harms (2005, para. 9-10) provides a picture that many of my school contemporaries and I immediately recognize, when he reminisced:

Queensland certainly felt different. A bit old. I remember my first day at Oakey Primary, a school established in 1874. It was a standard colonial government structure on stilts, with a staircase up to the main building. I was in Grade 5. The boys lugged ports on their backs and wore old-style hats, which they put on hat-racks. Very few wore shoes. They had big Adam’s apples and 1945 haircuts: short back and sides,
with the sides almost shaved. The girls wore bloomers, Granny Clampett bike pants in blue with a yellow trim. For modesty. You could see the yellow sticking out below their school dresses. The class sat at ancient desks with ink-well holes, and when the teacher asked for their attention they sat bolt upright with their arms folded.

I grew to love it. Our Grade 6 classroom, with high ceilings and tongue and groove walls, had a fireplace. The bell was rung by hand. The kids who “did the bell” knew they had to ring it at the right moment in the morning, but the teachers didn’t mind them being a few minutes late after lunch. We played cricket and rugby league, and tennis with flat tennis balls.

New students arriving in my primary and secondary schools in The Gap in northwest Brisbane from other states of Australia, New Guinea, New Zealand, South Africa or the UK were examined for exotic differences. The variations were noted in cursive script styles, common pronunciation and language differences, year-level structures, examination procedures and the host of nuanced views that signified dissimilarity to the familiar landscape of Queensland schooling, one that we were comfortable with and understood.

My first encounter with the Queensland State School system was in January 1970. I entered Grade One at The Gap State School in Brisbane’s western suburbs. The Gap State School, which opened in 1912, as a small rural school, had an enrolment of close to one thousand students in the early 1970s (Pommerel, 1987). The Gap was initially settled for dairy farming, market gardening and the assisted repatriation of returned servicemen from the First World War. By the late 1960s, The Gap, as with many of Brisbane’s peripheral suburbs, was experiencing increased urbanisation and population growth. The 1960s and 1970s were a time of rapid outwards expansion in Brisbane. The increased enrolments of both the local primary and secondary schools reflected the influx of young families to the new suburban areas of Brisbane’s outer north, south and west.

The 1960s and 1970s also marked a turning point for Brisbane, as it underwent the transformation from large country town towards true city status. By way of example of this transformation from rural to the urban, it was reported:

As the city expanded outward along its over-stretched road system, it also faced an increasingly embarrassing shortage of sewerage. Eighty
percent of Brisbane was unsewered in 1961, and over half of Brisbane’s roads had carriageways less than eight metres wide. (Brisbane and Greater Brisbane, 2011, para. 26)

With little or no town planning outside of the CBD and long-established inner suburbs, unsealed dirt streets and limited reticulated water supply, Brisbane presented itself as distinctly unsophisticated and rustic compared to the more established capital cities in southern states, particularly Sydney and Melbourne. Throughout the 1960s and into the 1970s, Brisbane began a steady evolution, striving towards becoming a more cultured urban built environment. The pace of this change increased when the then Lord Mayor Clem Jones implemented sweeping reforms, including the conversion of Brisbane’s electric tramway system to diesel bus routes (in 1969); the development of substantial open spaces and parklands throughout Brisbane suburbs; and, in 1974, committed Brisbane to hosting the 1982 Commonwealth Games (“Brisbane and Greater Brisbane,” 2011).

For Queensland (as for Australia as a whole), the 1960s and 1970s were turbulent times of social, political and cultural change. These years saw:

- The end of Australia’s involvement in the Vietnam War (1972).
- The expansion of television and media services within both regional Australia and capital cities.
- The rise and growing achievements of the Women’s Movement (equal pay for women achieved in 1972).
- Implementation of early environmental reforms.
- An increased focus on multiculturalism.
- The lowering of the voting age from 21 years to 18 years (1973).
- The final abolition of the White Australia Policy (1973).

In some instances, Queensland appeared to have remained somewhat buffered from the greater sweep of the social and political change. In 1965, Queensland was the last Australian State to provide Indigenous enfranchisement. In stark contrast,
in the 1850s Victoria, New South Wales, Tasmania and South Australia had framed their constitutions such that voting rights were extended to all male British subjects over 21 years of age. In law, this included Indigenous men, who were considered to be British subjects. In 1971, the then Premier Joh Bjelke-Petersen declared a state of emergency to ban street marches by Queenslanders opposed to the South African Springbok Rugby Union tour. Due to the policy of apartheid in place in South Africa, South African sporting teams were banned from playing in many countries. The tour of an all-white South African sporting team was controversial and brought condemnation from many quarters. The declaration led to violent clashes between police and civil rights protesters. The ban remained in place until the mid-1980s.

From an intellectual perspective, Harms (2005, para. 14) painted a picture of 1970s Queensland in the grip of a social anaesthetic characterized by:

Joh. The National Party. Outrageous legislation. Police powers (and occasional brutality). The quelling of dissent. The cavalier attitude to due process. The failure of leaders to comprehend the very political system of which they were custodians. Anti-intellectualism. Bigotry. Racism. The demolition of cultural heritage. The sheer spiritual torpor.

As an adult, I retrospectively appreciate the language and sentiment expressed by Harms in his statement. As a secondary school student in a Queensland school at that time, in the suburban sanctuary of northwest Brisbane, these social and political tensions were the unseen (and usually unremarked upon) backdrop to school and home life. A contemporary of the Brisbane of my youth, the Queensland author Nick Earls, painted a similar image of Queensland politics in the 1970s and 1980s in his book “World of Chickens”. Earls (2002, p.25) wrote:

Sir Joh Bjelke-Petersen has been the Queensland premier the whole time we’ve been in Australia, and the state is a national joke for having a Deep North government that’s said to resemble governments of a generation or more ago in some parts of the US Deep South – governments that always talk about getting things done and never talk about rights.
Similarly, Earls’ views about how Australians in other states viewed Queensland (and by extension Queenslanders) provided a disquieting reminder of how fractured and insular the Queensland psyche of the era had become. Earls (2002, p.24) wrote:

We’re an easy target for remarks about crossing the border and turning the clock back fifteen years, or a hundred. We’re a state that’s known for pineapples and cane toads, old bad attitudes and the brain-addling heat that comes from the Tropic of Capricorn sitting right across our middle. We’re that kind of state – hot and steamy, unlovely and unloved, far too much fodder here for metaphors about festering and putrefaction.

At the time of initiating the current research project, this researcher had been part of the Queensland school system as a student, a teacher, and most recently as a teacher educator, for forty-two years. Over this extended time frame, the researcher’s perspectives regarding the roles of secondary school teachers, and the roles of schools and schooling in Queensland have been filtered through a variety of social, philosophical and educational lenses. It is the constantly changing landscape of schooling in Queensland, and people’s perspectives of that landscape, that continues to fascinate the researcher.

The researcher has been inspired by a quote attributed to the American author and astronomer Carl Sagan, who in his seminal manuscript Cosmos stated his belief that, “You have to know the past to understand the present” (Sagan, 1980). The researcher has elected to offer this backdrop to the introduction of this thesis, with the intention of providing the reader with not only an insight into the researcher’s personal background, but also the general educational, social and political contexts of Queensland that provide backdrop to the current study. It is the contention of the researcher that any investigation of the perspectives of preservice teachers in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland must be undertaken with an understanding and appreciation of the unique historical interplay of factors that have been present in the development of schooling and education in Queensland, and arguably continue to impact on schooling and education in this State.

The following chapters of this thesis will present the study which considers the research question “What are the perspectives of preservice teachers in relation
to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland”? Chapter Two will present a comprehensive literature review in the areas through which the development of the study has been informed. Chapter Three will present the methodological approach adopted in this thesis in order to achieve the aims of the study: to generate theory surrounding the perspectives that preservice teachers hold in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland. Chapters Four, Five and Six present a detailed data analysis of the three core themes that arose from the data. Chapter Seven presents the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework and a discussion of the framework. Finally, Chapter Eight presents the conclusions of the thesis, and provides a number of recommendations for consideration by initial teacher education providers.

This chapter began by providing an overview of the study and established the research area and topic and the general research question, along with the research guiding questions that form its basis. Following this, the chapter presented the conceptual framework underpinning the research question; and detailed the purpose and the significance of the study. An outline stating the researcher’s personal position was presented, as this is an essential element of contextualising the research. Finally, the chapter concluded with an outline for the remainder of this thesis.
Chapter 2
Literature Review

In pursuing a study of this nature, a broad scan of the literature is required for a number of reasons. Firstly, a literature review will allow a critical summation of the current knowledge in the area of teacher roles and images to be undertaken. Secondly, a literature review will identify any strengths and weaknesses in previous work, which may then be identified in the current research project. Finally, a literature review will provide a context within which to position the current research project.

Following an initial scoping of the literature, this chapter reviews literature on the following topics:

- The social, political and philosophical elements of schooling in Queensland (Section 2.1);
- The social, political and philosophical elements of teacher education in Queensland (Section 2.2);
- The social, political and philosophical perspectives of teachers and teaching and the Apprenticeship of Observation conceptualization (Section 2.3).

The researcher has identified these areas to be central in arguing the purpose and significance of the study.

2.1 The social, political and philosophical background of State Schooling in Queensland

The research question for this study is:

‘What are the perspectives of preservice teachers in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland?’

An understanding of this research question requires an overarching understanding of the schooling system that is peculiar to the Queensland situation. The notion of specific peculiarities of state-based school systems has previously been raised in
the introductory chapter. Arguably, the historical weight of Queensland schooling carries an impetus that continues to exist within contemporary schools in Queensland. It is for this reason that delving into the recent history of Queensland schooling, specifically state schooling, was essential in the development of this study. Further, an explicit distinction is drawn between the terms ‘schooling’ and ‘education’ within this context. Education does not necessarily mean schooling – and vice versa. In a review of 19th century Australian schooling, Vick (1997, p.114) explained that:

Education was not generally equated with schooling but was seen to embrace a far wider set of means of learning, both formal and informal. Even the term ‘school’ might mean day school, Sunday school or evening school.

The author’s intention is to distinguish between the elements of schools and schooling as systemic, social constructs and the elements of education as a more general, personal endeavour. To this end, Berg (2010, para. 2) proposed:

Education is often being confused with schooling, relying on the premise that time spent in school is directly related to education. Somehow, by osmosis or some other magic force, spending time in school will lead to an educated person. This is one of the biggest lies and misnomers that is pervasive throughout our society.

In this study, the terms *schools* and *schooling* are used with reference to their social, political, philosophical and moral influences on school students and society in general.

Queensland state schooling has had a growth that has run in a generally similar manner to that experienced by other Australian States and Territories, albeit a range of influences specific to Queensland further shaped state schooling structures and techniques. Despite many similarities of history to other states, Meadmore (1993) suggested the history of Queensland state schools was under-researched compared to other states. Additionally, Spaull and Sullivan (1993) made the observation that there were no substantial histories of Queensland state schooling. Of the literature that is available, Wyeth (1955) and Goodman (1968) both provided general oversights about early schooling in Queensland. Cleverly
and Lawry (1972), Connell (1961), Campbell (2001) and most recently Campbell and Proctor (2014) presented broader examinations of schools and school systems at a national level. Meadmore (1993, p.i) offered some specific insight into Queensland school examination practices and assessment processes, and the resultant “dividing practices” these created. Clarke (1985) delivered an overview of the inclusion and impact of female teachers in Queensland state schools and the implications this had for gendered schooling practices. Holthouse (1975) provided a broad generalist overview of Queensland state schooling in a work commissioned to celebrate the centenary of state education in Queensland. Aspland (2008) touched on Queensland schooling tangentially in her chapter on the history of Australian schooling (O’Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008b). Cranston, Mulford, Reid & Keating (2010) provided perspectives on Australian schools through the perspectives of principals. Recently, Brady’s (2013) PhD thesis, *The Rural School experiment: Creating a Queensland Yeoman*, provided a particularly focussed account of the Rural School model and its development within the Queensland context. The literature regarding schools and schooling at a national level is accessible and broad-based. The available literature, which focusses specifically on schools and schooling within Queensland, is far less evident. Within this narrowed state-based field, there is a further division between literature focussed on either state schooling or Catholic schooling.

### 2.1.1 The development of Queensland State Schooling

The Colony of Queensland itself did not exist until 1859 (previously it had been included within the Colony of New South Wales). As such, government schools were originally part of the national school system and administered at a colonial level until 1859, by the Colony of New South Wales (Holthouse, 1975; Wyeth, 1955). At this point, there existed a bipartite arrangement of denominational schools (Catholic or Anglican) or secular schooling provided by the government (Campbell & Proctor, 2014). Following separation from New South Wales in 1859, the newly constituted Colony of Queensland was faced with the task of providing a colony-wide system of primary education. The Queensland Parliament passed the *Education Act of 1860*, which allowed for the creation of a Board of General Education and the comprehensive organisation of secular primary school education within Queensland. The *Education Act of 1875* resulted in a name
change for the Board of General Education to the Department of Public Instruction (Goodman, 1968; Holthouse, 1975). At this time, Parliament’s interest was firmly on the provision of primary school level education throughout the Colony, focused on the 3-Rs (Reading, Writing and Arithmetic), and utilising the mechanism of schooling as a means to build a sense of common purpose and unified direction within the new colony (Meadmore, 1993). Schooling was delivered via government primary schools (and provisional schools); or, through denominationally administered non-vested schools (such as parish schools run by the Catholic Church). 1860 also saw the new Queensland Parliament pass the Grammar School Act (Goodman, 1968; Holthouse, 1975; Wyeth, 1955). This Act provided for the establishment of a grammar school for the provision of secondary education in any district where the local population could raise at least £1000. The Colonial government, through the Governor, assisted by providing funding to bolster the local money initially raised by the trustees of the proposed school. Beginning in 1863 with Ipswich Grammar School, secondary education was provided through ten grammar schools located in key provincial centres along the Queensland Coast (Holthouse, 1975). Initially, entry to grammar schools was restricted to students whose family had the financial wherewithal to meet the cost of tuition. In the spirit of egalitarianism, the Queensland government initially provided a small number of £20 scholarships to primary school students who excelled in competitive State Scholarship Examinations (Meadmore, 1993). In later years, entry to free state secondary schools would continue to be restricted to those primary school students who scored better than 50% on the State Scholarship Examination (Meadmore, 1993). Over time, the perceived need for, and access to, secondary education via the mechanism of a State Scholarship Examination reflected changing social beliefs and political requirements as Queensland society grew and matured (Meadmore, 1993). Between 1860 and 1962, the scholarship examination became the gatekeeper for access to secondary education for academically able children from the aspiring classes. The government sponsored examination process acted as a mechanism of exclusion, and raised ethical debates relating to social class and the inequity of educational opportunity (Meadmore, 1993). The inclusion of grammar schools ushered in the tripartite arrangement of schooling that continues in contemporary Queensland, where schooling is offered by state schools, schools with religious affiliations and by independent schools.
From 1860, schooling in Queensland developed along provincial lines, catering for the needs of the population and government of Queensland. Similar processes were occurring concurrently in New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia and Western Australia; also along provincial lines. As this colonial process commenced in pre-Federation times, the provision of government schooling across Australia has, for the most part, been ad hoc. Historically, there has been varying degrees of alignment between States on central issues. These issues have included compulsory school commencement and completion ages, transition ages from primary to secondary education, delivery methods of secondary education, assessment policies and processes, secondary school matriculation examinations, curriculum focus and delivery, preferred pedagogical practices, the nomenclature of the profession in each State and the organisational and administrative processes of the State Education departments. Indeed, Vick (1997) noted a wide diversity of schooling and educational practices occurred not just between colonies, (and later between states), but also between schools themselves. Vick (1997, p.114) stated that in 19th century Australian schools:

Parents reported their satisfaction with teachers of widely varied attainments, and who used diverse methods of instruction. They endorsed the use of makeshift buildings of all sorts. They often showed no concern about the unsystematic curriculum, the informal hours of opening or the lack of class textbooks. And, crucially, they sent their children, when there was no requirement that they do so, and at times under difficult circumstances to a wide range of schools…it seems, then, that there simply was no single, universally accepted set of norms defining what constituted a good school.

The question of establishing a national curriculum has historically been problematic, and was more so following Federation (Aspland, 2006). Despite calls from a variety of stakeholders over a considerable length of time, a coherent approach to a national curriculum in Australia had consistently been met with reluctance by states and territories wishing to retain control over the education systems that had been developed in their own jurisdictions (Harris-Hart, 2010; Piper, 1997). This situation resulted from a constitutional arrangement whereby states continue to have responsibility for their individual curriculums (Harris-Hart, 2010). It is only within relatively recent years that a move towards an Australian
National Curriculum has been agreed to by states and territories, with the curriculum overseen by the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA). Even with the oversight of ACARA, each state continues to deliver the Australian National Curriculum with its own particular interpretation and perspective. Concomitant to this agreement was an in-principle move towards a unified approach for the teaching profession (one example being the adoption of the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers). The move towards a more unified approach within the teaching profession was the result of open dialogue within peak federal and state professional bodies, including the Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) and the Australian Council of Deans of Education (ACDE) and Australian Education Union (AEU).

Nóvoa (2006, p.39) reflected that:

Education is also something we imagine. It is something we talk about, something we must talk about. In a certain way, we can say that education is the least understood thing, the worst understood, precisely because it is assumed to be the most clearly understood, and by everybody.

With Novoa’s cautionary words about education in mind, consideration may now be given to the sociological orientation to state schooling in Queensland. Kerr (1994, p.51) wrote that: “A lesson from the history of higher education in the Western World over the past eight centuries is that heritage is a great force in the life of individual institutions”.

Arguably, state schooling, as an institution in Queensland, is a subset of a broader Australian educational heritage that may be considered as a ‘great force’. Australian schooling has been shaped by diverse social, philosophical and political understandings of how society could and should operate; and the roles that schools should play within that social structure. In Australia, these social, philosophical and political influences have been drawn from movements originating within western culture, particularly from the United Kingdom and the United States. Indeed, Reid and Gill (2009, p.4) suggested that “one of the recurring themes in the sociology of curriculum literature is the role of schools in nurturing civic values and nationalist sentiment for the purposes of social order and control”. Reid and Gill (2009) expanded on their conjecture regarding schooling and pedagogy as
a social, cultural and political mechanism, positing the structure of schools reproduced long-held social and cultural relationships. These long-held social and cultural relationships were initially transplanted from the United Kingdom, and replicated and embedded in Australian schools (and, ultimately, embedded in Australian society). This introduced a set of contradictory values, with schools somehow balancing “loyalty to the mother country (Great Britain) and to the British Empire” with a “developed pride in a new country that was free from some of the ingrained customs and divisions of the old” (Reid and Gill, 2009, p.5).

Within western thought, the philosopher, psychologist and educationalist Johann Herbart’s views (Herbart, 1895) emphasised a connection between personal development through education, with the result being a contribution to furthering the development of society in general (Blyth, 1981). Herbartian sociological theory emphasised a scientific approach to education (Barlow, 1980; Blyth, 1981). Herbart’s philosophical position had gained popularity in the later 19th and continued early 20th century in the United Kingdom, Europe and the United States, at a critical juncture when the boundaries between classes were becoming less well defined; and, in some cases, openly challenged (Pinar, 2014).

Early in the twentieth century, schooling in Australia embraced Herbartian ideas, placing an emphasis on the moral and cultural elements of education at that time (Cleverley & Lawry, 1972). At this time, a traditional offering of literature, history, mathematics, science and languages was central to the curriculums offered in schools across Australia, providing a platform from which the hidden curriculum of moral and social development could be launched (Blyth, 1981). Additionally, Meadmore (1993) reported that moral and social development was extended to the physical aspects of school life. Meadmore (1993, p.55) gave the following example.

Marching to military style bands, parades and regimented activities contributed to the anatomo-politics of the school, enhanced by the social relations of space. Practices associated with physical education were centrally concerned with promoting all-round fitness and providing group experiences ‘that will affect character and encourage the best qualities of citizenship’. (Edwards, in Report of the Secretary for Public Instruction for 1946, 1947, p.12)
The inclusion of moral and social development is also recounted by Vick (1997) as an integral component of schooling in 19th Century Australian schools. The development of moral stature in students was reflected in an 1853 text titled *Art of Teaching*; and a later series of lectures delivered in 1886 titled *Principles Underlying the Art of Teaching* by the principal of the Fort Street Model School in Sydney, William Wilkins (Vick, 1997). The development of moral stature and character, in addition to the more academic aspects of schooling, was embedded in the common schooling practices of the time. Additionally, elements of the hidden curriculum of schools included development of, “loyalties to ‘our Queen’, a need to know about ‘home’ (Britain) as well as the Australian colonies and their part in ‘our empire’” – reinforcing the structure of schools as a normalising mechanism for the development of national spirit (Vick, 1997, p.116). Knowledge and mastery of traditional subjects were seen as the keys to not only individual advancement within society but also aided the moral, ethical and intellectual advancement of society as a whole. Blyth (1981, p.70) stated that: “To Herbart, as to Plato and Kant, the man [sic] attained fullness only through becoming the citizen, and the means by which he must do so was through education”. Similarly, Willinsky (1999, p.99) suggested “fostering an allegiance to the nation lies so close to the heart of public schooling”.

A clear example of Neo-Herbartian ideals in action can be seen in the Queensland School Readers, used extensively throughout Queensland schools until their retirement in the early 1970s (Blyth, 1981). The Queensland Readers encouraged the development of good character through stories and poems (“Queensland School Readers,” 2011). The Queensland School Readers contained stories, moral tales (often drawn from the classical cannon), classic fables, poetry and prose, which aimed to develop young Queenslanders not only in literacy, but also in their moral code (“Queensland School Readers,” 2011). The focus on the development of moral character through the contents of the readers is evident in the selection of excerpts. These stories included Greek fables, such as the moralistic tales of Persephone and Narcissus and the moral lessons learnt from stories such as ‘Buying a Cow’ and ‘How Tom Sawyer Whitewashed the Fence’ (Queensland School Reader Grade VII, 1954). The preface of the Grade VII Queensland School Reader explained that the aims of the compilers of the series of texts is “to instil into the minds of pupils such a love of literature as will last
beyond school-days and be an unfailing source of profit and delight” (Queensland School Reader Grade VII, 1954, p.iii). What was not explicitly stated was the strongly implied underlying aim of developing in students both a robust moral compass, and the instilling of Anglo-Australian nationhood via the selection of the literary content. The Grade VII reader had an extended excerpt titled ‘Heroes of the Mutiny’, which detailed an Anglo centric account of British soldiers’ actions during the Indian Mutiny. In a similar vein, the story of ‘How England Held the Lists at Bordeaux’ (an excerpt from Sir Arthur Conan Doyle’s The White Company) drew on the themes of courage, honesty and integrity through the medium of knightly valour (Queensland School Reader Grade VII, 1954). The selection of ‘An Australian Anthem’ (Queensland School Reader Grade VII, 1954, p.178) accentuated encompassing themes of brotherhood, toil, labour and liberty. Finally, the choice of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow’s poem Santo Filomena about Florence Nightingale highlighted the qualities of devotion to duty, care for the suffering and less fortunate, in addition to emphasizing the idealization of “heroic womanhood” – another sub-theme that ran through the Queensland School Readers (Queensland School Reader Grade VII, 1954, p.127 – 128).

As outlined above, the selection of graduated Queensland Readers for Queensland students from Preparatory Grade to Grade VIII not only provided grounding in reading and western literature, it aimed to cement the social, moral and ethical character of Queensland society, reflected in the Neo-Herbartian ethos of the age (Blyth, 1981). This mode of social and cultural transmission through literature was used in Australian schools for over 100 years. The Irish National Readers (1859), the Australian Readers (1875) and then the Royal Readers (1891), preceded the development of the Queensland Readers (1915). A similar method was adopted in other Commonwealth countries; for example, English speaking schools in Canada also utilized the Irish National Series and Royal Readers until a more suitable Canadian Series was developed, for similar reasons to those that prompted the development of the Australian and Queensland Readers series.

Alongside Blyth (1981), De Cilla, Reisigl & Wodak (1999, p.156) proposed a Bourdieuan perspective (Bourdieu, 1993), in support of Neo-Herbartian views (Herbart, 1895), when they argued:
It is to a large extent through its schools and educational system that the state shapes those forms of perception, categorization, interpretation and memory that serve to determine the orchestration of the habitus which in turn are the constitutive basis for a kind of national common sense.

In concert with the Neo-Herbartian (Herbart, 1895) and Bourdieuvian (Bourdieu, 1993) philosophical and sociological influences on schooling, remnants of the views of Matthew Arnold, (Arnold. 2006), the nineteenth century cultural critic and inspector of English schools, may still be glimpsed in educational and political discourse in western countries. Arnold (2006) espoused the belief that education (particularly secondary education) was central to the continuation and future development of English culture and society (Connell, 1961). According to Connell (1961), Arnold looked for two main outcomes for secondary education. Firstly, that it should provide the growing middle class access to greater understandings of literature, history, mathematics, science and languages and therefore a fuller appreciation of western heritage and the contemporary world. Secondly, secondary education would provide a unification of discourse between the upper and middle classes (and in time between middle and working classes). Connell (1961, p.2) stated that Arnold saw in secondary education “the means of passing on the accumulated culture of the established classes to the revolutionary forces which were steadily displacing them”. It would seem that both Neo-Herbartian (Herbart, 1895) and Bourdieuvian (Bourdieu, 1993) thought and the views of Arnold sought to expand the social horizons of individuals through education; and, by extension, espoused the advancement of individuals via education.

The early twentieth century saw John Dewey’s (1897) Progressive Education pedagogical movement originate in the United States, promoting an alternative to the socioeconomiclly entrenched pathways of classical education. A key vehicle promoting the Progressive Education movement was Dewey’s My Pedagogic Creed (Dewey, 1897). Dewey and the progressives firmly believed that education and schooling were central to social reconstruction, progress and reform (Dewey, 1897). Dewey (1897, para. 1) wrote that: “I believe that all education proceeds by the participation of the individual in the social consciousness of the race”, closely binding schooling to participation in the broader social structure. Dewey and his contemporaries saw education and schooling as a social construct –
one that should reflect the social, moral and ethical values of the broader society. Dewey (1897, para. 7) stated:

I believe that the school is primarily a social institution. Education being a social process, the school is simply that form of community life in which all those agencies are concentrated that will be most effective in bringing the child to share in the inherited resources of the race, and to use his own powers for social ends.

As a neo-Herbartian, Dewey (1897) was well versed in the conceptualizations of the sociological and philosophical movements that had resurfaced in France, Germany, the UK and the USA, due to the prevailing economic, political and social circumstances of the time (Blyth, 1981). At the time of writing My Pedagogic Creed, both Europe and the United States were undergoing substantial social and political change (Blyth, 1981). The climate of social change provided the opportunity for Dewey to consider, and to be influenced by, the work of Herbart (1895), as well as the Hegelian school of thought that had developed earlier in Germany (Blyth, 1981). Dewey drew inspiration for his educational work from the sociological foundations of Herbart (1895) and the Hegelian school (Blyth, 1981). Blyth stated:

It might be said that Dewey collectivised the Herbartian sociology and that he emphasised the conversion of Individualities to Characters deriving their values from the present rather than from the past. This he came to present to the twentieth century as a progressive alternative to Marxist education. (1981, p.77)

It became evident that western countries, including Australia, faced a changing social, political and educational landscape in the twentieth century. Educational reform and changes to schooling structures provided individuals with a passport for movement within and between social classes. Education and schooling could contribute to the construction or reconstruction of society on a multitude of levels. Throughout the 20th century, in Queensland and other states, the “practical spirit of Australian democracy” provided fertile ground for expansion of new forms of education and schooling (Cleverley and Lawry, 1972, p.172). The view that schools and education are integral to social construction has been highlighted by Campbell (2001, p.11) who stated that “during the twentieth century there has
been an acceptance by most of the people that state high schooling has been a necessary part of Australia’s attempts at social democracy”. To that end, Australian secondary schools provided a liberal education with curricula “suited to aspiring members of the professions” (Cleverley and Lawry, 1972, p.172), in addition to providing vocational subjects for those who would enter the trades.

Within this changing social and educational environment, schools and schooling in Queensland in the first half of the 20th century developed along a formalistic pathway where “a conservative spirit pervaded school organization, curriculum and teaching methods” (Cleverley and Lawry, 1972, p.174). Barcan highlighted that “formalism in education is often characteristic of rural societies”, and this reflected Queensland’s demographic of the time, where approximately 50% of the population lived in rural areas (Cleverley and Lawry, 1972, p.174). Lingard, Hayes and Mills (1999, para. 1) pointed out:

State education bureaucracies in Australia were creations of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries reflecting in part, historic, geographic and demographic aspects of Australia’s creation and development as a modern nation. During this time it was considered that dispersed, and in some cases isolated, communities could be best served by a centralised, bureaucratic and paternalistic system of educational provision.

This was certainly the case with the schooling structure in Queensland at this time. Whilst social change was slower in Queensland than in other states, it nevertheless eventually impacted on schools and schooling practices. The 1950s and 1960s heralded a transformation in social standards, fashions and behaviours, prompting Herbert G Watkins, then Queensland Director General of Education, to ponder whether: “Time alone will show whether the changes have meant advancement or retrogression” (Cleverley and Lawry, 1972, p.193). This was a time where Australia was becoming increasingly exposed to new cultures, becoming more cosmopolitan and increasingly tolerant – in part due to the reflected impact of social and cultural revolutions occurring in the USA, in Western Europe and the UK (Reid & Gill, 2009). This was a time of change when a younger generation found little appeal in long held social codes that emphasised the “virtues of frugality, hard work, present sacrifice for future rewards, individualism, modesty, truthfulness, honesty and chastity” (Cleverley and Lawry, 1972, p.193). The
response to this level of social and educational change is embodied in the work of Wallis (1977), who took issue with perceived falling standards and failings in literacy and numeracy, in addition to broader anxieties that schools were being used as platforms for political, social and moral indoctrination of students (Wallis, 1977). This concern is exemplified by Wallis’ (1977, pp.74-75) assertion that:

The contemporary literature which is set for English studies; the social, political and religious themes which permeate various studies on the curriculum; the playing down of national history for internationalism, are all part of a carefully planned strategy, in the betrayal of Christendom and Western Civilization, by traitors in high places. They hide under the respectable cloak of the United Nations, the Instrument of Global subversion which has assigned UNESCO the task of conditioning the minds of our students to accept the new world order described by Julian Huxley as: “a single world culture with its own philosophy and background of ideas, and its own broad purposes”.

The combined weight of social, political and philosophical change impacting on Australian school systems and educational thought throughout the twentieth century provided the climate for revision and rejection of long held schooling practices, both in Queensland and in the broader Australian context. This transformative process is identified by Reid and Gill (2009, p.6) who, when commenting on civics and citizenship education in schools, contended:

By the 1980s then, the civics and citizenship education function of the school, as represented in the hidden curriculum of school structures and process, was now performing a very different function than the one it had performed in the first half of the 20th century.

2.1.2 Queensland State Schools in the 1970s and 1980s

The early 1970s were a time of substantial, even radial, change for Queensland schools and curricula, and reflected broader social, political and educational changes that had been underway since the end of the Second World War. Bambach (1979) supported this contention. Bambach (1979, p.22) stated: “The 1970s have provided a social, political and economic climate which has been conducive, in many ways, to educational reform”.

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Barcan (1971) identified that the background social conditions of the 1950s and 1960s were providing a platform to support unprecedented educational transformation within Australia in the 1970s (Cleverley & Lawry, 1972). Barcan (1971) further pointed out that, towards the later part of the 1960s, all Australian states were “struggling with the educational crisis inherent in an era of mass democracy, advanced technology, full employment, prosperity, inflation, and the welfare state” (Cleverley & Lawry, 1972).

Barcan’s (1971) views regarding social, political and educational change are further supported by those of Bambach, (1979, p.22), who stated:

The 1970s have also seen a weakening of the stress formerly placed on conformity, and, largely as a result of migration in the 1950s and 1960s, there has developed a diversity of values in Australian society. Greater emphasis on personal choice, tolerance of differing viewpoints, closer human relationships, and the development of self-discipline and self-responsibility are trends in the wider society which have been finding some parallels in the thinking and approaches of educationists, teachers, parents and students. New educational structures to incorporate such trends have been and are being sought in the present decade. Some groups of parents and other citizens have set up their own schools as a direct result of dissatisfaction with existing structures.

Bambach’s (1979) statement regarding a move to a more socially responsive and flexible schooling system at this time was echoed by Reid and Gill (1999, p.6) who observed:

By the mid to late 1970s, most young people were experiencing at least two or three years of secondary schooling, increasing numbers of girls were completing secondary school, the stratified technical and high schools divisions were abandoned in favour of comprehensive high schools, and the traditional competitive academic curriculum came under challenge.

Arguably, Queensland was less able than other states to face the social changes impacting on schools and schooling during this time, due to its traditionally decentralised rural population, its highly formalistic approach to both school and curriculum organisation and a highly bureaucratized and entrenched state
education department (Lingard, Hayes & Mills, 1999). The degree of tension and unease in Queensland created due to the change impacting on the entrenched state education department is exhibited through the words of Lamont, then the Liberal Party member for South Brisbane in the Bjelke-Petersen coalition government (Lamont, 1976). Lamont (1976, p.1745) is quoted in Hansard as stating to the Queensland parliament that:

> We hear it today from the Education Department and we even hear the Minister saying, “Today we are learning for life and not just for jobs.” Social engineering, that is all it is, a concern for personality-developing taking precedence over intellectual discipline in class! Again, it is the radical educationists who are doing this, and the Minister does not recognise it. I can show to honourable members, from the writings of the revolutionary Jean Jacques Rousseau right through to the school of Ivan Illich, the dangerous philosophy that espouses remaking society through the schools. It is not the job of teachers to remake society in the image of some inspired concept of their own or of some philosopher. It is their job to teach and to see that students leave the schools with a body of knowledge that will equip them to be able to cope with their needs in the wider community.

Notwithstanding the above, the 1970s heralded major changes in federal education policy and, by extension, change inexorably occurred in Queensland state schooling. The first of these changes impacting on Queensland schools was delivered by way of the Radford Report. In May of 1970, the Queensland Government’s Radford Committee report signalled the end of 100 years of the public examination in Queensland and other substantial changes to schooling structure and organisation – reflecting the changing social reality of Queensland in the 1970s and, later, the 1980s.

The observations made by Bambach (1979) in relation to a weakening of social conformity and more flexible educational structures can be seen reflected in the implementation of the Radford Report. These changes eventually had the backing of the University of Queensland, the State Government, Independent Schools and Teachers Unions. It would have been expected that curriculum, assessment and pedagogical innovations would continue to be considered, reviewed by appropriate professional educators and scholars, and implemented or
discarded after diligent investigation and acceptance by the various stakeholders. Considering the breadth and potential impact of the recommendations of the Radford Report, the enormity of the changes at this time to Queensland schooling cannot be underestimated or downplayed.

Closely following the implementation of the state-based Radford Report, the *Karmel Report* was delivered in 1973. Delivered by the Commonwealth of Australia, the *Karmel Report* provided for a massive expansion of Commonwealth funding to schools across Australia, (tripling funding in two years), and was characterised by a focus on the equity of outcomes in schools (Welsh, 1999). The *Karmel Report* held that the outcomes of schools be considered in terms of, “the acquisition of skills and knowledge, initiation into the cultural heritage, the valuing of rationality and the broadening of opportunities to respond to and participate in artistic endeavours” (Karmel, 1973, p.14). Thus, the notion of schools and schooling being closely interwoven with social, political and philosophical elements was reinforced within Queensland and Australia. Welsh (1999, para. 8) argued that the *Karmel Report*:

Was consistent with the progressivist educational philosophy of the 1960s and 1970s which focused instead on the needs of the individual child and on social justice within society.

Welsh (1999, para. 13) additionally reported:

By the early 1980s there was general acknowledgement that profound economic, social and technological changes had widespread social and educational implications in Australia.

Reid (2002) supported the views espoused by Welsh (1999). Reid, (2002, p.572), found that “educational change and democratic change are inextricably linked”, providing additional support for the close relationship between schools, schooling and social/political movements and thought.

Queensland of the 1970s and 1980s provided a social, political and philosophical climate within which various educational, religious and social interest lobby groups could flourish. This climate was primarily generated as the result of the right-wing Liberal/National Party coalition (under the premiership of Sir Johannes Bjelke Peterson), and which dominated government in Queensland
for over a generation. Commenting on these various educational interest groups, Cullen (2006, p.21) reported:

Each group saw itself as the ultimate judge of curriculum offerings, standards of excellence and of proper behaviour, with the right to have non-conforming educators punished. This, they held, was their God-granted status.

Of these groups, the best known and most vociferous were STOP (Society to Outlaw Pornography); and CARE (Committee against Regressive Education). Mrs. Rona Joyna chaired both these groups, in addition to her other right-wing conservative affiliations including the Festival of Light and Community Standards Organization. Joyna was described as an individual:

Whose determination and persistence were most successful in having courses, books and programs banned during this period (as leader of) these groups. A powerful person, she made the Bjelke-Petersen Cabinet of the time dance to her tune. (Cullen, 2006, p.30)

The impact of the profound political influence that Joyner’s STOP and CARE groups had on literature and censorship of books and other material in Queensland schools cannot be understated. The mere fact that literary censorship was being imposed in Queensland schools was not necessarily the central issue – in point of fact, Queensland and the Commonwealth of Australia had placed many titles under strict censorship. A significant example of censorship at this time was the furore generated in 1972 by distribution of The Little Red School Book, which was “critical of institutional politics and religion and used explicit language to discuss sexuality and drug use” (The Little Red School Book 2010, para.1). More significant to the Queensland school literature censorship experience was the imposition of a moral compass by a vocal minority, with the permission and assistance of the elected government of the day. This situation continued to paint Queensland and Queenslanders as being almost puritanical in comparison to Australians in other states. By association, it branded Queensland state schooling as possessing a distinctly conservative streak.
Joyna and her minority groups were infamously successful in banning two major social studies projects from implementation into Queensland state schools. These were

*Man: A Course of Study* (MACOS) in primary schools and the *Social Education Materials Project* (SEMP) in secondary schools (Cullen, 2006). Cullen (2006, p.33) reported that:

Controversy over the use of Man: A Course of Study raged through city and provincial newspapers, special public meetings, television interviews, talkback programs and letters to the editor. A Sunday Mail article on 25 September headlined ‘Rona Pans Film That Shows Birds Necking’ printed her claim that ‘Queensland is fast becoming a humidicrib to a bunch of dirty-minded little pagans’ and the course ‘… could lead to talking about sex’.

Mrs. Joyner also claimed that the course was a threat to Christianity. The Townsville Bulletin (1985) reported Joyner stating that MACOS “exposed primary school children to cannibalism, infanticide, senilicide, bestiality, sexual permissiveness, the transcendent nature of physical pleasure”. The MACOS and SEMP controversy typifies the anti-intellectualism, bigotry and spiritual torpor of 1970s Queensland, as previously outlined by Harms (2005).

### 2.1.3 Queensland State Schools in the 1990s and beyond

Lingard, Hayes and Mills (1999, para. 1) reported, “The Queensland government school system like those in other states of Australia was highly centralized and bureaucratic until the 1980s”. However, as the 1980s gave way to the 1990s, schools in Queensland (and indeed across Australia in general) began to change in terms of their structure and management. Lightbody (2010, p.6) pointed out that “since the 1980s numerous education reforms have swept the western world”, and these changes have impacted significantly on schools. It can be argued that, not only were Queensland state schools dealing with structural changes and reforms to schools as a result of the impact of globalization, they were also overwhelmed by technological and social changes that occurred in rapid succession. Pickering (2001, p.50) proposed that: “In recent decades, globalization has ploughed deep furrows across Australia’s cultural landscape”. Arguably, education and schools
have not been immune from this impact. Within this milieu of change, there was little certainty regarding future directions on either side of politics or within education circles. Pitman (1999, p.11) suggested, “no one really knows what the future holds. The labour market is changing rapidly, and our predictions for tomorrow, let alone 2010, may not be right”. Thomas (1999, p.43) pointed out that, at the time of the 1994 Wiltshire Report (a Queensland government project conducted in alignment with a national move towards improvement in teacher quality), “Media coverage of educational issues appeared to be consistently negative, generating a crisis mentality towards education”. At a national level, debate continued to be focused on issues of Australian identity, and schools found themselves to be central to involvement in that debate. Prime Minister John Howard’s 2006 Australia Day address referred to “a successful rebalancing of Australia’s national identity and cultural and ethnic diversity”, additionally claiming, “there was much more to do and that education was central to this work” (Reid & Gill, 1999, p.13). Arguably, Howard’s views of the rebalancing of Australian culture and society in 2006 were coloured by his personal beliefs in how these goals would be achieved. Howard saw schools and schooling as important social engineering mechanisms to bring about this rebalance, evidenced in his 2006 Australia Day address when he stated:

Quite apart from a strong focus on Australian values, I believe the time has also come for root and branch renewal of the teaching of Australian history in our schools, both in terms of the numbers learning and the way it is taught. (Howard, 2006, para. 41)

Within his speech, Howard gave voice to views which reverberated with the spirit of the “practical spirit of Australian democracy” previously alluded to by Cleverley and Lawry (1972, p.172). Howard (2006, para. 42) argued: “Part of preparing young Australians to be informed and active citizens is to teach them the central currents of our nation’s development”. In this sense, Howard may also be considered to have adopted at least the sense of neo-Herbartism in his stance on education as a building block of morals and personal character. In keeping with the essentially egalitarian nature of his views regarding Australian history and democratic process, Howard (2006, para. 42) espoused that in Australian schools:
The subject matter should include indigenous history as part of the whole national inheritance. It should also cover the great and enduring heritage of Western civilization, those nations that became the major tributaries of European settlement and in turn a sense of the original ways in which Australians from diverse backgrounds have created our own distinct history. It is impossible, for example, to understand the history of this country without an understanding of the evolution of parliamentary democracy or the ideas that galvanized the Enlightenment.

It can be argued that Howard’s 2006 Australia Day address provided the political catalyst for a move towards the development of an Australian national curriculum.

The pace of social change at both a global and national level elicited responses at a state level. In the 1990s, the governing Queensland Labor Party under Premier Peter Beattie embraced change on a wholesale level via their Smart State agenda. For education, the Smart State agenda was embodied in the Queensland State Education 2010 project (QSE 2010). The focus of the project was to “develop a long-term strategic direction for public education in Queensland” (“Queensland State Education Project 2010”, 1999, para. 1).

The QSE 2010 document (1999, p.3) recognized that:

The world is changing rapidly. Teachers, parents and children face those changes in schools every day. This strategy is the way to get the best from these changes that are reshaping the life chances and opportunities of young Queenslanders. It reflects the values of the partners in the learning process — students, teachers and parents. Through Queensland state schools, they can work with business and the community to build a future state education system — the smart option for our communities and our society.

At this time, the extent of the fundamental changes impacting on schools, schooling, educational practices and society was a highly debated issue and tended to have a polarizing effect within both the teaching community and the broader community.

Queensland as a state had a long tradition of primary production, mining and medium level manufacturing industries. Students were offered vocationally oriented subjects in secondary schools alongside the more traditional academic
subjects. The new rhetoric of a Smart State, with a focus on the development of new markets and a new knowledge economy was a major philosophical shift for many Queenslanders. The QSE 2010 document highlighted the evolving nature of family structures, cultural demographic, economic base, information technology, government role and workforce skills and competitiveness as key focus areas. As discussed earlier, change in schooling practices in Queensland had traditionally been a measured process and approached in a conservative manner. The impact of the QSE 2010 document, accompanied by the overarching Queensland Smart State agenda, was seen by many as a disruption to long-held, comfortable beliefs about teaching and the nature and purpose of schools and schooling. This changing scenario can be encapsulated by the term “learning or earning” (Dixon, 2003). This term was a reference to the Youth Participation in Education and Training Bill 2003, which made it:

Compulsory for young people to remain at school until they have completed Year 10 or turn 16, whichever occurs first. The Bill creates a new ‘compulsory participation’ obligation for young people to undergo defined education or training options, or obtain paid employment for at least 25 hours per week, for a further two years, or until they obtain a Senior Certificate or a Certificate III, or until they turn 17. (Dixon, 2003, p.1)

The idea that all of Queensland’s youth were either ‘learning or earning’ became a mantra that was continually repeated by Premier Beattie and government ministers of the day. The rationale behind the legislation was:

To address the fact that 10,000 or more young people aged 15 to 17 are not in school, training, or work and to enable all young Queenslanders to have the means of participating fully and equitably in the future of the State. (Dixon, 2003, p.5)

The implementation of this legislation in Queensland rapidly altered the demographic of state secondary schools. The legislation resulted in high retention rates of senior students who would normally have left school to follow other pathways. In turn, schools needed to quickly respond to the specific needs of these students with appropriate programs and corresponding increases in the number of staff members.
Alongside of the QSE 2010 document, the Queensland government also instigated the Queensland New Basics Project between 2000 and 2004 (Page, 2003). During this period, there were two distantly different curricula being offered in Queensland state schools (and sometimes, within in the same school). The New Basics Project was described as “a major experiment in task-oriented and transdisciplinary learning in Queensland schools” (Page, 2003, p.1). The New Basics Project was initially undertaken as a 4-year trial by a variety of state schools across Queensland, with a view to expansion if deemed successful. From a political and social perspective, Queensland was undergoing a period of substantial change in the lead up to the new millennium.

Queensland in the 1990s had initially been characterised by the contemplative aftermath of the Fitzgerald Inquiry and the ending of decades of National Party rule under Premier Joh Bjelke-Petersen. The Fitzgerald Inquiry revealed endemic corruption within the Queensland police force, as well as allegations of corruption by politicians, including the Premier Sir Joh Bjelke-Petersen. The catalyst for the inquiry had been the airing of an ABC Four Corners program that exposed illegal prostitution and gambling being conducted in Brisbane’s Fortitude Valley, with the alleged support of Queensland police. After such a public coverage of a reality that had been denied for many years by conservative politicians, the inquiry, led by QC Tony Fitzgerald, proved to be a socially cathartic experience for Queensland and Queenslanders. The inquiry resulted in the police commissioner Sir Terrence Lewis being convicted of corruption and forgery charges, being stripped of his knighthood and, ultimately, serving a prison sentence. The political fallout from evidence presented to the inquiry resulted in Joh Bjelke-Petersen resigning as Premier of Queensland, after an unsuccessful attempt to retain leadership by requesting the Governor of Queensland to dismiss all of his ministers after they deposed him in a party room ballot. It is not an overstatement to suggest that this era was incredibly damaging to the social fabric of the state.

The 1990s saw both the Wayne Goss Labour Government and the Rob Borbidge Liberal/National Party Coalition parties in power, as Queensland came to terms politically and socially to life without the strictures of the conservative Bjelke-Petersen government. Labour leader Peter Beattie returned Labour to power in Queensland in 1998. Arguably, Beattie’s key agenda on gaining power was to
transform Queensland into Australia’s *Smart State* via a restructuring of the education system, up-skilling the future and existing workforce to position Queensland to capitalize on new knowledge economies. Beattie’s government lost no time in openly encouraging research and development and high tech biotechnology, information technology and aviation industries to relocate to Queensland.

The launch of the Queensland New Basics Project was a major policy plank in Beattie’s broad political agenda. Grauf (2001, p.1) outlined that, during the initial consultation process for the development of the QSE 2010 document, “many teachers, parents, students and school administrators raised questions about the appropriateness of current curriculum, pedagogy and assessment. There was concern expressed that the world was changing very rapidly and that the current school curriculum was not keeping pace with this change”. The alignment of the buoyant Beattie Labour Government that espoused the Smart State mantra in all areas of state government, in concert with the QSE 2010 document that recognised and embraced social and educational change, provided an ideal environment for a level of educational experimentation, unprecedented in Queensland’s history.

Beattie’s government became infamous for utilizing political spin-doctors to orchestrate the delivery, tone and focus of government policy. The choice of the phrase ‘New Basics’ was arguably a conscious choice by Beattie’s spin-doctors, with the aim of clearly differentiating the new curriculum structure from any that had preceded it, by linking it to change that had occurred in the United States in preceding years. The term ‘New Basics’ sprang from grass roots education policy implemented in the United States in the mid-1980s by the Reagan administration (Rist, 1989). At the time, the Republican Reagan administration was portraying itself as opposing the mediocrity and softness that it believed had crept into US schools, bolstering public opinion by focussing on a “new federalism” for the United States (Rist, 1989, p.695). Globally, it was also a time of stark political differences been Soviet and American systems; a time of high levels of tension in Cold War brinksmanship.

Domestically in the US, it was a time of social change with the implementation of “Reaganomic” economic policies, which signalled decreased government funding on social services and an encouragement of private and corporate development and investment.
Following the release of a national review into US Education, entitled *Nation at Risk*, the conservative Reagan administration tapped into strong sentiments held by a large proportion of the population that the core problems with schools were drugs, discipline, standards and teachers (Rist, 1989). Rist (1989, p.696) outlined that the Reagan administration, aligned with the majority of the US population, felt that:

- Moral values, prayer and character education needed to be returned to schools;
- Achievement levels in public schools should be made public and compared across school systems, within and across states;
- Teachers would be better teachers if they earned salary increases by merit;
- Most students do not work hard enough in high school;
- School curricula should concentrate on the basics, and include more “hard” subjects and fewer electives.

In his 1984 *State of the Union* address, President Reagan clearly articulated his federal government’s tough new basics stance by stating:

> But we must do more to restore discipline to the schools; and we must encourage the teaching of new basics, reward teachers of merit, enforce standards, and put our parents back in charge. (Rist, 1989, p.688)

Within this conservative social and political landscape, the then US Secretary of Education Bennett advocated for and introduced the Three C’s agenda – for content, choice and character (Rist, 1989). In addition to the educational basics that the administration and general populace were calling for (i.e. mathematics, science, English and history), Bennett and the federal administration called for the inclusion of new basics – greater emphasis on science, greater emphasis on mathematics and the inclusion of computer skills (Rist, 1989). Additionally, Rist (1989, p.697) stated: “Finally, the administration emphasized the link between education and the economy. Discussions about vocational education were framed in terms of the direct link between education and employability”.

Page (2003, p.2) clearly articulated the political spin associated with the Queensland New Basics Project when he stated, “it is sufficient to say that the introduction of New Basics by a conservative administration in the United States is
somewhat ironic, given the progressive rhetoric with which the Queensland New Basics is clothed”. The rhetoric of the Beattie government was one of new economies and workplaces, new technologies, new family structures, diverse communities and complex cultures within a new Smart State. As such, the Queensland New Basics was designed as a framework “for curriculum, pedagogy and assessment that provides opportunities for students to develop the skills and knowledge to survive and flourish in changing economic, social and technological conditions” (Grauf, 2001, p.1).

This is a view that was also held by Matters (2006, para. 13) who stated:

The New Basics approach to curriculum, teaching, assessment, reporting and school organisation was developed and trialled because of a widespread recognition and acceptance in 1999 – 2000 that major changes in education were absolutely essential, particularly in the compulsory years of schooling.

The New Basics framework incorporated the use of transdisciplinary Rich Tasks (for assessment) and a suite of Productive Pedagogies used by teachers to assist students to meet learning goals. Table 4 below provides an overview of the New Basics Rich Tasks between Year 1 and Year 9.

### Table 4. New Basics Rich Tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>For Years 1-3</th>
<th>For Years 4-6</th>
<th>For Years 7-9</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Web page design</td>
<td>Travel itineraries</td>
<td>Science and ethics confer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Multimedia presentation of an endangered plant or animal</td>
<td>Narrative text</td>
<td>Improving wellbeing in the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical fitness</td>
<td>Personal health plan</td>
<td>The built environment: designing a structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read and talk about stories</td>
<td>A celebratory, festive or artistic event or performance</td>
<td>Australian national identity: influences and perspectives</td>
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<td>Historical and social aspects of a craft</td>
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Within the Queensland New Basics Project, a Rich Task is best described as:

A culminating performance that is purposeful and models a life role. It presents real, substantive problems to solve and engages learners in forms of pragmatic social action that have genuine value in the world. Each task demands that students engage in solving particular problems of significance and relevance to their world, community, school or region. The problems require identification, analysis and resolution and require that students analyse, theorize and intellectually engage with that world. In this way, tasks have a connectedness to the world outside school. (Grauf, 2001, p.5)

In a radical move away from traditional curriculum offerings, including those proposed with the QSE2010 document, the structure and delivery of The New Basics challenged teachers, students and parents. For secondary school teachers, one major hurdle was the high level of collaboration and coordination required between sometimes disparate teaching teams where: “No single Rich Task is to be completed by one teacher alone or within the four walls of one classroom. Rather it is a collaborative effort that has an end-point with validity in terms of its connectedness to the wide world” (Grauf, 2001, p.4). Arguably, the level of curriculum change required for the New Basics Project to flourish, from the pre-existing traditional model, proved to be a situation of too much, too quickly. As Grauf (2001) argued, the New Basics Project required a cultural shift in teaching and pedagogy to occur in Queensland state schools. In Grauf’s words, “Community expectation for learning that prepares students for the complexity of modern life means that teachers must, to a certain extent, reinvent themselves” (Grauf, 2001, p.2). Indeed, the implementation of the New Basics Project was the first time in the history of schooling in Queensland that the role of the teacher was called upon to change in any significant way. Matters (2006, para. 4) stated:

And we changed teaching by ‘upping the ante’ intellectually, challenging teachers professionally, and connecting what was done in the classroom to the real world.

Secondary school teachers, who had previously understood their position in the social construction of schools – i.e. curriculum specialists – were required to collaborate in planning with other curriculum areas, teach classes in multi-
disciplinary contexts and assess collaboratively (sometimes using the knowledge base of community members). For some secondary school teachers, The New Basics Project was seen as a professional challenge. However, for a large number of teachers and bureaucrats, The New Basics Project was met with strong levels of resistance (“Teachers resist change,” 2004). Given a timespan of four years for the trial, in hindsight it may seem optimistic to expect wholesale cultural shift to have occurred in a traditionally conservative profession. Matters (2006) identified a range of positive outcomes for Queensland schools and education that flowed from the New Basics trial. Of these, key findings indicated that, with appropriate support structures, systemic curriculum change can occur and can be accepted by teachers, parents and school communities. The New Basics trial also resulted in some critical issues being identified within Queensland education (Matters, 2006). Matters (2006, para. 37) identified the following areas of concern:

- Large gaps between the intended and enacted curriculum
- The capacity for some schools to manage change and meet future needs
- Diversity in the nature of the relationship between schools and their communities
- Capacity of teachers in curriculum content areas
- Coherence of Queensland’s education message system.

The New Basics continued the Queensland focus on strong links between schooling, employment and economic growth, in accord with the government’s Smart State policy. This link was most evidenced in the development and structure of the Rich Tasks International Trade and Personal Career Development Plan, which clearly focussed on future career and economic issues.

Concurrently, educators such as Greg Whitby from the Catholic School sector in New South Wales had also vigorously embraced this environment of change. In a radio interview with the ABC’s Richard Fidler, Whitby (2008, para. 6) stated:

I’ve had the idea and the opinion for some time that there’s probably a fundamental mismatch between the ways most schools operate and the world in which we now live. Most of our schools are still based on an industrial model of schooling and haven’t changed much at least in 150 years. Schools are about mass production. They’re built by adults
for adults and not for kids... we know we live in a knowledge age, a very different age.

Whitby (2007) regularly disseminated his views regarding 21st century pedagogy schooling and school renewal, broadcasting to the public domain via YouTube video. Whitby (2007) commented on his beliefs on change in schools and schooling by stating:

We stand together at the beginning of a transformation of schooling for life. While we live in a digital age, the essential conversation is not just about technology in classrooms. Rather, it is about new relationships between teachers and learners, between learners and the process through which they grow in competence and wisdom, and between what happens in formal education and what happens in the home, the workplace and the community.

Ultimately, the experiment of The Queensland New Basics trial quietly stalled; then disappeared soon after the four-year trial phase concluded. Numerous reasons – political, social and educational – may be attributed to the shift of the teaching spotlight back towards a more traditional approach to Queensland schooling. In all likelihood, there were multiple, complex and interrelated influences that combined to bring about the demise of the trial. Potentially, the tipping point that signalled a move towards both a more traditional schooling structure, and a more traditional role of the teacher, were the so-called ‘culture wars’ that polarized educational debate in the mid-2000s. The culture wars saw the Australian federal government take a position where it supported a back-to-basics approach to education, a position embedded in a broader debate about Australian culture in general (Grattan, 2006). This broader debate was primarily about national identity, and encompassed issues including links with British Empire, the monarchy, recognition of the Stolen Generation and indigenous reconciliation and political perspectives espoused by academics in Australian universities (Grattan, 2006).

The culture wars, as manifested in schools, were supported by Prime Minister Howard, who called for a “root and branch renewal” of teaching history in schools (Howard, 2006). Grattan (2006), writing in The Age newspaper at the time, reported:
John Howard has called for fundamental change in how children are taught Australian history, and claimed victory in the culture wars, including the end of the “divisive, phoney debate about national identity”.

Advisors to Prime Minister Howard, including Dr Kevin Donnelly (2007), strongly promulgated this back to basics stance. Donnelly was an education commentator who had experience in investigating, reviewing and evaluating curriculum within Australia. Donnelly held the position that the education system, as it stood in the mid-2000s, had been hijacked for experimentation and exploitation by Marxist academics from the cultural-left (Donnelly, 2006). Their suggested aim in usurping the establishment system was to “take the long march through institutions like the education system in an attempt to overthrow the status quo and redefine society in terms of what was considered politically correct” (Donnelly, 2006, p.10). The initial shots in the culture-wars began with calls by Prime Minister Howard for a revision of the History curriculum, accompanied by strident questioning and criticism of a number of other educational issues by Donnelly (2006). Over the course of the following decade, the debates between left and right continued, albeit more as an ongoing skirmish than open conflict. The culture-wars were partially resurrected when the Australian Government established the Review of the Australian Curriculum in 2014.

Despite the experimentation that occurred with the trialing of the New Basics Project, the QSE2010 document remained a central policy document for state education in Queensland. To view the QSE2010 document through a socio-cultural lens, the QSE2010 document positioned the functions and curricula of state schools in Queensland to reflect what Morris (1998, p.13) referred to as an image of Social and Economic Efficiency.

Morris (1998, p.13) proposed four main images that influence views about what schools are expected to achieve. The four images are shown on the next page in Figure 2.
Morris (1998) identified four main images:

- **Child Centred** – where the image of schooling is focused on “the needs and growth of individual children” (Morris, 1998, p.13).

- **Academic Rationalist** – where the image of schooling is focused on the need to “enlighten students with the concepts and information which can be derived from the established academic disciplines (such as physics, history and mathematics)” (Morris, 1998, p.13).

- **Social and Economic Efficiency** – where the image “stresses the roles of schools for preparing future citizens who are economically productive. They focus on the need for schools to produce pupils who are able to get jobs and fit into society” (Morris, 1998, p.13).

- **Social Reconstruction** – where the image of schooling is focused on how schools can contribute to bring about an improved society in the future (Morris, 1998).

Morris (1998) stressed that these four images are not intended to be discrete constructions in their own right. As Morris (1998, p.16) pointed out:

> In reality all types of schools are trying to find some sort of balance between the four types of aims. They are trying to teach pupils knowledge, to improve society, to help students develop as individuals and to prepare them for life as adults in society.
Whilst the QSE2010 document does contain all four of Morris’ images of curricular aims, there is a definite orientation towards the social and economic efficiency image. The development of a school system that focuses on future productivity delivered by members of society appropriately formed by schooling was clearly evidenced in the QSE 2010 document. It is a position that is situated within the political and social realities of the time. Referring to the broader goals of the Smart State agenda, The QSE2010 document (1999, p.8) outlines:

There is a challenge facing education in Queensland as we move into an era where knowledge supersedes information and technology transforms longstanding relationships of time and space. It is to become a learning society — the Smart State — in which global forces favour the adaptable, and the key resources will be human and social capital rather than just physical and material resources.

Because human and social capital develop within families and through wider networks, Queensland state schools should be re-conceptualised as part of that learning society and become embedded in communities — local and global — in new ways.

This will transform the means and ends of teaching and learning in schools those involved, the way it occurs, and the principles on which the curriculum is constructed. It changes what teachers do from teacher-centred learning and gatekeepers of information to managers of the learning experiences of children.

Morris (1998) proposed the Social and Economic Efficiency image focuses on schools preparing future citizens – with a clear purpose that these future citizens will be economically productive and conform to a social structure aligned with that worldview. The QSE2010 document (1999, p.12) considered the question of the central purpose of schooling in Queensland, and provided the blueprint for the direction of Queensland state education from 2000 until 2010. The Queensland government’s response to this question continued to remain aligned with a social and economic efficiency model approach, when it stated:

Over the next decade, the central purpose of schooling in Queensland should be to create a safe, tolerant and disciplined environment within which young people prepare to be active and reflective Australian citizens with a disposition to lifelong learning. They will be able to
participate in and shape community, economic and political life in Queensland and the nation. They will be able to engage confidently with other cultures at home and abroad.

The statement above reflected commonly held beliefs about the role of schools, aligned with the government’s encompassing Smart State agenda. There was a clear focus on state schools to act as vehicles to promote a social and economic efficiency agenda.

This position in turn impacted on the roles of teachers, particularly in Queensland State secondary schools. The Smart State Agenda signalled a rise in Vocational Education and Training (VET) courses being delivered in secondary schools, again impacting on the roles that teachers were required to fulfil in a school environment.

Viewed through a sociological lens, the QSE2010 document reflected a structural functionalist orientation. Structural functionalism is a sociological position popularised by social scientists, amongst whom Emile Durkheim (1956) and Talcott Parsons (1968) were two key proponents. Structural functionalism is a perspective that views society as a complex structure – much the same way as a human body or motor vehicles are examples of complex structures (Thompson, 2008). The complex structure of society is comprised of smaller components that interrelate to each other, and are interdependent on each other to allow the structure to maintain solidarity and stability. At a macro level, structural functionalism sees society as having smaller components referred to as social structures. Social structures are relatively stable patterns of social behaviour. Social structures can include family groups, community groups, social activities or religious ceremonies.

Additionally, each social structure has a social function; and these have consequences for the operation of society as a whole (Thompson, 2008). An example of this perspective is to consider education and schooling as a social structure that has a number of social functions, such as internalising commonly held social norms and values, developing cognitive skills leading to the development of future citizens, developing social adjustment, and ensuring social reproduction (Bourdieu, 1993).
The structural functionalist approach, outlined by Parsons (1968), consists of a number of system levels that interrelate with each other to create the overall structure of society. Parsons (1968) proposed four systems. In summary, these are:

- A cultural system – Parson’s proposed that cultural systems such as language, morals and values created a socialization process. In turn, socialization helps to maintain social control and hold society together.
- A social system – Parson’s proposed that social systems were based on role interactions between two or more people (for example, the role of ‘teacher’ interacting with the role of ‘student’). Role interactions allow members of society to hold a foundationally shared reality of society.
- A personality system – Parson’s proposed that society is influenced by the actions of individuals. These actions are based on individual needs, motivations, attitudes and beliefs about other individuals.
- A behavioural organism as a system – Parson’s proposed that the physical body and the physical environment we live in are important elements in determining how individuals exist in society.

When considered in relation to education, Parson’s perspective is that schooling and education is a fundamental structure of society, which serves a number of social functions. The functions include:

- Passing on society’s culture system, by way of morals, values, social mores and language. Morals, values and social mores promulgated within schools are elements of what educators typically refer to as the ‘hidden curriculum’.
- Socialization, through the agency of schools acting as small-scale versions of the wider society.
- Providing a trained and qualified labour force, by schools supplying society with people equipped with appropriate skill to undertake the jobs society needs.

In relation to the statement from the QSE 2010 (1999, p.12) document considered earlier, the clear aim is for schooling, as a social structure, to fulfil a number of specific functions. These include those of passing on the cultural system by preparing “active and reflective Australian citizens”, promoting socialization via a
“safe, tolerant and disciplined environment” and developing a future work force with students being prepared to “participate in and shape community, economic and political life in Queensland”.

This statement from the QSE 2010 document considered earlier must be viewed in relation to its underlying premise, and the correlation to the underpinning ideals of the next change phase to impact Queensland schools.

In the years since the Smart State era, Queensland has seen a further wave of change, along with other Australian states, with the adoption of the Australian national curriculum. Brennan (2011, p.259) reported that the move to institute an Australian national curriculum “emanated from federal governments of ostensibly different political persuasions in the period from 2003, building on developments that go back over 25 years”. Atweh and Singh (2011) pointed out that, although the Australian national curriculum was ostensibly released in March 2011, key questions regarding issues of curriculum content and format were still to be seriously debated. Brennan (2011) drew attention to the politicisation of the national curriculum agenda, and urged caution. Brennan (2011, p.259) reflected that:

This is not a good time for a country to be entering into national curriculum. Not only is the global policy context inimical to the necessary debates about curriculum but the use of the already politicised field of education as a vehicle to reform commonwealth–state relations in a federated system is likely to lose the substance of the issues in the glare of politics. Cultural, technological, media, people and other movements have accompanied globalising economic processes.

Tudball’s (2010) comments in a March 2010 Sydney Morning Herald article both reflected and supported Brennan’s sentiments, highlighting the issues of new technologies, new social movements and new media formats. Tudball (2010, para. 1) wrote:

Australia needs an innovative, world-class approach to school curriculum, but it is clear from the “back to basics” national curriculum draft that we have a long way to go yet. While maths, science, history and English – the disciplines the draft gives priority to – are all critically important, they do not cover many areas of significance for 21st-century learners.
Irrespective of the impact of the Australian national curriculum, Queensland continued to implement schooling reforms and innovations in the post-Smart State environment, under a Liberal/National Party Government, after 20 years of Labour Party rule; and, most recently, under a new Labor Party government. The Queensland Government’s *A Flying Start for Queensland Children* (“A Flying Start for Queensland Children,” 2012) document provides a broad range of innovations specifically aimed to position Queensland schools either on par with other states (or preferably to be seen as superior to other states); and, in some instances, to provide a level of differentiation between Queensland schooling and other states. When considering how the future Queensland of 2020 will develop, the Flying Start document (2012, p.1) suggests, “A smarter Queensland is founded on giving all children access to quality early education and improving Queenslanders’ education and skills”. Morris’ (1997) Social and Economic Efficiency image of curriculum continued to be evidenced within the Flying Start document (2012, p.1), where additional statements included:

Better educational outcomes lead to increases in both the level and rate of economic growth. Queensland, along with the rest of the world, faces a challenging and changing future. This will impact on our education system and on the decisions that young Queenslanders make about their schooling.

The Flying Start document (2012) proposed changes across the entire scope of schooling experiences in Queensland. A summary of the main features includes:

- By 2014, every Queensland child will have access to kindergarten taught by qualified early childhood teachers. Up to 240 extra kindergarten services will be available by 2014 in areas where they are needed most.

- The Preparatory Year (Prep) is to be recognised as the first year of school in Queensland.

- Education starts at home, and parents and families are their children’s first teachers. With this in mind, the free Parent Ready Readers training program provides parents and carers of children in Prep to Year 3 with some key strategies to use at home to support their child’s reading.

- From 2015, Year 7 will become the first year of high school in Queensland.
• Queensland adopted the new Australian Curriculum for the subjects of English, Mathematics and Science at the beginning of 2012. The History curriculum commenced in 2013. Every Queensland school student will study this core national curriculum.

• Improvements in school discipline, the quality of teaching and setting high performance standards for all schools.

preceding strategies and innovations in Queensland, rather than signalling a completely new direction. There remains a strong emphasis on the role of the teacher as an agent to facilitate a social and economic efficiency policy agenda. The most obvious component of difference is the business discourse that surrounds the strategy document. There is a clear move away from an educational discourse – most visibly, one of the five values of the Department of Education and Training (DET) is that it places customers first (Graham, 2014). The State Schools Strategy 2016 – 2020 document explicitly calls for schools to engage with “community, business and industry in decision making” (State Schools Strategy 2016 – 2020, 2016, p.2). It can be argued that the role of the teacher is becoming diffused as multiple layers of social and political agendas compound over time. The stated vision of the Smart Schools Strategy 2016 – 2020 is “Inspiring minds. Creating opportunities. Shaping Queensland’s future”. While teachers are being called on to act as agents of social and economic change to help direct Queensland on a path into the future, their actual role in the process is ill defined and sometimes at odds with other roles that teachers undertake in their profession.

In parallel to the state-based reviews, plans and programs outlined above, in 2014 the federal Education Minister appointed Professor Ken Wiltshire AO and Dr Kevin Donnelly to conduct an independent review of the Australian Curriculum. To many observers, the review was contentious and seen as politically and ideologically motivated, especially as the states were still in the process of managing the introduction of the Australian Curriculum. The appointment of these two reviewers was also a contentious issue, as the appointment of Donnelly reignited elements of the culture-wars of the mid- 2000s (Louden, 2014). Both reviewers were overtly critical of the Australian Curriculum. For example, Wiltshire saw the curriculum as piecemeal and was concerned that it did not have the support of expert academics from discipline areas (Louden, 2014). Additionally, Donnelly’s capacity for independent review of the Australian Curriculum was questioned by Louden (2014). Louden (2014, para. 3) stated:

The other reviewer, Dr Kevin Donnelly, has argued that the Australian Curriculum is ideologically biased. He has said that the history curriculum is “hostile to Western civilisation” and that English is “nodding in the direction of phonics” but favours progressive reading teaching “where children are taught to look and guess”.

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Despite the criticisms of the Australian Curriculum raised by the reviewers, the majority of stakeholders in the Australian education community signalled their support for the Australian Curriculum. These stakeholders included the Mathematics Teachers’ Association, the Science Teachers’ Association, the History Teachers’ Association and the English Teachers’ Association, all of which endorsed the Australian Curriculum they had contributed to in the developmental stages (Lauden, 2014). Adoniou, Louden, Zyngier & Riddle (2015) reported that the review ultimately offered a total of 30 recommendations. These included:

- More emphasis on our Judeo-Christian heritage, the role of Western civilisation in contributing to our society, and the influence of our British system of government
- More emphasis on morals, values and spirituality
- There should be a renewed focus on monitoring students’ progress
- A smaller, more parent-friendly curriculum should be developed
- Examples of A to E standards of work should be created as markers of quality
- The amount of content in the curriculum should be reduced, especially in the primary years. Prep to Year 2 should focus on literacy and numeracy
- More research should be undertaken into different methods of teaching, with the results to inform future evaluations of the curriculum
- A restructure of the curriculum authority, ACARA, should take place so it is “at arm’s length” from education ministers and the education department
- The curriculum should be reviewed every five years

A number of the recommendations of the National Curriculum Review had the potential to impact significantly on Queensland schooling; they signalled a further additional layer of change for teachers and schools to negotiate and manage. Adoniou, Louden & Savage (2015, para 2) identified that:

Of the 30 recommendations, the government ultimately followed through on only four:

- Reduce curriculum crowding
- Increase parent accessibility
● Address the needs of students with intellectual disabilities
● Increase phonics in the curriculum

Adoniou, Louden & Savage (2015) importantly noted two key outcomes for Queensland state schooling that flowed from the National Curriculum Review. The first is that “the design of the Australian Curriculum has emerged out of complex debates about the kinds of knowledge and skills young people need in an increasingly globalising and changing world” (Adoniou, Louden & Savage 2015, para 17). We now see a greater alignment between Queensland state schooling and federal government stances – an alignment that has long been fractured or missing all together. The second is that “there’s also a good argument to be made that Australia doesn’t really have a national curriculum yet. Instead, our federal system of governance has ensured multiple interpretations and enactments of the curriculum have emerged across states and territories (Adoniou, Louden & Savage 2015, para 24). This is certainly true for Queensland state schools where the state government has developed its own hybrid Queensland version of the Australian Curriculum. The Queensland state education interpretation of the National Curriculum is known as the C2C program – Curriculum into the Classroom. To support this program for all students in Queensland, the state government has provided modified sets of C2C resources to Catholic and Independent schools in Queensland.

2.1.4 Queensland State Schools – Summation

Schools and the practice of schooling in Queensland state schools have evolved within a continuously changing dynamic of historical, social, moral, political and philosophical underpinnings. These factors have impacted to greater or lesser degrees during the 20th and now 21st centuries. It is evident that the practice of state schooling in

Queensland continues to hold vestiges of historical practices – whether through continued entrenched policy procedures, deeply entrenched views of the nature and reason for schools and schooling and deeply entrenched social and political views of the roles of teachers. Additionally, the hold on historical vestiges of educational practices may also be through subtler ‘heirloom’ views of pedagogy, teaching practice and methodology.
Simultaneously, Queensland state schools and schooling are involved with managing unprecedented social and technological change within an unpredictable global, national, and state political and social climate. The roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland are currently abstruse – on one hand focussed on the social/emotional components of the profession, on another managing the continued measurement of high level performance for all students via interpretation of data sets, whilst concurrently integrating employability capacity for all students to meet the requirements of government mandated policy as well as having to develop individually as a professional via peer learning groups and professional development programs.

One tangible outcome of the Queensland Government’s *A Flying Start for Queensland Children* document was the creation of the Caldwell and Sutton report of 2010. This report sprang as an extension from the Flying Start document. The Caldwell and Sutton report was designed to augment the Flying Start report, providing a:

Review and report on how teachers are prepared for professional practice in Queensland, and to provide timely advice for improving teacher preparation and induction into the profession.

It is from the juncture provided by the Caldwell and Sutton report that the research will now segue into a consideration of the literature surrounding teacher education in Queensland.

### 2.2 The social, political and philosophical elements of Teacher Education in Queensland

Initial Teacher Education (ITE) has been conducted in Queensland in various iterations for over a century (Dyson, 2005). During this time, a close-knit, sometimes turbulent, relationship has existed between Queensland teacher education institutions and the various employing bodies that provide employment for graduate teachers. Any investigation of the perspectives of preservice teachers in Queensland must be backgrounded by an appreciation of the development, organisation and the past, present and potential future trends surrounding preservice teacher education. As such, an overview of the social, political and philosophical background of teacher education in Queensland will provide a
comparative backdrop against which to position contemporary teacher education; and, by extension, current preservice teacher perspectives. A review of preservice teacher education in Queensland will also need to include reference to federal government educational agendas that impact at a state level.

2.2.1 A Historical Overview

Dyson (2005) has suggested six (6) eras of teacher education in Australia (see Table 5, below). Dyson’s work has been accepted and reflected on by others in the field, including Aspland (Aspland, 2006; O’Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008), Brennan and Willis (Brennan & Willis, 2008) and Vick (1997, 2006, 2007). Whilst the main focus of this thesis is concerned with preservice teacher preparation from the 1990s onwards, it is pertinent to briefly consider the entire breadth of preservice teacher preparation in Queensland to provide a contextual backdrop.

The first era identified by Dyson (2005) dates from the mid-1800s, and involves the training of teachers in Model Schools (typically referred to as Normal Schools in Queensland), via the pupil-teacher system (Holthouse, 1975; O’Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008; Vick, 2006). This apprenticeship system was characterized by “on-the-job, skills-based training”, and bore a close resemblance to the trade apprenticeship schemes of the time, which focused predominately on skills acquisition and development of specific competencies (Dyson, 2005, p.40). Model Schools under the Australian National system of education were typically based on those of the same name operating within Ireland (Eakin, 1999). Under the Irish system,

Selected trainees were supervised in their teaching of 100 pupils for six months in each district model school. Each was intended to produce six male and two female teachers annually, who would then take a two-year training course before qualifying. (Eakin, 1999)

In Queensland, Normal Schools were established for similar purposes (Aspland, 2008). Holthouse (1975, p.19) reported that the functions of Queensland Normal Schools were to be

A large, centrally situated primary school in which the most up-to-date teaching methods could be developed; secondly, it was to be a training school for pupil teachers; thirdly, it was to serve as a model
establishment in which older candidates for employment as teachers would take a short course of one month in teaching methods, discipline and school management.

Teacher preparation under the pupil teacher system entailed the identification of promising pupils by existing teachers. These pupils (typically 13 – 14 years of age) were offered a course via the Normal school whereby they spent part of their time receiving instruction on pedagogy, and part of their time developing their craft of teaching by undertaking teaching duties in their schools (Aspland, 2008; Butler & Joseph, 1994; Clarke, 1985; Holthouse, 1975; Kyle, Manathunga, & Scott, 1999; O’Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008). Holthouse (1975) outlined that the pupil teacher’s work was subject to inspection on a monthly basis by the Headmaster, and once a year in a more rigorous manner by an Inspector of Schools. Additionally, pupil teachers were required to sit annual examinations in “arithmetic, geography, English grammar and composition, music, drill, history, Latin, school management, Euclid and algebra” (Holthouse, 1975). One pupil teacher who, after entering employment with the Department of Public Instruction in 1912, rose to become Director-General of Education in Queensland was Herbert George Watkin. Watkin described the pupil teacher system as “producing teacher-technicians at the expense of the children”, signalling his concerns with the system (Watkins, 1961, p.284).

Whilst other states in Australia adopted other methods of in initial teacher education in the early part of the 1900s, Queensland continued to use a system similar to that of the Normal School pupil-teacher model until well into the 1930s (Swan, 2014).

The second era of teacher preparation in Australia evolved in the early 1900s (Dyson, 2005). This era saw the growth and development of Teachers Colleges in State capital cities (Dyson, 2005). Vick (2006, p.184) has described this era as one where, “a model of teacher training was established and normalised, involving a multi-dimensional program which integrated theoretical studies with classroom observation and practice”. At this time, the development of Teachers Colleges was seen as a necessity in order to impart a level of theoretical knowledge to preservice teachers, prior to their employment in a school environment. In Queensland, the Teachers Colleges were located at Kelvin Grove, Mt Gravatt and Kedron Park (all in Brisbane) and in Townville in North Queensland. Aspland (2008) has proposed that at this time:
The influence of psychology and the impact of liberal or child-centred theory about education were reflected in a renewed interest in the role of theory in teacher development and the importance of instruction in student learning.

Holthouse (1975) added to this picture by outlining that, within Queensland, this period was one of acute shortage of adequately trained teachers, due to the recent introduction of State High Schools (and hence free secondary education) by the Queensland government and the continued development of technical colleges across the state. Further, Holthouse (1975) suggests that the amalgamation of university level education to the existing models of practical training that was made available through a Teachers Training College was a defining forward step in the development of teacher education in Queensland. At this time, primary school teachers typically trained in Teachers Training Colleges, and secondary school teachers typically trained to a bachelor’s degree level within a university. Dyson (2005) proposes that the move for teacher education to be conducted within the structured environment of a University or Teachers Training College (rather than within schools via the pupil-teacher training model) was the vehicle by which teaching initially became recognised as a profession.

Dyson (2005) targets the post-Second World War years as the third identifiable era of teacher preparation in Australia. This era saw the continuation of state-funded Teacher Training Colleges, which continued with the structure of a vocational or teacher training mode for primary school teachers, whilst some secondary school teachers enjoyed a further level of specialist preparation within the then state-funded universities (Dyson, 2005). Swan (2014, p.111) reported that in Queensland:

The emphasis at the College up until the 1940s was training teachers, but gradually, on the initiative of the Principal and staff, there was a move to educating the teachers. Lecturers encouraged students to enrol in university courses and attempted to broaden the curriculum in their lectures.

The isolation of the Teachers Training College from other institutions was a reflection on the position of teaching as a skilled, technical trade rather than as a professional pathway. Dyson (2005, p.41) pointed out that, during this post-war
period, “to accommodate the shortage of teachers, standards of entry were lowered and the duration of courses was further shortened”. The Report of the Committee on Australian Universities (referred to as the Murray Report), released in 1957, identified the need for increased tertiary-trained professionals (including teachers) at this time. The Murray Report (1957, p.x) stated:

The post war community calls for more and more graduates of an increasing variety of kinds. The proportion of the population which is called upon to give professional or technical services of one kind or another is increasing every day; and the proportion of such people who have to be graduates is increasing also.

The fourth identifiable era of teacher education in Australia began to develop in the mid-1960s, and came into full effect in the early 1970s (Breen, 2002; Dyson, 2005). The Binary System of Teacher Education was an evolutionary stage within the higher-education sector. This period was hallmarked by a marked decline in state-funded and state- controlled higher education institutions. In Queensland, the parliamentary report titled Teacher Education in Queensland: Report of the Committee Appointed to Review Teacher Education in Relation to the Needs and Resources of Queensland and to Make Recommendations on the Future Development of Teacher Education was published in 1971. This was subsequently referred to as the Murphy report, named after the chair of the committee, Gordon Murphy. One of the recommendations to come out of the Murphy report was in relation to increasing the academic standing of teachers and teacher education. The committee recommended that teacher education programs leading to registration be increased to a three-year Diploma of Teaching program, with entry to the Teachers College limited to those with a satisfactory academic record based on selected subjects completed to Year 12 matriculation level (Swan, 2014).

The move to a Binary System of Teacher Education resulted in a bipartite higher education system, divided between Universities and Colleges of Advanced Education (CAE’s) (Dyson, 2005). The federal government funded both Universities and Colleges of Education. One contemporary commentator, (Lourens, 1985), observed that the Colleges of Advanced Education sector at this time could be characterised as follows:
They have tended to be a little less autonomous than universities; closer to the community, more locally oriented, more vocational, more teaching oriented, more emphasis on teacher training and business, more politically favoured, more expansive, in some cases more aggressive and better resourced in terms of funding increases, but with lower funding levels per student.

The same commentator, (Lourens, 1985), offered the following observations of the characteristics of the university sector at this time:

The university sector might be said to: place a higher value on autonomy, be more oriented to the national and international community, accept a special obligation to carry out research, have a commitment to excellence rather than numbers, attract the better quality students, possess more highly qualified staff, produce more publications, have been less favoured over the last fifteen years, also have experienced considerable financial pressure but been resourced at higher levels per student.

Dyson (2005) implies that in some ways the Binary System of Teacher Education clouded the perception of teaching as a profession. Arguably, this was due to the contradictions that arose in terms of graduate teachers. The perceived quality and capacity of a university graduate who held a bachelor’s degree in addition to their teacher qualifications was superior to a graduate from a College of Advanced Education (CAE) who held a Diploma of Teaching qualification. The traditional university experience was seen as being superior to the vocational focus found at the CAE. The training focus of CAE’s, which lacked the research focus of universities, was considered to have less rigour, and therefore less value, than that of a university (Dyson, 2005). Dyson (2005, p.44) stated that “the universities, with a research orientation, were to prepare the professions in society, and the Colleges of Advanced Education were designed to prepare the vocational or service providers of society”. At this time, teacher education was “in an ambiguous position, since primary teacher education was viewed as ‘hands on’ practice and secondary teacher education – occurring in both universities and colleges – was seen as at the bottom of the intellectual ladder” (Dyson, 2005, pp.42 – 43). The Binary System of Tertiary Education saw teacher graduates’ qualifications rise to a
minimum three-year diploma level, which can arguably be linked to an increase in teachers’ professional standing in society, and marked a further move towards a more professional approach to teacher education (Dyson, 2005).

The Binary System of Teacher Education was the precursor to the fifth era of teacher education in Australia: the Unified System of Higher Education (Breen, 2002; Dyson, 2005). Both Breen (2002) and Dyson (2005) report that the Federal Minister for Education, the Hon. John Dawkins, was instrumental in a further restructuring of the Higher Education sector in the mid-1980s, leading to the introduction of the Unified System of Higher Education. The Unified System of Higher Education saw universities and Colleges of Advanced Education (including Teachers Colleges) merge, with a view to creating larger, more efficient organizations. Breen (2002, p.1) reported that “when fully implemented, the 18 universities and 47 CAEs in 1985 had become 30 universities in 1991 and 35 by 1994”. Dyson (2005) believes that the move to a Unified System of Higher Education had positive effects in raising the profile of teaching as a profession, with “four year university-based degree programs” becoming the minimum requirement for teacher graduates (Dyson, 2005).

Table 5. Dyson’s eras of teacher education in Australia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Model School Era</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>● 1850s until early 20th Century.</td>
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<td>● In Queensland, known as “Normal Schools”.</td>
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<tr>
<td>● Based on Irish National System model.</td>
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<tr>
<td>● Extensive use of the pupil-teacher apprenticeship method of teacher training.</td>
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<th>2. State-based Teachers’ College Era</th>
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<tr>
<td>● Early 20th Century (1920s).</td>
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<tr>
<td>● Development of a more theoretical educational base to teacher training.</td>
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<tr>
<td>● Involvement of some universities into aspects of teacher education.</td>
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<td>● Initial calls for recognition of teaching as a profession.</td>
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<th>3. Post World-War Two Era</th>
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<tr>
<td>● 1945 – 1960s.</td>
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<tr>
<td>● ‘Vocational Approach to teacher training.</td>
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<tr>
<td>● Largely undertaken in state-controlled and funded Teachers’ Colleges.</td>
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<tr>
<td>● Small number of university-based Graduate Diploma of Education programs for secondary teacher preparation.</td>
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<td>● This era was a time of national teacher shortages.</td>
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4. **Binary System of Teacher Education Era**

- 1970s.
- State-based Colleges of Advanced Education funded by the Federal Government.
- Colleges of Advanced Education (CAE’s) self-governing institutions under the supervision of state coordinating bodies.
- Binary System comprised CAE’s and Universities.
- Focus on growing the profession of teaching.

5. **Unified System of Higher Education Era**

- 1980s – 1990s.
- Amalgamation and reconstitution of CAE’s into Universities, during the time of John Dawkins (Federal Minister for Education).
- Continued call for recognition of teaching as a profession.

6. **Unified National System of Teacher Education Era**

- 1990s – present.
- From early 1990s, calls made for a standardization of preservice teacher education.

Dyson (2005) has identified three recurring elements, or tensions, that have impacted on teacher education, both at a national and state level:

- Education versus Training; Theory versus Practice
- Supply versus Demand
- Profession versus skilled and competent practitioners

These tensions are identifiable in contemporary teacher education in many western countries (O’Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008). These tensions are visible in Queensland teacher education, and continue to provide commentators the opportunity to compare the relative merits of oft-times disparate teacher education
strategies (Sim, 2006). Vick (2006, p.194) alludes to how deeply ingrained into the fabric of teacher education these tensions are when he reflects on how “long standing and deeply entrenched are many of the problems that contemporary reviews, debates, strategies and policy formulations seek to address”. Britzman (1986) has repeatedly considered these tensions within teacher education in her body of work. Britzman (1986, p.442) drew attention to the divide between teacher education and teacher training when she proposed:

Indeed, the dominant model of teacher education is organized on this implicit theory of immediate integration: the university provides the theories, methods, and skills; schools provide the classroom, curriculum, and students; and the student teacher provides the individual effort; all of which combine to produce the finished product of professional teacher.

Britzman’s (1986) observation reflected the commonly held view of initial teacher education in Queensland from the 1960s until 2014. It will be shown that the release of the TEMAG review in 2015 has signalled a shift away from an immediate integration model towards a far more collaborative model that incorporates initial teacher education occurring in universities, in schools as preservice teacher supervised placement and in schools as ongoing teacher education for early career teachers.

Dyson’s eras of preservice teacher education provide the necessary organisational, political and sociological background through which to more fully consider preservice teacher education from the 1990s to the present. It is this contemporary era through which current understandings of preservice teacher education in Queensland may be considered. Aspland (2006, p.141) listed numerous government reports on the work of teachers and teacher education programs undertaken in Australia post 1990. These reports include:

The Teacher Education in Australia report (National Board of Teacher Education and Training, 1990); the Beginning Teachers’ Competency report (Louden,1992); the National Competencies Framework review (Australian Teaching Council, 1996); the New South Wales Review of Teacher Education – Quality Matters (Ramsay, 2000); the National Standards and Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education (Australian Council of Deans of Education, 2001); Teacher Standards and
Professionalism report (Australian College of Education, 2001); Teacher Quality and Educational Leadership (MCEETYA, 2001) and the refreshing review of the teaching profession. Prepared to Teach (Louden et al, 2004), which provides a broad database on which to critique teacher preparation programs in Australia. Most recently, a report entitled Teacher Education Accreditation. (Ingvarson, Elliott, Kleinhenz, and McKenzie, 2006)

All of the above-mentioned reviews and reports had some measure of either direct or indirect impact on initial teacher education in Queensland. Historically, there has been a mixed level of resolve from governments and teaching organisations to completely adopt the recommendations proposed by reviews and reports into Initial Teacher Education, including those most recently completed. A decade ago, Vick (2006) made comment regarding the growing number of reports that highlighted inadequacies in Initial Teacher Education programs or providers. Vick (2006, p.181) stated:

These reports have claimed high levels of dissatisfaction with the outcomes of teacher preparation programs (Commonwealth Department of Education, Science and Training, 2002) and, in particular, that they have not prepared their students for the difficulties they would face as new teachers (Ministerial Advisory Council on the Quality of Teaching, 1998). Routinely, the reports argue that preservice programs are “too theoretical”. (Commonwealth Department of Education, Science & Training, 2002, p.99)

Further, Vick (2006, p.181) believes that the theoretical components are “distant, irrelevant and inaccessible” (Commonwealth Department of Education, Science & Training, 2002, p.104), with “insufficient emphasis on real situations” (Ministerial Advisory Council on the Quality of Teaching, 1998, Section 2). The litany of perceived deficits in Initial Teacher education resulted in calls for a new vision and revised models of Initial Teacher Education for contemporary Australian society (Vick, 2006).

The two most recent documents to focus on Initial Teacher Education are the Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group (TEMAG) report released in 2014 and the Studying the Effectiveness of Teacher Education (SETE) report released in 2015. Both documents provide important perspectives, data and
recommendations. Additionally, both documents recognise the enormous number of reports and reviews that precede them. The SETE report acknowledges there have been 40 reports and 100 reviews conducted into initial teacher education since the 1970s (Mayer et al., 2015). The SETE report refers to previous research by Auchmuty (1980); Caldwell & Sutton (2010); Committee for the Review of Teaching and Teacher Education (2003); Ebbeck (1990); Education and Training Committee (2005); House of Representatives Standing Committee on Education and Vocational Training (2007) and Ramsey, (2000), covering a similar time span.

Importantly, the TEMAG report acknowledges the inadequate outcomes of these earlier reviews and reports, stating that “Initial teacher education in Australia has been the subject of a large number of reviews, but the outcomes have had limited impact on the policy and practice of developing new teachers” (Craven et al., 2014, p.viii). The implication of this statement in the TEMAG report is that, despite the volume of reviews, reports and research into initial teacher education, over an extended period of time, by acknowledged leaders in the field, there remain so many variables within schools and school systems in Australia that a unifying model of initial teacher education is not currently achievable. Both the TEMAG report and the SETE report are in agreement that:

Higher education providers and the teaching profession must together embrace the opportunity to fully participate in a reformed, integrated system of initial teacher education. This participation will be essential in embedding the reforms necessary to deliver high-quality teaching in every Australian school (Craven et al., 2014, p.viii).

The TEMAG report outlines wide-ranging commentary and recommendations as to how initial teacher education across Australia could be improved to better prepare new teachers with the practical skills needed for the classroom (Craven et al., 2014). The report received support from the Australian Council of Deans of Education (ACDE), which endorsed both the findings of the report and the proposals and recommendations that flowed from the report. The TEMAG report begins by proposing six key directions that the advisory group believed were critical for a transition towards a nationally supported process of initial teacher education:
National program accreditation
An overhauled national accreditation process for initial teacher education programs administered by a national regulator. Full program accreditation contingent upon robust evidence of successful graduate outcomes against the Professional Standards.

Rigorous program accreditation
Strengthened accreditation requiring providers to demonstrate that program design and delivery is underpinned by solid research and includes measures of program effectiveness.

Transparent selection for entry
Entrants to initial teacher education programs selected through sophisticated approaches that consider both academic skills and desirable personal attributes for teaching. Approaches to selection published by all providers.

An integrated system
Higher education providers, school systems and schools working together to achieve strong graduate and student outcomes. Partnerships ensuring initial teacher education meets the needs of employers and schools. Professional experience integrated with provider-based learning.

Evidence of classroom readiness
Pre-service teachers building a Portfolio of Evidence throughout their initial teacher education program to demonstrate that they reach classroom readiness and eligibility for provisional registration. Beginning teachers add to their Portfolio of Evidence to achieve full registration.

Teacher pre-registration
Pre-registration enabling entrants to initial teacher education to be recognised as members of the teaching profession from the beginning of their program. (Craven et al., 2014, p.vii).

Following consideration and investigation of these six key directions, the report outlines five key proposals and thirty-eight recommendations to bring about the structural and cultural change required to achieve the key directions initially
identified by the report (Craven et al., 2014). At the time of writing, ITE providers are examining these proposals and recommendations, and the most appropriate ways to implement them at their respective institutions. Whilst the key *TEMAG* proposals and recommendations have the broad support of all ITE providers and the ACDE, it remains to be seen how comprehensively these recommendations are implemented at a state level and an institutional level. The elements of national program accreditation overseen federally by the Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL), and managed in Queensland by the Queensland College of Teachers (QCT), has highlighted the strong desire of states to retain elements of independence and uniqueness within their program arrangements. Additionally, issues such as increased rigor required of program structure, and the metrics used to determine classroom readiness have remained obstinate sticking points in the debate, lacking specific definitions and remaining open to interpretation at national, state and ITE level.

The *SETE report* was released by Deakin University in late 2015, and provides an alternative perspective on initial teacher education to that taken by the *TEMAG report*. The longitudinal study investigated the effectiveness of teacher education through the perspectives of two groups: early career teachers and principals (Mayer et al., 2015). Conducted over a four-year time frame, the report incorporated participation by approximately 5000 early career teachers and 1000 principals, from schools in Victoria and Queensland. The report provides detailed data analysis, which, due to the recent publication date, is yet to be fully examined and considered by ITE providers. The research project considered three specific research questions:

How well equipped are graduates to meet the requirements of the diverse settings in which they are employed?

What characteristics of teacher education programs are most effective in preparing teachers to work in a variety of school settings?

How does the teacher education program attended impact on graduate employment destination, pathways and retention within the profession? (Mayer et al., 2015)

The findings of the *SETE report* (2015) are generally encouraging for initial teacher education in Australia. In response to the first research question of “How
well equipped are graduates to meet the requirements of the diverse settings in which they are employed?”, the report indicated that early career teachers felt reasonably well prepared by their ITE institution in terms of pedagogy and curriculum elements, with a steeper, workplace based learning curve required in the areas of classroom management, student diversity and student feedback. These findings certainly corroborate previous research into ITE (Dyson, 2005). These findings in the SETE report also support the calls by the TEMAG review for a ‘soft landing’ extended period of support and ongoing professional learning for early career teachers, rather than the existing ‘hard landing’ model of entry into full time teaching duties and expectations. 

In relation to the second research question of “What characteristics of teacher education programs are most effective in preparing teachers to work in a variety of school settings?”, the report points to general consensus from early career teachers, “that teacher education provided foundational knowledge and skills upon which ongoing learning of teaching in context continued” (Mayer et al., 2015, p.17). Against this finding, the report also highlighted graduate teachers’ views that school based Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) was the major element in the effective preparation of preservice teachers. SPE was seen as having far more importance to graduate teachers than the type of program they studied in to gain teacher registration, or the content of their ITE programs. Of note is the finding that:

Although the majority of participants regarded themselves as prepared and effective they did not consistently attribute this to the content of their teacher education programs. This raises questions about the content of teacher education programs, but also about the ability of the programs to make explicit the relationship between professional knowledge and professional practice. (Mayer et al., 2015, p.18)

These findings raise concerns about the structure, nature and purpose of teacher education programs. Despite the 140 reports and reviews undertaken into initial teacher education since 1970, the two most recent reports continue to question the effectiveness of program content – as did many of the preceding reviews and report. Considering the untold number of hours spent on ITE program writing and content development, the focus seems to remain on SPE as the most valuable
component of ITE programs to graduate teachers. It can be argued that these findings provide a level of justification for a move towards clinical models of initial teacher education, including the Teach for Australia model (“Teach for Australia,” 2015).

A comparison between Dyson’s (2005) three recurring elements of teacher education and SETE report’s (2015) three research questions shows a level of congruence over the ten-year period between reports. However, the contested nexus between theory and practice remains a central component of teacher education programs (Britzman, 1986). The TEMAG report’s (2015) use of the term ‘Classroom Ready Teachers’ can arguably be seen to flag a move back towards a more prescriptive model of teacher training (if not a clinical model). At a recent meeting, the chair of the ACDE National Directors of Professional Experience (NADPE) committee, Prof. Christine Ure, advocated that the term ‘Classroom Ready’ was a misnomer. A more appropriate and accurate term was ‘School Ready Teachers’. Rather than being a merely semantic difference, this important distinction highlights the breadth of capacity of graduates within the APST at the graduate level and the diversity of school sites and classroom environments that graduate teachers will enter as early career teachers. The distinction between ‘classroom ready’ and ‘school ready’ may seem insignificant; however, in actuality, it is substantial. The focus on developing the capacities of graduate teachers to be able to successfully navigate the diverse range of school sites that are encountered in Queensland is a more tangible, realistic expectation of a neophyte teacher. ‘Classroom ready’ is a stage that is achieved developmentally within the professional environment of the school site, and achieved with the guidance and assistance of a supportive, collegial mentor.

Employment processes via supply and demand also remains a perennial theme in initial teacher education. The TEMAG report’s (2015) call for greater communication, collaboration and alignment between employing bodies and Initial Teacher Education (ITE) providers reflects the current focus by employing bodies on workforce planning, teacher retention, professional development for future growth and promotion within the employing organisation. Additionally, it potentially signals the capacity of employing bodies to exert a far greater influence over the content and structure of ITE programs. This has become an area of concern amongst ITE providers and academics, many of whom fear the
introduction of a level of stasis into ITE development. If ITE programs are focussed on employability factors, there exists the possibility of the reintroduction of the ‘Teacher Training’ versus ‘Teacher Education’ debate. The thematic congruence between Dyson’s (2005) elements and SETE’s (2015) research questions, against the background of continuous cycles of reviews into ITE in Australia (Dyson, 2005), points to the perennial nature of these themes within teacher education across time.

Despite the ongoing consideration and reform policies of teacher education by state and federal political committees, ongoing discussion and debate by academics, informed (and less-than-informed) public debate and ongoing media scrutiny, initial teacher education remains, at best, an elusive entity. Cochran-Smith (2000, p.163) proposed:

“Teacher education is under attack. There is no shortage of accounts of what is wrong with teaching, and teacher education in the media or even the display windows of popular bookshops” (2000, p.163). This sentiment was supported by other academics in the field of teacher education (Aspland, 2006; Britzman, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Darling- Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Roekle, 2011). Zipin and Brennan (2001, p.1) also commented on the commonly promoted deficit view of contemporary teacher education and teachers. They reflected that:

The ‘quality’ of teachers has been again in the policy and media gaze in recent times, sometimes used as an excuse for ‘teacher bashing’ and at other times a response to perceived needs for a changing teacher workforce to deal with the changing societal conditions facing children and schooling.

Brennan and Willis (2008) adopted an even broader perspective when they highlighted that the debate regarding teachers and teaching has taken on an international perspective. They suggested that “teacher education, bound up as it is with the production of the (national) citizen through schooling, is necessarily involved in moves made by governments to position national interests in relation to new formations of supranational alliance” (2008, p.295).

The consensus of opinion points to teachers and teacher educators feeling a sense of continual defensiveness against review cycles and public scrutiny,
resulting in little substantial change to the status quo of teacher education. The elusive nature of teacher education, coupled with the universality of the public’s experience with schools and teachers, has given rise to many contested truths and urban myths surrounding teacher education. One such contested truth, outlined by Darling-Hammond (2006, p.169) is that:

Even if one agrees that there are desirable knowledge and skills for teaching, many people believe that anyone can teach, or, at least, that knowing a subject is enough to allow one to teach it well.

Labaree (2000, p.231) also highlighted this issue. He contended that teacher educators “face a situation in which the profession of teaching is generally seen to be relatively easy. And this perception is not simply characteristic of the untutored public; it is also endemic among teacher candidates”. Contested truths such as those described by Darling-Hammond (2006) and Labaree (2000) above highlight deeply ingrained social beliefs about the roles of teachers, what comprises a ‘good teacher’ and how ‘good teachers’ are created.

Darling-Hammond (2006, p.166) commented that, “over the past decade, public dissatisfaction with schools has included dissatisfaction with teacher education”. The connection Darling-Hammond (2006) made is well placed. It seems that the public has drawn a direct correlation between teacher education programs and teacher education institutions and what occurs within schools. Darling-Hammond (2006, p.166) went on to report:

Education schools have been variously criticized as ineffective in preparing teachers for their work, unresponsive to new demands, remote from practice, and barriers to the recruitment of bright college students into teaching.

Whilst Darling-Hammond (2006) highlighted ineffective practices, unresponsiveness and bureaucratization as areas of public dissatisfaction in teacher education, it may be inferred from her work that the core issues of teacher subject content knowledge, teacher pedagogical knowledge and teacher curriculum knowledge are also seen as critical areas in need of improvement. Whilst it may be justifiable to call for greater levels of teacher subject content, pedagogy and curriculum knowledge, it must be noted that this call has been made continuously
within formalised teacher education for generations. It is simplistic to conclude that these factors are in, and of themselves, the major contributors to school quality, graduate teacher quality, student achievement and success or the general satisfaction with schools in general. The current Chair of the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, Professor John Hattie, (2003, p.1) reported that moves to restore public faith in school processes and lift satisfaction levels have led to government reforms which:

Devise so-called “idiot-proof” solutions where the proofing has been to restrain the idiots to tight scripts – tighter curricula specification, prescribed textbooks, bounded structures of classrooms, scripts of the teaching act, and all this underpinned by a structure of accountability. The national testing movements have been introduced to ensure teachers teach the right stuff, concentrate on the right set of processes (those to pass pencil and paper tests), and then use the best set of teaching activities to maximize this narrow form of achievement (i.e., lots of worksheets of mock multiple choice exams).

The scenario that Hattie (2003) describes above would impact on teacher education programs at a national level, flying in the face of the underpinning philosophical beliefs and organisational structures of contemporary initial teacher education programs across Australia. More recently, Hattie posited the question of whether we are ‘dumbing down’ teacher education programs (Hattie, 2016). Hattie’s (2016, p.7) belief is that:

It is a travesty that teacher education seems the most evidence-free part of our education system when opinions, just-watch-me, and an absence of common assessments across the 400+ programs prevail. Teacher education programs can no longer demand to be left alone, no longer be left with such open entry policies, and no longer allowed to make claims without evidence of their practice.

Hattie’s (2016) concerns extend to those of quality assurance within the ITE sector. Hattie (2016) suggests that there is the possibility of initial teacher education drifting away from the university sector into the hands of other providers. Specifically, Hattie, (2016, p.7) articulates:
With the current climate it would take little for the funding of Universities to be taken and given to schools (as has happened recently in the UK, with disastrous results) or allow non-accredited organisations to come into Australia and sell their courses. We have seen the devastation of the VET sector from such privatisations (and I note the proliferation in the US of companies entering the sector to fix teacher education with no evidence, but a stronger profit motive).

With the above statement in mind, it is appropriate to consider the spectrum of teacher education programs in Australia, which ranges from the traditional through to more revisionist approaches. The uncertain nature of teacher education, combined with moves for teacher education programs to be more responsive to market needs, has seen the implementation of accelerated teacher education programs such as Teach for Australia; closely based on the Teach for America program (Caldwell, 2013; Lauden, 2014; Zyngier, 2013). These programs inhabit one end of the contemporary teacher education spectrum, and are under closer scrutiny following the TEMAG report of 2014. It must be noted that the initial concept of the Teach for America (TFA) program was laudable (Lauden, 2014). Beginning in 1990 as a not-for-profit organisation, charged with selecting the brightest, most idealistic university graduates who would commit to teach for two years in some of the toughest and most impoverished schools in the United States, TFA has continued as a niche ITE pathway. TFA was essentially a national teaching corps, a structure based on the well-established and well-known Peace Corps concept (“Teach for Australia,” 2015). The TFA project was based on four core rationales, namely:

- By bringing elite graduates into the teaching profession, if only for the duration of two years, the TFA project would develop a quality of prestige and selectiveness.
- By directing TFA teachers to lower socio-economic schools, TFA would be meeting the shortfall of teachers willing to work in those more challenging areas.
- On the completion of their two-year commitment, TFA teachers would use their experiences to achieve success in the professions they pursued after teaching.
• The TFA program would redress the issue of educational inequality. (“Teach for Australia,” 2015).

The Teach for Australia program is very similar in philosophy, nature and structure to the TFA model (Lauden, 2014; Zyngier, 2013). Teach for Australia Associates (recent graduates from Australian bachelor degree programs) begin their two-year Teach for Australia program with a six-week on-campus intensive. Teach for Australia holds to shared beliefs that reflect the organisational ethos:

• We hold up equality of opportunity for every child in Australia as a fundamental right.
• We acknowledge that dramatic gaps in student achievement and hence future opportunities in life exist in Australia along socioeconomic, geographic and ethnic lines.
• We believe that improving teacher quality is the most direct way to raise student achievement.
• We commit ourselves to recruiting, training and supporting top, well-rounded university graduates to serve as teachers and leaders in schools with the greatest need.
• We aspire to transform education and wider society through our alumni and partners as a network of engaged leaders in all fields. (“Teach for Australia,” 2015)

Despite the lofty and laudable goals contained within the rationale and ethos of Teach for Australia, and the possible justification for the program based on findings from the TEMAG review, there are equally strong arguments raised against this model of initial teacher education. One of the main detractors of Teach for Australia is the Australian Education Union (AEU), although the Australian Council of Deans of Education has indicated qualified support for the scheme (“Teaching for Excellence – ACDE submission to the TEMAG,” 2014). The AEU characterises Teach for Australia as ineffective, expensive and providing little benefit to the disadvantaged school communities the program targets with its
graduates (Louden, 2014). Louden (2014, para. 12) offers some measure of support for TFA when noting that:

Teach for Australia provides a benchmark for high-quality school-based teacher education. In a mass teacher education industry that – like the rest of higher education – has suffered from rising costs and falling income, it shows what can be done in a properly funded program.

Louden (2014, para. 14) qualifies this statement by outlining that these clinical models of initial teacher education are a “small-scale and expensive intervention”.

Notwithstanding the issues of cost, many state governments, including Queensland, have begun to seriously consider the merits of similar clinical models of initial teacher education (Zyngier, 2013). Zyngier (2013, para.1) observes that, “Governments in Australia are increasingly looking to “fast track” professionals or high-performing graduates into teaching in schools”. The term fast track is potentially confusing – the entire program does take place over an extended period of time, although time in traditional university classes is dramatically less. The term clinical model is a more accurate one. One of Zyngier’s (2013) strongest concerns regarding the Teach or Australia model is the issue of equity. Zyngier (2013, para. 26) argues:

The most educationally disadvantaged children in our schools deserve better than fast-tracked neophytes – no matter how clever they are. They need teachers who are highly experienced, committed and well versed in dealing with children from diverse communities who understand how to meet the challenges of differentiated teaching and instruction.

Many countries which Australia has identified as having high-performing school systems have included clinical models into their initial teacher education programs (Invarson et al., 2014). These countries include Singapore, Germany and Finland (Invarson et al., 2014). Invarson et al. (2014, p.51) have highlighted that, in these counties, there are “specially-designated schools to train teachers”. Additionally, “teachers in these schools have higher status and are paid more to teach there. Teacher-training schools exist for all levels of schooling” (Invarson et al, 2014, p 51). In some of the countries with high performing school systems,
Preservice teachers are cooperatively mentored, supervised and assessed in designated schools by both school and university staff members (Invarson et al., 2014). The Queensland Government has made some initial moves towards exploring clinical models of initial teacher education in state schools, through partnerships with ITE providers. In these instances, nominated preservice teachers have been situated in extended Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) placements or internships in designated schools with high performing teachers. This model of ITE partnership with employing bodies provides tangible benefits in terms of preservice teacher employment preference post-graduation. However, the clinical model of initial teacher education raises concerns about hard earned gains made in raising the professional status of the teachers being traded off against a less academically rigorous process. The debate between teacher education and teacher training is never far removed from the issue of clinical model initial teacher education.

2.2.2 Initial Teacher Education in Queensland – Summation

Initial Teacher Education in Queensland continues to develop in response to social, political and educational influences from local, national and international sources. Initial Teacher Education has been subject to many reviews and reports over an extended period of time. Within these reports, there has been a core level of consensus regarding Initial Teacher Education programs, with a focus on positioning teaching as a professional vocation rather than as a skilled traineeship. There has been a lesser degree of consensus surrounding the structure of ITE programs, the methods of delivery of ITE programs, the amount of supervised professional experience in ITE programs and the collaboration between ITE providers, teacher registration boards and teacher employing bodies. The two most recent reports, the TEMAG report of 2014 and the SETE report of 2015 are significant in their impact on Initial Teacher Education. Both reports see teacher education as an ongoing, iterative process that requires a commitment by teacher employing bodies to adequately support ongoing teacher education within the workplace as a natural extension to Initial Teacher Education programs. Both reports identify the development of preservice teacher professional identity and understanding of professional role as a central aspect of the initial teacher education process. Ultimately, a review of the literature in
Initial Teacher Education programs is best summarised by Roekle (2011, p.180), who states: “There is no one “best context” for educating and preparing beginning teachers”.

2.3 Representations, Images and Identities of Teachers

The literature concerned with various perspectives on schools and schooling, teachers and teaching is extensive. Within this overarching oeuvre is the body of work that investigates and describes the social representations, images and personal identities of teachers. This section of the literature review will investigate the body of work variously concerned with teacher socialization (Calderhead & Robson, 1991) and the area of teacher identity. In essence, the literature considered will look at the external (teacher socialisation) and internal (teacher identity) aspects of teachers in society (Calderhead & Robson, 1991). Further, consideration will be given to the socialization and identity of teachers within a social, political and educational framework.

Researchers within the field of teacher representation and identity have variously investigated how teacher identity is formed, how teachers are represented in society and how these influence classroom practices. The late 1980s and 1990s witnessed a burgeoning of research focused on both graduate teacher and preservice teacher identity. In the main, this research has considered how teacher identity is formed, the robust nature of teacher identity and how teacher identity influences classroom practices (Furlong, 2012). One key factor in relation to teacher identity, identified by Cross and Ndofirepi (2015, p.97), is that: “Identity cannot be thought about without considering the social interplay between the individual and the larger environment or community”.

There is no shortage of researchers in the field of teacher identity (Furlong, 2012; Giddens, 1991; Goodson, 1992; Huberman, 1993; Judge, 1995; Sachs, 2001b; Weber & Mitchell, 1995). Giddens (1991), a key researcher into teacher identity, holds sociological views of teacher identity which examine the issue of teacher identity as an intermediating force between structure and teacher agency (Flores & Day, 2006). Goodson (1992) has investigated and reviewed teacher professional lives, whilst Huberman (1993) considered the professional life cycles of teachers. Judge (1995) considered teacher identity via a cross-national study, noting the shifting images of teachers in the US, UK and France, in addition to
teacher images associated with the format and organisation of ITE programs and the relationship of teacher within the university. Additionally, Weber and Mitchell (1995) considered the visual aspects of teacher images within novels, music and film.

Goodson’s (1996) work covered a broad range of issues associated with teachers’ professional lives; while the extensive works of Sachs (2001) across many years provided an Australian context to our understandings of teacher identity and representations. Of other researchers who have contributed to the field, investigations into teacher representation and teacher image have been made from a wide range of positions, via utilisation of children’s storybook analysis, film review, historical document analysis, and narrative and life history approaches to research. Against this multi-disciplinary research backdrop, key works include those of Nias (1996), Nóvoa (2006), Sandefur & Moore (2004), Scull & Peltier (2007), Wall (2008), Webster & Mitchell (1995) and Zemke (2007). These researchers have provided important insight into the development of this research area.

### 2.3.1 Teacher Socialisation – external aspects

Within the social representations of western culture, the image of teacher is often portrayed as an amalgam, a blending of social stereotype fused with the author’s and reader’s personal experiences of teachers throughout their years of schooling. Nóvoa (2006) made note of the permanence of the social images of teachers, through an investigation of the historical representation of teacher images from a wide variety of text material – mainly newspapers and magazines. Nóvoa’s investigation of social images of teachers spanned from the seventeenth century to the present. During this time, he found that “despite all the changes that have taken place, the teachers often appear portrayed the same way” (Nóvoa, 2006, p.31). Nóvoa (2006, p.31) noted that:

Secondary school teachers often appear associated with their respective school subjects and the function of student assessment; the primary school teachers more marked by the relationship with their pupils.
Arguably, this representation of secondary and primary teachers is still quite commonly held in contemporary western society. When considering the commonly held image of teachers in general, Webster and Mitchell (1995, p.xi) stated:

Teachers are figures of such impossible familiarity that they are apt to vanish beneath the general and the particular disparagements such taken for granted phenomena may attract to themselves.

Webster and Mitchell (1995) support the view held by Sugrue (1997) that images of teachers have become entrenched in the western social psyche. Webster and Mitchell (1995, p.xii) reported on an analysis of the representation of teachers as:

Not with a sharp, composite image of a teacher, but with a kaleidoscopic collage of fuchsia shirts, hairnets and buns, bulging biceps, long shapeless dresses, sparking brown eyes, magic wands, and tender smiles. And, always, the eternal chalk dust, pointers, apples and numbers.

Nóvoa (2006) raised several additional pertinent points in relation to social representations of teachers – social distinctions between secondary and primary teachers, social distinctions between male and female teachers and social representations of teachers as disciplinarians. With regards to the social comparisons of teachers, Nóvoa (2006, p.32) observed that:

It is interesting to highlight the gulf between the high expectations of the teachers and their low economic status. Teachers are always compared with other professions – university professors, business people, doctors, politicians, etc. – but their salaries are always lower. This gulf constitutes an ambiguous relationship between the idealized images and the real life images of the teaching profession.

Nóvoa (2006) drew further distinction between the social representations of primary teachers and secondary teachers. His summation of the historical representation of secondary teachers as being somehow socially and professionally superior to their primary school colleagues by way of education and subject expertise arguably continues to hold some level of traction in contemporary social views of teachers (Nóvoa, 2006). The demarcation of teacher socialization
between primary and secondary teachers has been explored in an Australian context earlier in this chapter.

Nóvoa (2006) also commented on the gender representation of teachers in society. Nóvoa (2006, p.34) identified that, “there is a clear difference between the image representing male teachers and that of female teachers”. Historically, this is linked to issues of gender power – for example, it was far more common for there to be depictions of male teachers dispensing corporal punishment than female teachers. Nóvoa (2006) believed that this distinction emanates from a more instinctive ideology, where the masculine representation is that of disciplinarian and the feminine is that of the carer. As with the representations of secondary and primary teachers outlined earlier, arguably these social representations of male and female teacher stereotypes continue to resonate in contemporary society. Additionally, Nóvoa (2006) articulated the historical move towards the feminization of the teaching profession…in his words, “the teaching profession is slow to accommodate feminine identity” (Nóvoa, 2006, p.35). From an historical perspective of the 19th and 20th centuries, Nóvoa highlighted the dominant public images of teachers as always masculine, whilst the public image of the female teacher was rarely seen (Nóvoa, 2006). The dominance of masculine public images of the teacher is perplexing, considering the reality of the gender composition of the Australian teacher workforce (Weldon, 2015).

Weldon (2015, p.6) reports that, “in primary schools eight out of every ten teachers are female”. Reports from the Queensland Government indicate a ratio of 4.3:1 of female teachers to male teachers in Queensland primary schools and a ratio of 1.5:1 of female teachers to male teachers in Queensland secondary schools (“Schools Queensland, 2014,” 2014). It would seem that, although females comprise the dominant component of the Queensland teacher workforce, the image of the teacher as a masculine representation remains the dominant image. This raises the question of what do these images look like?

Images of teachers would seem to fall into two distinct groups. On one hand, the images reported by mass media, such as news and current affairs programs, can portray a deficit view of the lived experience of the teacher (Watt & Richardson, 2008). Watt and Richardson (2008, p.409) conducted research into perceptions of teaching by beginning teachers, and reported that:
Negative representations of teachers’ work in the mass media, changes in political ideology, and shifts in public opinion all impact on the popularity and reputation of teaching as a career choice. Although in surveys across different countries teachers are valued by parents and the community more generally, Australia, the United States, the U.K., and many European countries are increasingly experiencing difficulties recruiting and retaining teachers in the profession.

In counterpoint to deficit views of teaching as a career, associated with high stress levels, early career burnout and increasing societal demands, a more positive image of teachers is portrayed in other forms of media: print, movies and television drama. Weber & Mitchell (1995, p.3) highlighted the misplaced conceptions of teachers as follows:

This type of myth emanates from a traditional conception of teachers as super-human role models who exist in a separate dimension from the everyday world. According to this model, teachers live in the classroom, and never have to do ordinary things like go to the bathroom, or buy groceries, or show emotion. They certainly never lie languorously on the floor wrapped in silk. Although pedagogy has supposedly changed over the years, and teachers are more often considered to be ‘real people’, there are still many things that do not seem ‘teacherly’.

The theme of ‘teacher’ is incredibly pervasive in western society. As Miller (1995) pointed out, the idea of school, teachers and teaching is so familiar that they seem to almost vanish into the social mélange. Weber & Mitchell (1995, p.2) suggested that:

Teachers not only play a prominent role as real people in the everyday lives of children at school, they are also embedded in many of the books, games, dramatic play, movies and television shows that form part of children’s activities before and after school. Even before children begin school, they have already been exposed to a myriad of images of teachers, classrooms and schools which have made strong and lasting impressions on them.
Images of good teachers and bad teachers are pervasive. These stereotypical images of teachers have become almost ubiquitous within western society. The most pervasive image of teachers and teaching is that of the didactic transmission of knowledge from the all-knowing teacher to the empty vessel student. Other popularly held images of teachers portray them in the caring female role, (while remaining both sexless and selfless), the tyrannical principal, and as the hero against all odds (Weber & Mitchell, 1995). These counterpoint images of teachers produce what has been described as:

A fundamental paradox in the cultural model of teachers that affects teacher education: for a teacher to be a hero, the society says he or she must be selfless; however, only the teacher who has developed a rich, well-rounded identity, or sense of the self can be truly successful in the classroom. (Friedman, 2016, pp.640-641)

There are occasions where confronting the diverse roles and images of teachers is jarring and potentially socially divisive. This situation is exemplified by instances when teachers espouse a particular political, religious or philosophical position – either explicitly or implicitly (Reiner, 2016). In late 2016, members of the national Teachers for Refugees group wore t-shirts to their schools with the slogan “close the camps – bring them home”. This action drew criticism from government and some parts of the media, and commendation from teacher unions and some professional bodies (Reiner, 2016). In response to criticism from federal and state government ministers, Reiner (2016, para.4) points out his belief that, “teachers should be examples of the kinds of adults society needs – politically engaged, independent-minded, committed to rational, pluralistic debate over controversial questions”. The political dynamic associated with this image of a teacher may be confronting, and run counter to a view where teachers are seen as apolitical individuals divorced from influences outside of the school environment. Reiner (2016, para. 6) proposes that:

Political neutrality in the classroom is, in any case, a fiction. Teachers are called on to take positions on any number of political issues as a part of their job. In history classes, no one could reasonably argue that schools must treat the ideologies of racism or fascism “neutrally”, as though it was an open question whether they are valid.
Clearly, any image of a teacher that is stripped of political nuance is one that does not reflect the holistic reality of being a teacher.

Keroes (1999), in her work “Tales out of School”, considered the social image of the teacher as portrayed in popular media. Keroes (1999, p.4) suggested: “From Dicken’s Hard Times to Stand and Deliver, from The Blackboard Jungle to its contemporary cult counterpart, Class of 1984, teachers have always been popular subjects”. Keroes (1999) investigated the stereotypes that have been built around the social portrait of the teacher. Images of teachers have been broadly portrayed and characterised as being the good teacher, the bad teacher or the sexy teacher (Scanlon, 2008). In fact, the changing social portrait of the teacher is one which generations have seen portrayed in text, television and film. Furthermore, the social portrait of the teacher as a distinct entity has become an enduring social construct (consider three images synonymous in western society to symbolise the teacher – an apple, a mortar board and a wise owl). Keroes (1999, p.1) pointed out:

In various films, novels and television shows, teachers have been construed as seducers and saviours, sages and fools, victims and perpetrators of the system in which they are inscribed, as well as rebellious instruments of change and transformation.

The dichotomy of the socialisation of the teacher – the representations of teachers in media against seemingly contradictory social portraits of the teacher – is one that has been noted by Weber and Mitchell (1995). Weber and Mitchell (1995, p.4) reflected:

We can’t help noticing that representations of teachers in popular culture contain paradoxical elements of pleasure, desire, play, violence, and sex, despite common stereotypes of teachers as drab, asocial and asexual creatures whose sole mission is to make children learn, whether they want to or not”.

Additionally, teachers are represented by the artefactual systems of their dress – teachers dress to look like teachers, to represent themselves as teachers. The use of artefactual systems such as attire to allow preservice teachers to take on the image and role of a teacher is a commonly communicated element of ITE programs. It is
a contentious area, with guidelines that are fluid and situation specific (Graham, 2014). Graham (2014, para. 12) wrote:

Almost every teacher has a basic understanding of what constitutes school-friendly attire. Dressing too casually sends off a blasé vibe to students and fellow faculty that might undermine their ability to teach from a position of respect and authority. But dressing too rigidly could have the opposite effect, creating a sense of separation between the teacher and students.

There continues to be ongoing concern about teacher dress and the impact that it has on schools and teachers (Simalis, 2014). Simalis (2014) reported that teachers in New South Wales state schools are required to adopt a dress code, on the premise that teaching is a profession and teachers should dress to reflect their professional stance. New South Wales Education Minister Piccoli stated:

“Teachers should not come to school wearing T-shirts, rubber thongs or clothing displaying alcohol advertising and we have made this clear in the Dress Code. Wearing appropriate dress helps teachers maintain respect and credibility with students, parents and the broader community”. (Simalis, 2014, para. 6 – 7)

Queensland does not have an official dress code for state school teachers (“Teachers’ rights on clothing and dress standards in school,” 2016). The Queensland Teachers’ Union (“Teachers’ rights on clothing and dress standards in school”, 2016, para. 6) states:

As a general guide, the appearance and dress of departmental employee should be clean, tidy and appropriate to their duties and the people with who m they are dealing. Examples of inappropriate dress for DET’s work environment include thongs, singlets, revealing clothing or clothing with offensive slogans.

Irrespective of individual positions on the question of teacher dress codes, the very fact that it is open as a topic of discussion and debate indicates that teacher dress standards, as an artefactual system that denotes the quality and professionalism of an employee, are an integral component of teacher identity.
Keroes (1999) believed that these contradictory images provide us with a hybrid underlying cultural understanding of what it is to be a teacher, suggesting that “virtually by definition, teachers are figures in whom the social and the psychological are conjoined” (p.3). Weber and Mitchell (1999, p.166) refer to this ‘conjoining’ as the ‘cumulative cultural text of teaching’.

The image of teacher can also be manifested as one that brings about social change, although Keroes (1999) highlighted the “persistent dissonance” between reality and the images of the teacher that are portrayed in text, television and film. Reed, Scull & Peltier (2007) highlighted this dissonance, suggesting the cultural myth of the super teacher is one that has steadfastly persisted in the popular social consciousness. Reed, Scull & Peltier (2007, p.14) stated that:

With some exceptions, films that centre on teachers tend to show them as almost super-human, capable of permanently changing lives in a short period of time. By forcing them to compete with their cinematic counterparts, the super teacher myth places an impossible burden on real teachers.


Images of reel (sic) teachers haunt our collective and social memories of schooling. Mr Chips, Miss Jean Brodie, Mr Holland, Mr Thackeray, Mr Escalante, LouAnn Johnson and John Keating emerge from the haze of memory and mingle with our recollections of real teachers.

The power of these films and characters to influence preservice teacher’s views of teachers and teaching is substantial and pervasive. The portrayed popular image of the teacher has a profound impact on preservice teachers. Scanlon (2008, para. 2)
noted that preservice teachers have expressed “disappointment at the mundane world of teachers and teachers’ work presented in the pre-service curriculum and in professional readings because it is ‘not like the movies’”. In comparison to the image of the charismatic super teacher in media, Scanlon (2008, para. 3) suggests the reality of preservice and early career teachers includes the:

Dull discourses of control and surveillance, as articulated in government-mandated ‘standards’ and ‘competencies’. In the mundane real world, official documents describe teachers and their work in terms of their competence in professional engagement, professional relationships and professional commitment.

Importantly, though, the teachers portrayed in the films are inclusive of gender, race and social standing, as are the students in their classes. Reed Scull & Peltier (2007, p.17) stated that:

It is not mere speculation to suggest the potentially powerful role popular film can have in shaping the perceptions and opinions of students, parents, policy-makers, and lay-people interested in education and educators.

Ladson-Billings (1998) concluded that teaching is a more random, episodic, and unpredictable process than movies can portray. Importantly, there is a danger in considering films about teachers as pedagogic devices – film focuses the camera on the individual teacher, not on their teaching methodology (Ladson-Billings, 1998).

The idea of the transmission of the myth of the super teacher is supported by ‘cultivation theory’, originally proposed in the late 1960s by Gerbner and Gross from the University of Pennsylvania (Gerbner & Gross, 1976). Reed Scull & Peltier (2007, p.17) explained that cultivation theory “posits that when people are frequently exposed to a consistent set of messages about a group, they tend to incorporate the information gleaned from those messages into their worldview and their view of that particular group”. Arguably, over the past three generations, through the mediums of text, television and film, society has come to believe the myth of super teacher as being that of social reality. More importantly, the question arises concerning society’s expectations and understandings of teachers
(and preservice teachers) in general, and whether any teacher can realistically meet the expectations of society in their teaching role.

### 2.3.2 Self-images of teachers – internal aspects

Consideration will now be given to examination of the image of the professional teacher as held by practicing teachers and preservice teachers. The socially constructed concept of images of teachers extends inwards to the personal images that teachers hold of themselves.

The developing identity of a preservice teacher is one which is of such critical importance that it should be central to initial teacher education program development (Cross & Ndofirepi, 2015; Sumara & Luce-Kapler, 1996). Sumara and Luce-Kapler (1996, 65) highlighted that, “Becoming a teacher involves more than transposing teaching skills onto an already established personal identity: it means including the identity “teacher” in one’s life”. This is the internal, intangible, elemental component of a teacher – the images that teachers hold of themselves both before and after entering the profession. In relation to preservice teachers, Webb (2005, p.206) declared: “The conscious construction of a teaching identity is a major challenge for preservice teachers. Assuming aspects of identity is often an unconscious process”. The abstract nature of teacher identity and self-image is a challenge for initial teacher education, both in terms of recognition of the importance of developing preservice teacher self-image, and of the extended linear nature of that development across the duration of the initial teacher education program.

Exploration of the self-images of teacher professional identity have been undertaken by researchers in an attempt to locate the essence of the professional teacher (Brennan & Willis, 2008; Goodson, 1992; Hargreaves, 1997; Huberman, 1993; Nias, 1996; Sachs, 2001a). The substantial array of literature generated on research into teacher perspectives and identity covers a broad base. Within this body of literature, issues examined include:

- Student practice of teaching (Aspland, 2006; Auh, 2006; Bartlett, Knight, & Lingard, 1992; Britzman, 1986, 2000; Burn & Mutton, 2013; Caldwell, 2013; Cochran-Smith, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2000, 2006),
Student perspectives of the images of teachers and teaching portrayed in popular culture (Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Clandinin, Downey, & Huber, 2009; Dalton, 2006; Furlong, 2012; Goldstein, 2003; Judge, 1995; Scull & Peltier, 2007; Vick, 2000; Weber & Mitchell, 1995; Young & Pinnegar, 2011),

Student and academics’ perspectives of the influence of academic origins on preservice teachers (Jarvis-Selinger, Collins, & Pratt, 2007) and

Social perspectives of the images of teacher gender in education (Adey, 1998; Kreber, 2010; Stroud, Smith, Ealy, & Hurst, 2000; Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998; Willis, Beutel, Welch, & Willis, 2012; Young, 2007; Zipin & Brennan, 2001)

Teachers’ professional identities (Cross & Ndofirepi, 2015; Day, 1999; Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kington, & Gu, 2007; Klein, 2005; Moss, Glenn, & Schwab, 2005; O’Connor, 2008; Perry, 2008; Rodgers & Raider-Roth, 2006; Sachs, 2001; Sim, 2006)

Building on the notion of teacher’s professional identities as being the instruments that develop national citizens, as outlined by Brennan and Willis (2008), Sachs (2001) reviewed literature that focussed on teacher professionalism and teacher professional identity. Sachs’ (2001, p.149) findings highlighted the raft of recent educational reforms, changing working conditions and changing professional expectations that have resulted in teacher professionalism and teacher’s professional identity “being contested at both the level of policy and of practice”. Additionally, the debates surrounding teacher professionalism and teacher identity persist in both the public and professional arenas, to a point where debate continues about whether or not teaching should be considered a profession along the lines of traditional understandings (Cross & Ndofirepi, 2015; Sachs, 2001; Sumara & Luce-Kapler, 1996). This debate reflects current interest, outlined earlier in this chapter, towards the adoption of a clinical model of teacher education at a state and/or national level. Cross & Ndofirepi (2015) are of the view that initial teacher education, and the resultant professional identification, should be a transformative process. They argue that the current processes typically undertaken within initial teacher education do not provide for this transformative
process to occur – rather, they view current initial teacher education as a transposing process. To emphasise this, Cross & Ndofirepi (2015, p110) state:

In this perspective, teacher education in general and learning how to teach in particular have remained in many instances a mere transposing of teaching skills onto persons who have the virtues required to become teachers.

The issue of teacher identity considers not what teachers are, but who teachers are (Olsen, 2008). Zemke (2007, p.29) reported that a “review of educational literature revealed the identity of teachers to be widely explored but also widely contested”.

Additionally, Zemke (2007, p.29) reported, “There was no sign of consensus on the issues of who teachers are or what being a teacher means”. This statement is one that is repeated in a variety of ways throughout the broader literature. Furlong (2012) referred to the pioneering work on understanding identity undertaken by Mead in his 1934 publication *Mind, Self & Society from the Standpoint of a Social Behaviourist* (Mead, 1934). Furlong (2012, p.69) suggested: “Central to an understanding of identity is the notion of self”…and that the “notion of self is socially constructed”. Additionally, Giddens (1991, p.70) asked:

What to do? How to act? Who to be? These are focal questions for everyone living in circumstances of late modernity – and ones which, on some level or another, all of us answer, either discursively or through day-to-day social behaviour.

Webb (2005) discussed identity formation theories in relation to teacher identity formation. Webb (2005, p.208) referred to the duality of “teacher ‘culture’ in its various forms”, being a combination of seeking “common ground, or adopting the values of the group”, in addition to understanding the increasing “regulation of teaching from managerial bodies”. The exploration of teacher representations and images, as outlined earlier, indicates its centrality in providing an essential underpinning of how preservice teachers come to develop perspectives surrounding the roles of teachers.

A review of teacher identity literature needs also to consider the development and maturation of teacher identity within the preservice teacher phase and beyond, into the early career phase. Dyson (2005, p.38) posited that:
A graduate leaving a teacher education program, rooted in tertiary learning, should be able to view their life, their chosen career, their spheres of influence and their personal contribution to planet earth in a totally different way to that which they perceived it when they entered their teacher preparation course.

Dyson’s (2005) statement refers to a commonly held traditionalist view of student growth throughout an initial teacher education program, and the various social, political and economic factors that impact on that growth. In many ways, Dyson’s (2005) statement represents “the dominant cultural view of the teacher as a rugged individualist” (Britzman, 1989, p.442). Britzman, (1986), challenged the construct of a teacher as an individualist, arguing that, in becoming a teacher, a preservice teacher engages in an ongoing, dynamic social structure of development. Britzman (1986) clearly articulated that there is a distinct difference between learning to become a teacher and learning how to teach. The social construct of the teacher is complex. Furlong (2012, p.68) pointed out that:

While literature on teaching and learning foregrounds the importance of identity in teacher development, unpacking understandings of identity is a complex business. Student teacher identity is not static.

Furlong (2012) undertook recent research into preservice teacher idealised identity development in Ireland, utilizing a life history methodology. Furlong’s (2012) research identified some key thematic areas within the research data:

- Teacher’s personal qualities
- Teacher’s relationships with staff, students and community
- Teaching and learning
- Classroom management.

Within these identified themes, participants made clear links between their own school experiences and their idealised teacher identities. In regards to consideration of teacher personal qualities, Furlong (2012, p.7) reports, “The participants’ apprenticeship of observation has evidently influenced the identification with the positive qualities which lie within the affective domain”. Furlong’s (2012) study identified links between conceptions of “good” teachers
and teachers whose personal qualities included being approachable, possessing a sense of humour, being kind and fair. Furlong (2012) refers to these qualities as being progressive qualities, a reference to the alternative archetypal construction of Irish teacher, who was seen as strict, disciplinary and distant.

Furlong’s (2012, p.8) second theme of relationship included components of, “respect, the desire to be remembered and valuing the individual”. In Furlong’s research, this image of respect takes the form of a traditional construct of a teacher as an “all-knowing pedagogue: the children looking up to the teacher and respecting her” (2012, p.8). The element of a desire to be remembered is better described as preservice teachers wishing to make lasting positive impressions from good teaching and positive professional relationships. The element of valuing the individual is most closely aligned with elements of inclusivity and valuing diversity within the school context.

To emphasise this point, Furlong (2012, p.10) reported:

Progressive notions of teaching and learning dominate the narratives of the student teachers. In the constructs of the teachers they wish to become, they focus mainly on the heuristic and non-didactic modes of teaching and learning.

Furlong’s (2012) participants clearly adopted a contemporary, constructivist approach to teaching and learning, often, in Furlong’s view, as a result of the, “pervasive power of their apprenticeship of observation in formulating their lay theories or constructs of their teacher identities” (2012, p.11). Similarly, Furlong (2012) reported a similarly high-level impact of the apprenticeship of observation in relation to the development of belief about classroom management.

Teacher identity includes understandings of time, place, ideology, the interactions of colleagues and other people and a variety of social structures. Britzman (1986, p.443) espoused the view that:

Critical consideration must be given to what happens when the student teacher’s biography, or cumulative social experience, becomes part of the implicit context of teacher education.

Drawing on this notion of cumulative social experience, Cross and Ndofirepi (2015) have categorised the debate into teacher identity as either emphasising the
role of lived experience on one hand, or that of the role of professional experience, in a dichotomous division that in some way reflects the nature/nurture debate within the biological sciences. In simpler terms, the question being considered is: “Are teachers born, or are they made?” Cross and Ndofirepi (2015) were careful to point out their desire to reconcile these two sides of the debate. Sumara and Luce-Kapler (1996) also acknowledged the multiple aspects of teacher identity development. These aspects roughly align to a before, during and after linear progression of a teachers’ professional identities. Sumara and Luce-Kapler (1996, p.65) explained this chronological development as one where:

Beginning teachers must negotiate at least three teaching identities: those they bring with them into teacher education, those they develop while doing university course work, and those they develop during student teaching practicums. Because university and school experiences are generally only weakly connected for beginning teachers, the negotiation of these disparate teacher identities often remains unacknowledged and uninterrupted.

This would seem a critical statement in terms of preservice teacher education and the development of teacher identity throughout a preservice teacher program, particularly in that it points to a linear progression of teacher identity development. Wright & Tuska (1968) conducted early work into the development of teacher professional identity. They also identified a linear progression of teacher identity throughout the duration of the initial teacher education program (Wright & Tuska, 1968). This research involved an examination of the professional developmental continuum of preservice teachers. This work has continued to be built on, with more contemporary work in this area being undertaken by researchers including Cady, Meier & Lubinski (2006) and Walker, Brownlee, Whiteford, Excely & Woods (2012). The aforementioned researchers concur that preservice teachers enter ITE programs with particular perspectives about the role of teachers and of teaching. Cady, Meier & Lubinski (2006, p.296) referred to Lortie’s (1975) apprenticeship of observation conceptualization when they affirm: “On the basis of their prior experiences as students, participants entering teacher-education programs have preconceptions about teaching”. Importantly, Cady, Meier & Lubinski (2006, p.296) found that “The beliefs of preservice teachers also limit their ability to interpret the ideas fundamental to the teacher-education program
and influence their instructional decisions”. The suggestion by these researchers is that the initial perspectives and preconceptions that preservice teachers bring with them to ITE programs are deeply ingrained and take time to be reflected upon and re-evaluated by preservice teachers. When considered against the data gathered in this thesis, the work of Wright & Tuska (1968) reflects the psychological and social growth experienced by preservice teachers. Cady, Meier & Lubinski (2006, p.296) explained this as a process where the “internal locus of authority requires a level of intellectual development that has shifted from accepting knowledge from authorities to constructing one’s own knowledge”. Wright & Tuska (1968) proposed a linear model where preservice and early career teachers moved through several stages of development. These three stages are Dreams, Play and Life (Wright and Tuska, 1968). These stages can be seen extending, in the case of the Dreams stage, from childhood through to post employment as a teacher. Prior to entering an ITE program, Wright & Tuska suggested that the preservice teacher is at the stage of dreams (Wright & Tuska, 1968). Wright and Tuska (1968, p.258) stated:

> Before practice teaching, professional development is at the stage of dreams. These are the self-enhancements the prospective teacher anticipates acquiring when she assumes the professional role. They reflect her motives for teaching and influence what she later finds satisfying and frustrating in her work.

Wright and Tuska (1968, p.274) suggested that for preservice teachers:

> Before practice teaching the role conception of “Me as a Teacher” is a fantasy of how self will improve by emulating teaching models and will achieve fulfilment through becoming a teacher.

The dream component of the continuum is focussed with the anticipation of becoming a teacher. In turn, the anticipation of becoming a teacher is predicted on the preservice teacher’s beliefs about the role of a teacher: how preservice teachers visualise themselves in that role (Wright & Tuska, 1968).

The play component of the model encompasses the experiences of preservice teachers during their ITE programs, including their supervised professional experience placements in schools. Wright & Tuska (1968, p.276)
suggested “during practice their role conceptions change from raw imagination to half-baked experience. Now they know the role as what they have played at being”. Critically, Wright & Tuska (1968) acknowledged that this is a stage where the preservice teacher’s self-conception is explored and improved.

The life component of the model encompasses the important transition from preservice teacher to early career teacher. Both the SETE report and the TEMAG report identify this time as a key juncture in professional growth. Wright & Tuska (1968, pp.279 – 280) observed that, “After a year of experience there is little room left for imagination. The first-year teacher is no longer dreaming or playing. She is being a teacher. She is involved in real life”.

Sumara and Luce-Kaplar (1996, p.67) proposed a similar linear progression of the development of teacher identity. They contended that:

Beginning teachers negotiate the dissonance between their pre-teaching lives and their lives as experienced teachers with a “fictive” identity. This fictive identity, like characters in literary fictions, is composed not only of elements of the student teacher’s already-experienced world of understanding, but also of the various cultural myths associated with the idea of “teacher.”

Sumara and Luce-Kaplar (1996, p.67) also identified three stages of teacher identity development, namely the “Pre-teaching image”, the “Fictive image” the “Lived image”. These stages closely align to the three ‘Dream, Play and Life’ stages proposed earlier by Wright and Tuska (1968). As stated by Sumara and Luce-Kaplar (1996, p.67), the three stages can be summarised as three conceptions of preservice teacher self-identity, namely:

The “pre-teaching” image of themselves as teacher they bring to teacher education; the “fictive” image that develops while they learn to teach; and the “lived” image that forms during their interactions with students in the practicum.

Building on the work of Sumara & Luce-Kaplar (1996), Cross and Ndoferipi (2015) highlight the controversy within the existing literature which separates the emphasis of teacher identity development on ‘lived experience’ from that of professional experience. Whilst Cross & Ndoferipi (2015.) acknowledge that the professional development argument does have value. They ultimately chose to utilise the linear
notions proposed previously by Sumara and Luce-Kaplar (1996) of “‘Pre-teaching image’, ‘Fictive image’ and ‘Lived image’” for the conceptualization of their own chronologically interlinked framework to investigate teacher identity development; namely “pre-teaching experience, formal learning including teaching experience and workplace experience and learning communities” (Cross & Ndoferipi, 2015, p.98). Within the literature, there exists a strong, recurrent theme of a linear, chronological conceptualisation teacher identity development, from a point prior to entry to an initial teacher education program through to entry into the profession.

In the seminal work, Schoolteacher, Lortie (1975) coined the term Apprenticeship of Observation. The Apprenticeship of Observation concept proposed by Lortie arose from his examination as to whether classroom teachers see themselves as sharing common pedagogy, processes and understandings – a collective understanding of the technical techniques and discourse of teaching (Lortie, 1975). Lortie (1975) proposed that many common understandings held by preservice teachers as they enter a teacher education program were already present, due to the period of apprenticeship that had occurred when the preservice teachers were themselves a school student in a classroom environment. Lortie outlined that “we can estimate that the average student has spent 13,000 hours in direct contact with school teachers by the time he graduates from high school” (1975, p.61). Importantly, Lortie’s proposal also demonstrated that the apprenticeship is incomplete. School students don’t have access to the behind-the-scenes processes that occur as teachers plan and organise lessons, assess student work, undertake professional development, interact with other teachers and parents – the additional duties and decisions undertaken by a teacher. Hence, the preservice teacher may have a distorted view of the actions and reasons for action by professional teachers (Lortie, 1975).

Further, Lortie (1975) posited that contact those students do have is often highly personalised and undertaken in close confines – such as that of a typical classroom situation where teachers and students are in close physical proximity to one another. Lortie (1975) pointed out that, in addition to the physical proximity of students to teachers, the interaction that occurs is active – the relationship between student and teacher is invested with affect (Lortie, 1975).

Extending this into a more theoretical realm, Lortie (1975) suggested that in terms of symbolic interactionism, students learn to take the role of the teacher
through empathetic anticipation of the teacher’s reaction to student behaviours. In other words, through extensive hours of close observation of teachers in classrooms, students develop identification with the role of the teacher, resulting in the students projecting themselves into the role of the teacher (Lortie, 1975). This projected experience can be seen being played out on a daily basis in the home environment. When young children play at creating an imaginary school, they take on the role of the teacher or student to recreate the world of the classroom at home. The roles that children step into during this imaginary play are reflections of their close observations of teachers, and of appropriate responses to situations surrounding the roles of teachers (Lortie, 1975; Weber & Mitchell, 1995).

Numerous authors have used Lortie’s text as a key reference in their work on the sociological aspects of teachers and the roles they undertake (Borg, 2004; Britzman, 2003; Chong, Low, & Goh, 2011; Fragnoli, 2005; Hattie, 2009; Martin & Russell, 2009; Rust, 2010; Schempp, 1987; Timken & van der Mars, 2009; Webb, 2005). Although the Apprenticeship of Observation concept is the most frequently quoted component of Lortie’s work, he also expanded on a number of additional issues that are associated to informing teacher roles. These issues include:

- The teacher’s social position.
- Teacher’s roles as professionals.
- Teacher’s thoughts and practices.
- Teachers as artisans, following a calling to their field of endeavour.
- Paths that led individuals to become a teacher.
- The mini-apprenticeship of practice teaching.
- Teacher socialization within the profession.

The above issues are common touchstone points throughout the existing literature, and reflect the influence that Lortie’s work has had on the question of teacher identity development. For the preservice teacher, the Apprenticeship of Observation phenomenon can lead to misunderstanding about the role of the teacher. Borg (2004, p.274) drew attention to this when stating:
One of the consequences of the apprenticeship period is that, whereas people entering other professions are more likely to be aware of the limitations of their knowledge, student teachers may fail to realise that the aspects of teaching which they perceived as students represented only a partial view of the teacher’s job.

Auh (2006) undertook research into preservice teachers’ attitudes and beliefs, with a view to determining personal qualities for graduate teachers. A number of the core attitudes and beliefs identified by Auh (2006) offered insight into the perspectives that preservice teachers may hold in relation to the roles of teachers and teaching. These attitudes and beliefs include:

- Student teachers can be unrealistically optimistic.
- Primary female student teachers exhibit more positive attitudes towards students than secondary male teachers.
- Traditional student teachers, who come to university straight from high schools, are less likely to understand complexities of teaching than mature age student teachers.
- The strongest factor that influences how and what student teachers learned in their teacher education program was their perspectives on teaching and learning.

Much more recently, Aspland (2015) has reviewed the issue of preservice teacher misunderstanding/misalignment of teachers, schools and teaching via metadata analysis. Aspland (2015, p.iii) reported that:

> Pre-service teachers want to experience settings that confirm their idealised conceptions of what schools, classrooms and teaching should be like, but when these ideals turn out not to be present in a practicum context they tend to feel unable or unwilling to employ approaches that might contrast with patterns in place in the host setting.

The work of Johnson (1994) and Borg (2004) provided additional significant insight in the field of the Apprenticeship of Observation. Johnson (1994, p, 440) stated: “Recent studies on the extent to which teacher preparation programs impact on learning to teach suggest that despite course work and field
experiences, preservice teachers’ beliefs about teachers and teaching remain largely unchanged”. Borg’s (2004) work supported this assertion, as did the work of Beauchamp & Thomas (2009), Calderhead & Robson (1991) and Cole & Knowles (1993). The implication of the Apprenticeship of Observation for preservice teachers is that, by time they enter an ITE program, their beliefs about the roles of teachers and the business of teaching are well formed and extremely resistant to alteration or revision (Johnson, 1994). Preservice teachers’ beliefs about the roles of teachers “tend to be rooted in images based in early experiences as students” (Johnson, 1994, p.440). This has major implications for preservice teacher development in an ITE program, in terms of their role perspective and professional judgement, the ways in which preservice teachers learn to teach (such as interpreting new information about learning and teaching) and their development of, and improvement in, teaching practice itself (Johnson, 1994).

One recurring theme in the literature of teacher image and identity is that of altruism. In general, altruism may be defined as the “principle or practice of unselfish concern for, or devotion to, the welfare of others” (Macquarie Dictionary, 2004, p. 31). Sinclair (2008, p.88) proposed that in the specific context of preservice and early career teachers, altruism may be seen as:

Entering teaching to provide a service to others, help the less fortunate, make an impact on society, because good teachers were needed so badly in schools or solve some perceived problems in the educational system.

Whilst much of the extant literature is focussed on the factors that have impacted on preservice teachers to develop their identity or to determine their images of teachers, (almost a cause-and-effect scenario), the literature that considers altruism focusses on the internal motivations of preservice teachers. In relation to motivation about teaching, Sinclair (2008, p.80) stated:

In terms of teaching and teacher education, motivations may, therefore, determine what attracts individuals to teaching, how long they remain in their initial teacher education courses and subsequently the teaching profession, and the extent to which they engage with (concentrate on) their courses and the profession.
Further, Sinclair (2008, p.81) reported: “Most commonly, research reports student teachers being attracted to teaching by a desire to work with students, altruism, the influence of others, and the perceived benefits of the job”. The qualitative research undertaken by Sinclair (2008) indicated that, whilst altruism is a strong internal motivator for pre-service teachers, this motivation might be strengthened by both course work and supervised processional experience placements in schools.

Research undertaken in Australia by Richardson & Watt (2006) also turns the spotlight from the external to the internal. Sinclair (2008, p.98) commented on this change in focus when stating:

At times initial teacher education seems to be “done to” student teachers without much consideration of their motivations and experiences at university, in practicum schools, and in life in general.

Sinclair’s (2008) statement above aligns with calls by the TEMAG review to develop a more holistic method of selection for ITE preservice teachers that incorporates aspects of non-cognitive aspects, such as resilience, altruism and patience.

2.3.3 Representations, Images and Identities of Teachers – Summation

Teacher professional identity stands at the core of the teaching profession, providing a framework for all teachers to construct their own ideas of how to be, how to act and how to understand their work and their place in the school and in society (Sachs, 2001).

Furthermore, preservice teachers bring predetermined understandings of images and identities of teachers to ITE programs. These understandings have been developed through a variety of influences, both internal and external to the preservice teacher. Pervading social images of teachers through media provide unrealistic understandings about the role of the teacher, which may lead to a mismatch in preservice teachers’ expectations (Keroes, 1999; Scanlon, 2008). The Apprenticeship of Observation concept is one that ITE programs need to appreciate in terms of the development of preservice teachers. As Lottie (1975) explained, the understandings that preservice teachers bring with them to their ITE program have been developed over an extended period (Lortie, 1975). Altering preservice teachers’ existing views about the roles of teachers and their personal
teacher identities is complex, with little evidence that ITE programs have had any impact in this area to date (Borg, 2004).

2.4 Literature Review – Summation

This chapter has provided a comprehensive review of literature in three areas through which the development of this research project has been informed. The first area illuminated, from an historical perspective, the emergence and development of schooling in Queensland, highlighting the specific aspects of schooling as a social construct that distinguished Queensland schooling from that offered in other states. The second area of this chapter offered a broad review of the development and nature of teacher education in Australia, and more specifically of teacher education in Queensland. This review provides a contextual backdrop to contemporary teacher education in Queensland. The third area of this chapter considered the literature relating to representations, images and identities of Teachers. This area also outlined the literature associated with the Apprenticeship of Observation concept, and suggested links to contemporary understandings of this concept in relation to teacher education.

In the context of this research project, this chapter has provided a foundation of understanding in relation to the deeply ingrained social structure of education in Queensland, and the range of perspectives that individuals may hold in relation to schooling and education. Later, during and after data analysis, further discussion in relation to preservice teachers’ perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland will be discussed.
Chapter 3  
Research Design

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the methodological approach adopted in this thesis in order to achieve the aims and process objectives stated earlier in Chapter 1. Briefly, the stated aim of this research project was to generate theory surrounding the perspectives that preservice teachers hold in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland. A major objective of this research is to generate substantive research to inform the practice of development of preservice secondary school teachers, specifically at the University of the Sunshine Coast, and elsewhere in Australia.

Within this chapter, Section 3.1 discusses the methodology used in the study, including the determination of the conceptual framework underpinning the study and the ways in which the methodology shaped the methods of data collection; Section 3.2 details the participants in the study; Section 3.3 lists the instruments used in the study and justifies their use; Section 3.4 outlines the procedures used and the timeline of completion of each stage of the study; Section 3.5 discusses the data analysis and finally Section 3.6 provides information regarding the various research ethics approvals for the research project.

3.1 Methodology

This section outlines the methodology and related rationale used in this research project, initially exploring the overarching conceptual framework that underpins the research project. The conceptual framework is then contextualised by considering specific aspects of the study, including the methodology and the research method employed in data gathering. Discussion in this chapter provides a pragmatic approach to the ontological, epistemological and methodological backdrop of the research approach adopted for this study, thus providing an overall framework for the conceptualisation of the thesis.
3.1.1 Conceptual Framework Overview

Research within education is often characterised as falling into two distinctive traditions of inquiry: qualitative and quantitative (Burns, 1994; Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996; Krathwohl, 1993). Crotty (1998, p.15) stated that, “in most research textbooks, it is qualitative research and quantitative research that are set against each other as polar opposites”.

This statement highlights the research divide that has existed for the majority of the 20th century (Crotty, 1998). Crotty argued strongly against this divide, which in his words is “far from justified” (Crotty, 1998, p.4). Crotty went on to state that, “we should accept that, whatever research we engage in, it is possible for either qualitative methods or quantitative methods, or both, to serve our purposes” (Crotty, 1998, p.4). Indeed, O’Donoghue (2007, p.5) suggested that over the past decade, views on quantitative and qualitative methods have evolved to a point where, “far from being oppositional, the two broad approaches are complementary”; a sentiment that refutes traditional beliefs by some researchers that the two approaches are mutually exclusive. All research methods are characterised by particular ontological and epistemological presuppositions. Denzin (1994) argued that, in some regards, qualitative research has no distinct paradigm. Denzin (1994) qualified this statement by outlining that qualitative research is intrinsically multi-method in focus in that it involves the collation and comparison of multiple methodologies (Denzin, 1994; Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). This is a position that is supported by a number of authors (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994; Mertens, 1998). There was consensus that qualitative research methods commonly assume that reality is socially constructed by those actively engaged in the research situation, that the world and relationships are complex, interwoven and interdependent, and that research is intimately associated with the values of researchers and cannot be independent of them.

Despite the initial concerns regarding the virtues of either qualitative and quantitative research methodologies, within educational research, qualitative methods of inquiry have gained credibility to a point where they now rival the level of acceptance previously held by quantitative research methods (O’Donoghue, 2007). Silverman (1993) outlined that qualitative research may include a multi-paradigmatic, multi-method approach to data collection that relies
upon the collection of naturally occurring data and interpreting that data in terms of the participants’ paradigms (Denzin, 1994; Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). That is, qualitative methods attempt to analyse and faithfully portray relationships, meaning systems, constructions of reality, and sense-making apparatus of those people under study (Krathwohl, 1993). These methods characteristically investigate fragments of the social world (Fontana, 1994) and produce data that are more “real” because of their holistic nature (Miles, 1983). Therefore, in the context of the above, qualitative research can be seen as a naturalistic approach to gathering authentic data that attempts to portray faithfully the perspectives of the participants. Further, the theoretical orientation of research will influence how the research act is structured, how data is collected and analysed, and the role of the researcher and researched (Mertens, 1998).

In an effort to clarify the processes involved in developing a qualitative research project, O’Donoghue (2007, p.xi) proposed that a logically designed research project be considered in terms of how it connects to:

- An underlying research paradigm:
- A specific theoretical position within the paradigm;
- A specific methodology consistent with the paradigm and the theoretical position; and
- A set of methods for data gathering and analysis consistent with the specific methodology.

Juxtaposed to this linear analysis of the qualitative research process, O’Donoghue (2007, p.xi) warned that, whilst there are many possible qualitative research methodologies that a researcher may elect to follow, it is often the case that inexperienced researchers will:

Regularly embark on an unsystematic dredge through a wealth of material, driven by a belief that they have, somehow, to master not only the central concepts and methods of investigation of a number of disciplines, but also those of the sub-schools within them, some of which are diametrically opposed to one another.
O’Donoghue’s words of caution have been heeded within this research project. It is with a cautious approach clearly in mind that the researcher has chosen to follow a structured, scaffolded and logical approach in keeping with approaches outlined by O’Donoghue (2007) and Punch (2000). Structured approaches provide a clear, well-defined conceptual pathway; and, additionally, they allow the researcher to articulate clearly the reasons behind the adoption of the proposed research paradigm, theoretical positioning, methodological approach and specific research methods to other researchers. Further, in this study, there are a number of alignments between the proposed conceptual framework and the extant body of research in preservice teacher education, which add supporting weight to the selected framework that underpins the research project.

To assist with the orientation and positioning of this research project, the conceptual framework outlined earlier by O’Donoghue (2007) may be considered against a broader conception of the research process outlined by Crotty (1998). Crotty’s scaffolding of the research process established a clear overview of research frameworks in general. This has assisted in positioning the current research project against the broader backdrop of social research. Crotty (1998, p.4) suggested four scaffolded research elements, which inform each other in the positioning of a research project. These four elements are:

- Epistemology
- Theoretical perspective
- Methodology
- Method

Diagrammatically, the interrelationships of each of these research elements are depicted in Figure 3.
For the purposes of this research project, it is important for the significance of each of the above elements to be understood in their inter-relational context. Crotty (1998, p.3) offered the following overview for the four research elements he identified:

- **Epistemology**: The theory of knowledge embedded in the theoretical perspective and thereby in the methodology.
- **Theoretical perspectives**: The philosophical stance informing the methodology and thus providing a context for the process and grounding its logic and criteria.
- **Methodology**: The strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods, and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes.
- **Methods**: The techniques or procedures used to gather and analyse data related to some research question or hypothesis.

Further, Crotty (1998, p.2) suggested four initial questions that researchers should consider when planning a research project. These are:

- What methods do we propose to use?
- What methodology governs our choice and use of methods?
- What theoretical perspective lies behind the methodology in question?
- What epistemology informs this theoretical position?
Referring to the above four elements and key research considerations raised by Crotty (1998), it is possible to superimpose the conceptual framework of research broadly outlined by Crotty (1998) and the research frameworks proposed by O’Donoghue (2007) and Punch (2000). The superimposing of these research frameworks provides a comprehensive and cohesive structure to approach the research proper.

The research frameworks described by O’Donoghue (2007) and Punch (2000) position the study within the epistemology of constructionism. Additionally, they located the study within an interpretivist paradigm, an approach which “looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world” (Crotty, 1998, p.9). More specifically, the particular theoretical perspectives from within the interpretivist paradigm are that of symbolic interactionism.

Through the adoption of an interpretivist paradigm, the research project focussed on the perspectives of the research participants, and how their social reality regarding the roles of teachers in Queensland secondary schools is constructed. This involved exploring various aspects of preservice teachers’ interactions with their Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) mentors, fellow staff members, community members, students, previous teachers and previous school experiences. By extension, this reflects the key principles of grounded theory. This is most evident at the level of data analysis and will be further touched upon in this chapter. Grounded theory is one that is “discovered, developed, and provisionally verified through systematic data collection and analysis of data pertaining to that phenomenon” (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p.31).

Finally, the question arose as to which methods were most appropriate to use to gather data, in light of the chosen methodology. Following the research frameworks proposed by Crotty (1998), O’Donoghue (2007) and Punch (2000), the researcher identified semi-structured interviews as being the most appropriate method of gathering data, with a view to ultimately generating theory regarding the perspectives of preservice teachers in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland. The appropriateness of selecting interviews as a data-gathering tool is supported by the work of Seidman (2006, p.9) who stated: “At the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning they make of
that experience”. Following consideration of the statement by Seidman (2006) and the stated aim of this research project (to generate theory on the perspectives which Preservice teachers hold in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland), a semi-structured interview technique was an appropriate data gathering technique, and is aligned with the overall conceptual framework of this research project. Figure 4, below, outlines the conceptual framework developed through the amalgamation of Crotty (1998) and O’Donoghue’s (2007) work.

![Figure 4. Amalgamated conceptual framework](image)

To enable a clearly defined articulation of this research project, the specific components that comprise the conceptual framework are examined in some closer detail.

### 3.1.2 Epistemology

*Epistemology* has been defined as “the nature of knowledge, its possibility, scope and general basis” (Hamlyn, 1995). Crotty (1998, p.3) proposed that epistemology could be considered as “a way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know”. Additionally, Crotty (1998, pp.8 – 9) outlined three main
epistemological stances – objectivism, constructionism and subjectivism. Of these stances, objectivism is more generally linked to the theoretical perspective of positivism, and the methodology of experimental research, to which it is closely aligned (Crotty, 1998). Crotty (1998, p.8) further argued that objectivist epistemology “holds that meaning, and therefore meaningful reality, exists as such apart from the operation of any consciousness. That the tree in the forest is a tree, regardless of whether anyone is aware of its existence or not”. Put another way, Huglin (2003, p.1) suggested that objectivism “espouses the belief that knowledge of the world is relatively fixed, exists outside the knower, and that learners can come to know the world as it really is”. The ties between objectivist epistemology, positivism and experimental methodology are highlighted by Gall, Borg and Gall (1996, p.28) who stated: “Positivist researchers develop knowledge by collecting numerical data on observable behaviours of samples and then subjecting these data to numerical analysis”. Clearly, this is not in alignment with the purposes of this study.

On the other hand, Subjectivism is more generally linked to the theoretical perspectives of “structuralist, post-structuralist and post-modernist thought” (Crotty, 1998). Crotty (1998, p.9) explained: “In subjectivism, meaning does not come out of an interplay between subject and object but is imposed on the object by the subject”. In other words, the epistemological subjectivist would have us believe that what we might take to be knowledge is really no more than a matter of personal opinion. From this, we can discern that objectivist and subjectivist epistemologies are at opposite ends of a continuum of thought regarding the nature of knowledge.

However, it can be argued that an epistemology of constructionism falls between objectivism and subjectivism on the continuum of thought regarding the nature of knowledge. Crotty (1998, pp.8-9) stated that, from a constructionist stance, “there is no objective truth waiting for us to discover it. Truth, or meaning, comes into existence in and out of our engagement with the realities of the world”. The contention here is that there is an element of purpose and action inherent in the constructionist stance, highlighted in the statement that: “Meaning is not discovered, it is constructed” (Crotty, 1998). Expanding on this, Crotty (1998) argued that constructionism is:
The view that all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted with an essentially social context (p.42).

The epistemological orientation of constructionism would seem to be closely aligned to the experience of teaching. Teaching is an inherently human and social practice. The interactions that occur between human beings in the process of teaching occur within multiple social contexts, and are both developed and transmitted within those social contexts.

The above outline of objectivist, subjectivist and constructionist epistemological stances highlights the distinctions to be made in terms of each of these orientations. Maykut & Morehouse (1994) and Mertens (1998) particularly noted that qualitative research accepts that there are multiple realities. These realities may more appropriately be considered as being multiple perspectives. Qualitative researchers assert that there is not one reality (or perspective), but multiple realities that may only discovered through a qualitative approach. Two teachers will interpret a particular situation in a classroom through their individual perspectives. Where one teacher sees the reality of a student misbehaving because they are naughty and lack self-regulation, another teacher sees the reality of a child who may have behavioural challenges brought about by complex social and family backgrounds. Each teacher has their own reality...their own perspective. The qualitative researcher recognises the multiple realities or perspectives held by the teachers. These perspectives of the world are socio-psychological constructions that form an interconnected whole; and are created and subject to change as new knowledge is assimilated, and positions become more informed and sophisticated (Guba & Lincoln, 1998).

Whilst this research project could have been undertaken with equal validity after embracing any of these stances, the research questions that emerged from the literature determined the research pathway presented by O'Donoghue (2007) and Punch (2000). As such, this research project will be conducted by adopting a constructionist epistemological stance. This epistemological stance invited the research project to adopt a paradigm of interpretivism, (and more specifically, a theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism), through which the ways preservice teachers make sense of the roles of secondary teachers can be investigated.
3.1.3 Interpretivist Paradigm and Theoretical Perspective of Symbolic Interactionism

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, the research paradigm within which this research project will be developed is that of interpretivism, and the specific theoretical perspective within the research paradigm will be that of symbolic interactionism. It is useful at this point to firstly, and separately, consider an interpretivist approach to research, before investigating the theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism.

O’Donoghue (2007, p.16) contended: “For the interpretivist, the individual and society are inseparable units. From this, it follows that a complete understanding of one is not possible without a complete understanding of the other”. The suggestion is that, in an interpretivist approach to research, awareness of the mutual interdependence of both individuals and society and the meanings that surround this interrelationship is essential O’Donoghue, 2007; Charon, 2007). This is relevant to a study such as this one to investigate the positioning of the participants and their perspectives on the roles of teachers in the broader society. The two are inextricably linked.

O’Donoghue (2007) pointed to a number of assumptions which underpin an interpretivist approach to research, and which are closely aligned with the work of Blackledge and Hunt (1985). Blackledge and Hunt (1985) proposed assumptions of interpretivist approaches to research that revolve around everyday activity, freedom, meaning, interaction and negotiation (pp.234 – 235). Furthermore, O’Donoghue (2007, p.17 – 18) has used each of Blackledge and Hunt’s (1985) assumptions to clarify the interpretivist approach from an educationally pragmatic standpoint. Thus, in relation to everyday activity, O’Donoghue argued that “if we want to understand education we must begin by looking at everyday activity in the different education sectors” (2007, p.17). In relation to freedom, O’Donoghue proposed that an interpretivist approach requires the researcher to view people in society, or in a system, as having the autonomy and freedom to produce their “own roles and patterns of action” (2007, p17). Further, the third and fourth of Blackledge and Hunt’s (1985) assumptions, meaning and interaction, considered the processes by which individuals, (in this case, preservice teachers), interpret the behaviour of other teachers with whom they interact with in schools, and subsequently act or develop meaning based on
that interpretation. Also, O’Donoghue (2007, p.17) argued “that our interpretation of other people’s activity is influenced by what we currently consider we know about them, including our knowledge of their age, race, intelligence and motivation”. The final assumption of Blackledge and Hunt (1987, p.235) is that of negotiation. They stated that: “Interpretative sociology tends to suggest that over time actors come to have shared understandings and interpretations”. The sharing is brought about through a process of ‘negotiation’ of meaning. In the case of this research project, the actors are the research participants (preservice teachers) and the researcher.

Symbolic Interactionism, as a theoretical perspective within the research paradigm of interpretivism, was contextualised by Charon (2007, P.12) who stated:

Symbolic interactionism – as are physics, chemistry, sociology, existentialism, psychology – is a perspective, and that means it is one way of understanding reality. Because it is part of social science, it focuses on the human being and tries to understand human nature. Because it is part of sociology, it attempts to uncover the significance of our social life.

Symbolic Interactionism, where people act toward situations based on the meaning those situations have for them, and where these meanings are derived from social interaction and modified through interpretation, is an especially appropriate theoretical perspective for an educational context, and for a study of this type. Charon’s (2007) contention was that symbolic interactionism is a perspective that intimately deals with our understandings of the human condition, proposing that symbolic interactionism has five central ideas. These central ideas may be summarised as follows:

- The human being must be understood as a social person. It is ongoing constant lifelong social interaction, which leads us to do what we do. For this study, this implies that the preservice teacher and the graduate teacher have been impacted upon by the social constructions of school. Thus, Lortie’s (1976) Apprenticeship of Observation construct is a practical example of socialisation leading to particular perspectives and beliefs.

- The human being must be understood as a thinking being. Human action is not only caused by interaction among individuals but also interaction within the
individual. Thus, for the purposes of this study, this idea focusses on the importance of teacher identity and the influences that impact on preservice teachers as they are developing their individual teacher identities during their ITE program and as early career teachers.

- Humans do not sense their environment directly; instead, humans define the situation they are in. An environment may actually exist, but it is our definition of it that is important. In this study, it will be important to interrogate how each of the participants positions their thinking and development as a teacher within the significant of the environment as they see it. The question will be how their own roles as a teacher emerge.

- The cause of human action is the result of what is occurring in our present situation. Cause unfolds in the present social interaction, present thinking and present definition. Thus, it is important to capture student’s thinking over time – before, during and after, so as to ascertain their thinking at any point along the journey.

- Human beings are described as active beings in relation to their environment. To a great extent, we control what we do (based on our social interaction, thinking and definition of the situation). This is the active process of preservice teachers transitioning to “becoming” a teacher.

The adoption of symbolic interactionism as a theoretical perspective is an appropriate choice for this research project, for the reasons outlined throughout the previous section.

3.1.4 Methodology

As stated in the previous section, this study employs a methodology that is aligned to the principles of grounded theory. Grounded theory is a qualitative research method developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Grounded theory is, “inductively derived from the study of the phenomenon it represents (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p.23). Put another way, “The phrase “grounded theory” refers to theory that is developed inductively from a corpus of data” (Borgatti, 2014, para. 1). It is a theory that is “discovered, developed, and provisionally verified through systematic data collection and analysis of data pertaining to that phenomenon”
A research method based on the methodological principles of grounded theory was deemed appropriate for this study, as the theory develops and evolves during the research process due to the interplay between data collection and analysis phases (Barker, Jones, & Britton, 2014).

Straus and Corbin (1990, p.23) asserted that there are four central criteria for judging the applicability of a well-constructed grounded theory to a particular phenomenon. These are:

- **Fit**: This criterion refers to the ‘fit’ that the generated theory has to the everyday reality of the area being studied. In relation to the current study, the theory being generated has a good ‘fit’ in terms of investigating a number of preservice teachers possessing diverse characteristics (age, gender, program of study, teaching areas, school background, personal background etc.).

- **Understanding**: This criterion considers whether the theory being generated makes sense to those practicing in the areas and to the participants. The current study is comprehensible by both preservice teachers, practicing teachers and educational researchers.

- **Generality**: Whilst the current study engages participants who are preservice teachers at the University of the Sunshine Coast, the theory being generated will be applicable in the first instance to USC, and more broadly to other ITE institutions in Queensland. The scope of the research is such that there is a sufficient breadth to be considered in a variety of contexts.

- **Control**: The current study engages preservice teachers at the University of the Sunshine Coast who have had experience with observing and interacting with secondary school teachers in Queensland state schools. Theory generated from data derived from this study is specifically related to state secondary schools and preservice teachers from USC. Thus, there is a level of control imposed on the conditions under which the theory is generated.

These four criteria were used as a touchstone to guide the broad direction, intention and veracity of the proposed study. By employing a methodology that was aligned to that of the grounded theory approach, the ultimate research findings “constitute a theoretical formulation of the reality under investigation, rather than consisting of a set of numbers, or a group of loosely related themes” (Strauss &
Corbin, 1990b). Additionally, Barker, Jones & Britton (2014, para. 10) pointed out that, “an important feature of Grounded Theory is that it represents a systematic method that may be applied to research problems”. This was deemed advantageous for the current study, as it allowed systematisation of process across multiple cohorts of participants. Grounded theory is a process that revolves around the generation of theory through the process of self-reflection, deep thought and ultimately the discovery of new ideas, and as such provides an appropriate methodology to meet the stated research objectives of this study (Charmaz, 2006). Grounded Theory provides a strong theoretical conceptualization of the emerging data by explaining the experiences being studied through the different reactions and interpretations of the participants and the changes in conditions that may impact on the process itself. Grounded Theory is particularly relevant in the current study as it provided a methodological approach that, due to the nature of the research participants, was flexible and responsive to changing conditions or variations. This provided the researcher with the capacity to modify or review analyses as the investigation proceeded, or to gather additional new data if required (Rumble, 2010). Rumble (2010) acknowledged there continues to be a level of uncertainty expressed by some quarters regarding Grounded Theory methodology. Rumble (2010) urged researchers to reconcile qualitative and quantitative assumptions and critiques to allow for a holistic approach to research in general, and support for the validation of qualitative methods such as grounded theory. On a positive note, Rumble (2010, p.132) stated: “By continuing to emphasise the interactive nature of both data collection and analysis nurtures qualitative traditions through studying the lived experiences of individuals (and) resolves many of the criticisms of the methodology”. It was anticipated in the current study that accountability of the type outlined above would take the form of considered decisions about the reliability of the data, about the suitability of the research design and about empirical grounding of the research findings themselves. Additionally, Grounded Theory methodology was deemed particularly appropriate for this study because it allowed access to a diverse range of preservice teacher perspectives and enabled multiple voices to be heard and then inferences made, at a conceptual level. In this study, the participant perspectives reflect the evolving experiences of preservice teachers entering a contemporary school environment, coupled with personal reflections on the roles of teachers and school environments from their own lived
experiences. In light of these issues, Grounded Theory offered a level of theoretical sensitivity, which referred to the personal qualities of the researcher and related to understanding the meaning and subtlety of data (Barker et al., 2014). Barker, Jones & Britton (2014, para. 8) suggested that theoretical sensitivity might be described as “the process of developing the insight with which a researcher comes to the research situation”. In the case of this study, it was anticipated that by developing theoretical sensitivity, the researcher would be able to recognise important data and ultimately formulate conceptually dense theory.

3.1.5 Research Method

Kvale (2007) described two contrasting metaphors for knowledge production – interviewer as miner or interviewer as traveller. While Kvale was referring to approaches to interviewing, these two metaphors could equally apply to the overall research approach adopted by the researcher. If the researcher assumes the quest of the miner, “knowledge is understood as buried metal” and the role of the researcher is to unearth the valuable metal or to dig out the knowledge “waiting in the subjects’ interior to be uncovered, uncontaminated by the miner” (Kvale, 2007, p.19). The researcher mines for valuable nuggets of ‘truth’, extracts these from the subjective experience and presents them objectively. Alternatively, the researcher as traveller metaphor, places the researcher “on a journey to a distant country that leads to a tale to be told upon returning home” (Kvale, 2007, p.19). In keeping with the original Latin meaning of conversation as ‘walking together with’, the traveller wanders through the landscape and interacts with the people he or she meets. The curious traveller “walks along with the local inhabitants, asks questions and encourages them to tell their own stories of their lived world” (Kvale, 2007, p.19). The traveller records their journey in visual and written forms, collects mementos and records anecdotes to recollect the key features.

Whether the interviewer takes on the role of miner or traveller, there remains the understanding that the participant and the researcher are in a relationship (Guba & Lincoln, 1998; Mertens, 1998; Silverman, 1993). This relationship involves the interaction of their individual cultures, biographies, and the active construction of their worlds. These elements are fundamental to the research situation, in that the cultures and biographies of not only the researcher,
but also the researched, shape the research act and the interpretations of the research findings (Denzin, 1989).

Furthermore, one’s cultural context determines not only what is a relevant world and acceptable “truth”, but also the permissible roles, reactions, and identities available in the interview situation (Carspecken, 1996). As such, both researcher and participant, in the active construction of meaning, are creating the interview context and their social roles (Hammersley, 1992; Miller & Glassner, 1997). Peräkylä (1997, p.210) referred to it as “constructions of social realities”. In the case of this study, the participant’s cultural context as a school student in Queensland state schools, a classroom teacher in Queensland state schools and an academic in a tertiary ITE program shape the researcher’s identity. The cultural context of having been a school student, undertaking the role of preservice teacher in a Queensland state school and undertaking the role of a preservice teacher in an ITE program shaped the participants’ identity and social roles within the current study. Active construction of meaning through shared context assists both the researcher and participants to create a meaningful interview context.

Moreover, the researcher operates in multiple worlds. He or she moves between his or her own sociological perspective and the everyday perceptions of the respondent (Denzin, 1989). The researcher interprets the subject’s reality from their own sociological perspective and retains their sociological meaning. It is apparent that the researcher’s sociological interpretation of the respondent’s perspective is inherently more powerful. These multiple layers of the interplay of relationships bring richness to the data that is invaluable.

Furthermore, an individual person’s cultural context determines not only what is a relevant world and acceptable “truth”, but also the permissible roles, reactions, and identities available in the interview situation (Carspecken, 1996). As such, both researcher and researched, in the active construction of meaning, are creating the interview context and their social roles (Hammersley, 1992; Miller & Glassner, 1997). Peräkylä (1997, p.210) referred to it as “constructions of social realities”. In this study, as a university academic came to know the diverse cohort of student participants, the creation of meaning is multifaceted.

As previously outlined above in Figure 2, this research project utilized semi-structured interviews as the research method for obtaining data from participants. Seidman (2006, p.8) stated, “Interviewing, then, is a basic mode of
enquiry”. The utilization of semi-structured interviews, with a methodology aligned with that of grounded theory, provided pause to consider the researcher’s conceptualization of the actual data collection process. For this research study, an interview method was entirely appropriate as a research instrument (Seidman, 2006). This is a position supported by Seidman (2006, p.9), who stated:

At the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience.

For the purposes of this research study, the interview technique employed was based on interview processes outlined by Seidman (1998). Seidman’s processes require participants to engage in semi-structured interviews. For this research study, the interviews typically lasted approximately 30 minutes, which provided adequate duration to cover key questions, ask for clarification if necessary and to provide the participants with the opportunity to reflect and expand on their thoughts. Follow up interviews, where conducted to elicit follow up data, were of a shorter duration.

The three-interview structure proposed by Seidman (2006) calls for three separate interviews focussed on the following areas:

- **Focused Life History** This element positions the participants’ experience in context in terms of their teaching and life history.
- **The Details of the Experience.** This element concentrates on the concrete details of the participants’ present experience.
- **Reflection on the Meaning.** This element asks participants to reflect on the meaning behind their perspectives.

Following considerable thought and reflection, a decision was made to compress the original process proposed by Seidman (2006) into two discrete interviews. The adjusted interview process undertaken in this study combined the elements of focussed life history and details of the experience into one discrete interview prior to undertaking a supervised professional experience. A second interview to reflect on meaning and changed perspectives was conducted post-supervised professional experience. Seidman’s (2006) interview model was compressed to accommodate
the nature of the study, based as it was on perspectives of preservice teacher roles and identity before and after a supervised professional experience.

3.1.6 Interview One – Focused Life History and Details of the Experience

Seidman (2006, p.17) proposed that the Focused Life History component is designed to “put the participant’s experience in context by asking him or her to tell as much as possible him or herself in light of the topic up to the present time”. For the participants in this study, all had been students in Australian primary and secondary schools, with many of the participants having been primary and secondary school students in Queensland state schools. Examination of participants’ history as primary and secondary students, their interactions with teachers, their views about school and their deep reflection on their own personal school experiences produced rich data, and assisted in positioning the mindset of the participants within the broad research context. The segue from Focused Life History to the Details of the Experience allowed participants to reflect on their experiences of being a preservice teacher, and their thoughts regarding how they will potentially view the role of teachers (and by extension their own roles) once they undertake their supervised professional experience placement. Seidman (2006, p.18) proposed, “the purpose of the second interview is to concentrate on the concrete details of the participants’ present lived experience in the topic area of the study”. For this study, this initial broad ranging interview provided a number of key reflective points, and raised the issue of teacher identity when participants were confronted with articulating their thoughts about the roles of teachers in secondary schools. In general, participants were eager to articulate their specific thoughts at this juncture in their ITE program, and were looking forward (with some level of trepidation) to their impending supervised professional experience.

3.1.7 Interview Two – Reflection on the Meaning

Following their initial supervised professional experience placement in a secondary school, participants undertook a further interview that encapsulated the third interview construct of Seidman’s (2006) interview model. This interview focussed on reflecting on the meaning of each participant’s recent experience in secondary schools. Seidman (2006, p.18) detailed that:
The question of “meaning” is not one of satisfaction or reward, although such issues may play a part in the participants’ thinking. Rather, it addresses the intellectual and emotional connections between the participants’ work and life.

Whilst in this second interview, the focus of authentic teacher roles and preservice teacher experiences were reflected on; throughout both interviews, participants were making meaning through the process of “putting experience into language” – in other words, engaging in a “meaning-making process” Seidman (2006, p.19). Participants readily undertook to reflect on their supervised professional experience; they were universally highly motivated to speak about their experiences and to openly speculate about changed personal perspectives teachers, teachers’ roles and schools in general as a result of their supervised professional experience.

3.2 Participants

A total of 35 participants were interviewed during the data-gathering component of this research project. The participants within the research project were drawn from secondary preservice teachers enrolled in the Graduate Diploma of Education, Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Science or Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Business programs. The demographic of students in these programs was varied, with the ages of students ranging from the early 20s to mature-aged students of 45 years and over. A demographic breakdown of the participants is shown below in Table 6:

Table 6. Demographics of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total number of participants: n = 35</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male participants: n = 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female participants: n = 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male participants: percentage of cohort = 17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female participants: percentage of cohort = 83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grad. Dip in Education participants: n = 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate participants: n = 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grad. Dip in Education participants = 46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate participants = 54%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A number of cultural backgrounds were represented within the cohort. Primarily, the participant cohort comprised of Anglo-Australian preservice teachers, who had
been born in Australia and attended both primary and secondary school in Australia. Of the undergraduate participant cohort, the entire cohort was of Anglo-Australian background.

Within this same participant cohort, the majority of the participants had undertaken both primary and secondary schooling in Queensland. Of these, the majority had attended state schools, with a small number attending Catholic school. The majority of the undergraduate participant cohort had entered their respective programs of study directly from secondary school, although seven (7) of the nineteen (19) in the cohort (36%) were classed as ‘mature aged’ students by USC enrolments. This indicated that they had not enrolled directly from Year 12 (having studied or worked for several years before entering the program of study). This percentage is entirely consistent with current enrolment data for this program. The number of ‘first in family’ to study at a tertiary institution within this undergraduate cohort was also consistent with first in family figures across USC.

Of the sixteen (16) participants drawn from the Graduate Diploma in Education program, the majority were of Anglo-Australian cultural backgrounds, with some small exceptions. One (1) participant was of Chinese cultural heritage and had attended school in both China and Australia. Two (2) participants had attended school in either Canada or the UK due to family circumstances. Of the participants who were of Anglo-Australian cultural background, the majority of the participants had undertaken both primary and secondary schooling in Queensland, with some participants undertaking school in other states of Australia. School settings included state schools, Catholic schools and independent/Grammar schools. The undergraduate academic backgrounds of the participants varied considerably, and included various Bachelor’s degrees within the areas of Arts, Science and Business.

Participants were initially contacted through their various student cohorts. Voluntary participation in the research project was called for, and participants volunteered on the basis of the research information supplied to them. (See Appendices F and G for details).

When considering the number of participants required for this research project, Seidman (2006, pp.54 – 55) stated:
New interviewers frequently ask how many participants they must have in their study. Some researchers argue for an emerging research design in which the number of participants in a study is not established ahead of time. New participants are added as new dimensions of the issue become apparent through earlier interviews.

In relation to Seidman’s (2006) statement, this study comprised interviewing three discrete cohorts of participants, as outlined in the table on the next page.

**Table 7.** Interview participant cohorts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview Cohort</th>
<th>n Female</th>
<th>n Male</th>
<th>n Grad. Dip</th>
<th>n Under Grad</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cohort One n = 11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohort Two n = 11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohort Three n = 13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this study, an initial cohort of 11 participants was accepted. Interviews were conducted as per the process described earlier in this chapter – i.e. an initial interview (focussed life history and details of the experience), conducted prior to undertaking supervised professional experience placement; and a second interview (reflect on meaning and changed perspectives) was conducted post supervised professional experience. The initial cohort of participants consisted of eleven (11) participants, nine (9) of whom were in the Graduate Diploma in Education program and two (2) were in undergraduate programs. Of this initial cohort of participants, ten (10) participants were female and one (1) was male.

This data gathered from this initial participant cohort was coded (as will be outlined in section 3.5 below). As a result of themes emerging from the initial round of coding, a decision was made to undertake additional interviews to focus on Graduate Diploma in Education students.

A second participant cohort was subsequently interviewed. This group also consisted of eleven (11) participants, all of who were drawn from the Graduate Diploma in Education program. Of this second cohort of participants, three (3) were male and eight (8) were female. As with the previous cohort of participants, the data from this second round of interviews was coded, and emergent themes from the data were identified. A number of similar, prominent themes were
identified in the analysis of coding from both cohorts. As result of the emerging congruence of major themes emerging from both rounds of coding, a decision was made to undertake additional interviews to focus on undergraduate students.

The third and final cohort of thirteen (13) participants was interviewed. All of these participants were drawn from undergraduate programs. Of this participant cohort, there were eleven (11) female participants and two (2) male participants. The same process of interviewing was conducted with the third cohort of participants; and as with previous cohorts, the data was coded and emergent themes identified.

Seidman (2006, p.56) suggested that: “At some point, however, the interviewer may recognise that he or she is not learning anything decidedly new and that the process of interviewing itself is becoming laborious rather than pleasurable. That is time to say ‘enough’”. In this study, a total of 35 participants were interviewed, at which point it was determined that data saturation had been reached, as no new significant themes emerged from the third and final round of interviews.

The semi-structured interviews were conducted between March 2011 and December 2013. As stated previously, a total of 35 participants were interviewed for this study. The full overview of participants may be found in Appendix A. Interviews were conducted prior to undertaking a Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) placement; and/or post the SPE placement. In this study, the timing of interviews to coincide with Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) placement was an important factor. All preservice teachers are required to undertake SPE as an integral component of their program structure. The transition from university-based preservice teacher to school-based preservice teacher is arguably the most difficult transition within any ITE program. The initial SPE placement is generally seen to be the most difficult for preservice teachers, as there is a steep learning curve of assimilation into school structures, cultures and preservice teacher identity. Due to the watershed nature of the initial SPE placement, this juncture seemed the most appropriate stage around which to bookend interviews regarding preservice teacher perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers.

Pseudonyms were used in the analysis for the purposes of de-identification of the participants. As a further protection to participants, the gathered data were
thoughtfully used or edited without altering the participant’s meaning in any material way (Hammersley and Atkinson 1983).

3.3 Research Instruments

As outlined earlier in this chapter, the instruments used to gather data were semi-structured interviews. The overview of Interview One – Focused Life History and Details of the Experience (Pre SPE Placement) and Interview Two – Reflection on the Meaning (Post SPE Placement) are shown below:

**Semi-structured Interview One Questions:** *Focused Life History and Details of the Experience* (Pre-SPE Placement).

- Can you tell me about your personal school background…starting with your primary schooling and then your secondary schooling? Can you tell me about that? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.
- Where did you go to school? How long at each school? Did you enjoy your schooling experiences or not enjoy them? Why? Are there any teachers or particular schooling experiences that you remember that stand out for you? What do they stand out? Can you tell me about that? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.
- Looking back at your secondary schooling experiences, what did you see as the roles of your teachers? Can you tell me about that? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.
- Were they instructional only, or a mix of instructional/pastoral? Can you give some examples? Do you have any feelings as to the entirety of their role? Can you tell me about that? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.
- Now that you are a preservice teacher, how do you see your role as a teacher in a secondary school? Can you expand and give reasons? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.
- From your current perspective, do you see the roles of primary and secondary teachers as being the same or somewhat different? If different, in what way? Can you tell me about that? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.
**Semi-structured Interview Two Questions: Reflection on the Meaning.** (Post-SPE Placement).

- Now that you have experienced a Supervised Professional Experience placement, can you tell me something about the roles that your mentor teacher played? Plus, additional subsidiary questions. Can you tell me about your mentor teacher’s teaching roles? Pastoral care roles? Extra-curricular roles? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.

- Were there things that you observed that you thought were roles outside of your initial perspectives of what a teacher does? Can you tell me about them? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.

- Were there times when students approached your teacher from a person or non-school point of view? Can you tell me about that? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.

- As a preservice teacher, what roles did you see yourself playing during your Supervised Professional Experience? Can you tell me about that? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.

- Did you find yourself referring back to any of your own secondary teachers or schooling experiences during your Supervised Professional Experience? Can you tell me about that? This may include thinking back to significant teachers, modelling teaching styles from your own student experiences etc. Can you tell me about that? Did that make you feel comfortable/uncomfortable? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.

- Do you see teachers as having one main role or a multi-role function? Can you tell me about that? Plus, additional subsidiary questions.

It is important to note that the interview questions presented above were “guide” questions for the interviewer. They provided a thematic consistency to each of the interviews conducted; however, they are indicative only and provide a chronological unity to the interview (Seidman, 2006). As outlined above, the semi-structured interview process began with Opening and Initiating question(s), which positioned both the participant and the researcher within the context of the
interview itself. Following this, there was a series of Probing questions, which took the participant (and researcher) in a variety of directions.

Each of these Probing questions was supported by Subsidiary questions that were unique to that specific interview event. In the interview process used for this study, the human interviewer became the interview instrument (Seidman, 2006). In this situation, the human interviewer “can be marvelously smart, adaptable, flexible instrument who can respond to situations with skill, tact, and understanding” (Seidman, 2006, p.23). The interviewer is ultimately a part of the interviewing picture, although with a view to minimising the effect they have within the interview. As such, the additional subsequent questions that were asked during the interview process were unique to each participant and each interview, and were asked to elicit additional data and understanding from participant responses.

3.4 Procedure and Timeline

Each interview was digitally recorded a using a MacBook Pro laptop computer that was placed between the interviewer and participant. In all instances, the initial raw recording software was Audacity. This software provided an excellent quality .wav file of the interview. The .wav file was then converted to a smaller, compressed .mp3 file in order for the file to be easily sent for transcription into a Word document (in the case of this study, using NCH Switch software). A commercial transcription company then externally transcribed the .mp3 recording. On receipt of the transcription, it was checked against the recording of the interview of accuracy. At this point, data analysis began. Additionally, the transcript was sent to the participant to be verified for accuracy. The interviews varied in length, but typically lasted between twenty-five and forty minutes. The interviewer recorded Field notes during the interview to accompany the audio recording, allowing for cross-referencing for additional meaning during the analysis stage. The interviews were conducted with three cohorts of participants over 18 months’ duration, either at the beginning and/or on the immediate completion of an initial SPE, and at both junctures if possible. As such, most interviews were undertaken at 6-month intervals. Some further interviews were undertaken to gather additional data where it was deemed necessary (as previously outlined above).
3.5 Coding

The aim of this study was to generate substantive theory regarding the perspectives of preservice teachers. This was achieved through the analysis of interviews undertaken with preservice teacher participants. The analysis of the interviews was in line with the process of qualitative analysis, as outlined by Strauss and Corbin (1990). The work of Strauss and Corbin (1990) is foundational to the Grounded Theory aligned methodology that informs this study. These authors suggested that the analysis (or coding) of the interviews represent “the operations by which data are broken down, conceptualised, and put back together in new ways” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Grounded Theory calls for a general methodology of comparative analysis emphasising that the inquirer must become immersed in the data, being grounded, so that embedded meanings and relationships can emerge. This method of analysis is consistent with the thinking of symbolic interactionists (Charmaz, 2006), based on the premise that reality is a constantly changing entity and that social processes can be changed by interactions among people (Rumble, 2010).

The initial method of comparative analysis begins with a basic description of the phenomenon being studied, which then leads to a more conceptual ordering of the phenomena (Strauss & Corbin, 1990b). Strauss and Corbin (1990, p.19) suggested that this process entails, “organising data into discrete categories — according to their properties and dimensions and then using description to elucidate those categories”. As such, data is derived from the interview transcripts by way of a method of data reduction. Data reduction involves the processes of coding and memoing, initially at a descriptive level and later to expose themes, clusters and patterns. Coding, as described by Punch (1998), is the process of putting tags, names or labels against pieces of data (p.204). In this research study, descriptive codes were used to summarize and categorise segments of data, whilst inferential codes were used to reassemble materials into more meaningful units, by making connections between categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990a). Memos and field notes were also used in the analysis of this study. Memoing in this case referred to the process by which the researcher writes down ideas about the data as they occur and are related to the formulation of theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990a).
3.5.1 Open Coding

The initial analysis of the data involved the process of open coding. The open coding process generated a range of categories in each of the data sets, with many categories being replicated across different interview groups. Strauss and Corbin (1990, p.61) described the open coding process as a method of, “breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising, and categorising data”. Borgatti (2014, para. 8) suggested that in this process, “essentially, each line, sentence, paragraph etc. is read in search of the answer to the repeated question “what is this about? What is being referenced here?”.

Additionally, line-by-line coding was undertaken with a view to exploring the data in greater depth when required. As shown in in Figure 5 below, the text of the transcript is shown in the left-hand column, and the code words and phrases recorded in the right-hand column. By undertaking line-by-line coding, Straus and Corbin (1998, p.66) suggested that the researcher is freed to move beyond mere description and into a “conceptual mode of analysis”.

**Interview of Deanna Rose**

I would actually say the first prac I modelled it a bit on my mentor because I really liked her teaching style and then the second prac... because my main mentor was the Dean of eLearning, they have a lot on LMS which is their computer program.

I took information from there, made my lessons, so in that sense I modelled more my English teacher in high school who I had at Noosa District State High School, added it to my previous mentor, my prac beforehand, because I really liked my first mentor, my first prac in 2010. I liked her teaching style and my English teacher from Noosa District State High School was — she is pretty much the reason I went into education.

Um, her relationship with students, because when I was in Year Twelve... I had her from Year Eleven to Twelve and she was just respectful of everybody in the class. She spoke to us as if we were um, maybe her colleagues rather than her students and we had a really large input into how our classroom was run.

and things like that. And everyone -- she had no behaviour management issues because she respected everyone, so everyone respected her even to the point where we would have one boy in my class, Callum and he was, um, that -- I don’t know if there’s something wrong with him or if he just was hyperactive by nature, but he misbehaved in every other class I had with him and that was three other classes and English was the only one when he was well-behaved and I think that as it all came down to she didn’t speak down to him whereas every other teacher did. And so I modelled more the relationship side.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Line-by-Line Coding</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentor modelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruent teaching style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time poor middle management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locating resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprenticeship of Observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key teacher in key area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own school background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Models previous mentor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alignment of practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprenticeship of Observation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Role model to profession</td>
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<tr>
<td>Positive relationship</td>
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<td>Apprenticeship of Observation</td>
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<td>Apprenticeship of Observation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Respect/Role Model</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher Interaction</td>
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<td>Memory of school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comparison of teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comparison of teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>Respect/Role Model</td>
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<tr>
<td>Respect/Role Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship of teaching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 5.** Example of Line-by-line Coding
Examples of the categories (‘nodes’ in NVivo) created through the open coding of each data set can be seen in the Open Coding example shown below as Figure 6:

![Open Coding Example]

**Figure 6.** Example of Open Coding

The process of building Grounded Theory and the phases of interpretative analysis adapted in this study are summarised in Figure 7 below.

![Grounded Theory Phases Diagram]

**Figure 7.** Grounded Theory based phases or interpretative analysis (following Rumble, 2010)
3.5.2 Adapted from Rumble (2010)

To assist with the analysis process, the transcripts of the interviews (both Word format and .mp3 format) were entered into NVivo (Version 8) qualitative data software, and a process of open coding was undertaken. This generated a total of 26 categories.

These categories were further coded and examined via a grounded theory style approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). From this initial coding process, a number of key themes became evident. Furthermore, from these analyses, a substantive theorizing of the findings occurred.

3.6 Ethics and Limitations

This research project received initial approval by the University of the Sunshine Coast Human Research Ethics Committee on 22nd February 2008. The ethics approval number for this project is S/08/137. The National Ethics Application Form documentation submitted to the University of the Sunshine Coast Human Research Ethics Committee is included as Appendix E in this document. Subsequent to the initial approval of the University of the Sunshine Coast Human Research Ethics Committee, the Research Ethics and Compliance Unit of the University of Adelaide also approved this research project. The ethics approval for this project is H-042-2010 and is included as Appendix D in this document.
Chapter 4
Data Analysis

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapters have established the importance of investigating ways in which preservice teachers develop their perspectives about the roles of Queensland secondary school teachers. Chapter One provides an overview of the study and establishes the research area and topic and the general research question, along with the research guiding questions that underpin the general research question. The conceptual framework underpinning the research question is clearly identified and details the purpose and the significance of the study. Importantly, the research area is identified as one that is in need of further research in the context of Australia, due to the ongoing national and state focus on initial teacher education standards, priorities and outcomes.

Chapter Two of this thesis is the literature review. This chapter provides the reader with an introduction to the major voices in the world of scholarship that have something to offer in the conversation concerning the research problem. As such, the literature review provides a critical summation of the current knowledge in the area of teacher roles and in the context of Australia images by preservice teachers. The literature and empirical research that is reviewed within Chapter Two clearly indicates that preservice teacher perspectives are developed before and during an initial teacher education program, and continue to develop post-graduation when graduates begin their teaching careers as classroom teachers (Furlong, 2012; Sugrue, 1997; Sumara & Luce-Kapler, 1996; Wright & Tuska, 1968). The reviewed literature highlighted major influences that have shaped schools, schooling and initial teacher education in Australia, and more specifically in Queensland. The reviewed literature clearly indicated schools, schooling and initial teacher education in Queensland have been, and continue to be, subject to social, political and cultural influences. The literature review also indicates that the portrayal of teachers is deeply ingrained in western society and has become entrenched in the social psyche of the nation. Importantly, subsets of these images include distinctions between primary/secondary teachers, distinctions between
teacher genders, and distinctions between social representations of teachers as disciplinarians.

Finally, the reviewed literature associated with teacher self-image indicates that the construction of a teaching identity is complex, and a major challenge for pre-service teachers. The diverse positions reported within the broader literature demonstrate that this area is widely contested. The literature clearly indicates that teacher professional identity stands at the core of the teaching profession. The outcome of the literature review unequivocally identifies a tension within ITE programs where preservice teachers are confronted and challenged by conflicting perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers.

Chapter Three of this thesis provides an explanation and justification for the methodology adopted for the research project. This chapter initially determines the conceptual framework the research is positioned within and the ways in which the methodology shaped the methods of data collection. An overview and justification of the participants is provided, in addition to the instruments used in the study and a justification for the use of these instruments. The reader is provided with a timeline of the study. Later in the chapter, the various methods of data analysis are discussed and explained. Finally, a full consideration of the various ethics approvals given to this research project is provided.

The current chapter, Chapter Four, builds on key theoretical propositions that have been generated by the adoption of the data analysis processes described in Chapter Three. This chapter will commence the articulation of theory generation. Chapter Four presents the initial chapter of data analysis, methodically examines the data that was gathered in relation to the perspectives of teacher identity and roles held by secondary preservice teachers and commences the articulation of theory generation.

This chapter (and two additional data analysis chapters, Chapters 5 and 6) provides the reader with the specific results of the analysis conducted in alignment with the methodological processes considered in Chapter Three. This initial data analysis chapter also examines the first of three core propositions derived from analysis of the data obtained from participants in the study. Subsequent core propositions are examined in chapters 5 & 6. The chapter initially provides contextual examples which highlight the changing dynamic of initial teacher education and schooling in Australia, and raise issues regarding the development
of teacher identity and our understanding of teacher’s roles in a changing educational landscape. Following this, the chapter provides examples of the analysis of gathered data via open-coding and line-by-line coding methods. The purpose of coding to generate substantive theory regarding the perspectives of preservice teachers has been previously outlined in detail in Chapter Three. As will be shown, the data reduction process identified key themes within the data, namely:

- Preservice teachers’ perspectives regarding the personal qualities of teachers.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives regarding the relationships within teaching.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives of the teaching and learning process.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives regarding classroom management.

From these four key identified themes, three core propositions were developed. These are:

- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context.
- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm.
- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people.

The remainder of Chapter Four provides an examination of the research participant’s perspectives in relation to the initial core proposition (and sub-propositions), namely: ‘It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context’.
4.1.1 Contextual Introduction

As discussed earlier, the exploration and development of teacher identity and the role of that identity within Queensland schools is a key aspect of initial teacher education at institutions such as USC, due to the influence that teacher identity has on classroom practice (Furlong, 2012). In highlighting this, Furlong (2012, p.3) states:

Understanding the critically formative influences in student teachers’ lives and the extent to which these are compounded and reinforced through student lay theories, atypical experience and their personal education has major significance for initial teacher education.

In response to the above, questioning the development of teacher identity and role perspectives has been the underlying impetus for conducting the current study.

Importantly for preservice teachers, initial teacher education in Australia is regarded as being world class, with graduates being considered very well educated against international peers, and provided with a high level of professional regard in their community at large (“Teaching for Excellence ACDE submission to the Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group,” 2014). Notwithstanding a prominence within the international community, initial teacher education in Australia continues to be developed, refined, reviewed, reported and scrutinized, with an aim towards ongoing improvement against specific success criteria (Craven et al., 2014). As outlined earlier in Chapter 2, most recently the TEMAG review (2014) and the SETE Report (2015) have made suggestions and recommendations regarding strategies to improve initial teacher education in Australia. The TEMAG review (2014) found that, in part, ongoing reviews and reports into initial teacher education are driven by sustained public concern regarding the quality of ITE programs offered in Australia (Craven et al., 2014). The public concern is then amplified by “media comment and political intervention” – leading to a seemingly endless cyclic focus of criticism in relation to not only initial teacher education, but teaching and schooling in general (Craven et al., 2014, p.viii). The confluence of politics and education related issues is theme that has also been explored earlier in Chapter 2. The TEMAG Review (2014) found that concerns over initial teacher education stem from a range of issues including:

- State and university differences with existing entry requirements and limited entrant selection processes,
• Perceptions of the lack of academic capacity of entrants and graduates,

• The desire to investigate entrant and graduate dispositions towards teaching and working with young people,

• Ongoing debate about the intrinsic value and content of curriculum presented in ITE programs,

• Ongoing debate about pedagogical approaches presented in programs,

• Ongoing debate about the alignment of initial teacher education programs with the teaching profession (Craven et al., 2014).

The SETE report (2015) supports the call by the TEMAG review (2014, p.x) for the adoption of an integrated system of initial teacher education, through the development of “structured and mutually beneficial partnerships” to create closer alignment between ITE providers and schools. The SETE report (2015, p.176) states:

> While both graduate teachers and principals argued that the preparation provided by teacher education programs could have been enhanced by more time spent in schools, more time on strategies for teaching and less theory, both articulated a view that teacher education provides foundational knowledge and tools from which the learning teaching journey continues along with increasing effectiveness as a teacher.

The call for increased time within the school setting is not new to initial teacher education. Indeed, it has been a recurrent theme within the Australian ITE landscape, and one which has been touched on earlier in Chapter 2. It is generally understood that the current direction of initial teacher education in Australia is trending towards greater periods of time in a school environment; although that time may not necessarily be undertaken in the sense of a traditional ‘block’ of supervised professional experience placement (Aspland, 2015; Craven et al., 2014; Mayer et al., 2015). Based on this accepted trend, the SETE report (2015, p.178) proposes consideration of a third space of initial teacher education that encompasses:

> Consideration of new synergies and new ways of working together to create collaborative spaces for teacher education (physical as well as conceptual spaces) involving universities, employers and schools that bring together learning teaching and doing teaching.
The third space of initial teacher education that is proposed in the SETE report (2015) reflects similar directions in initial teacher education that are currently occurring both within Australia and in a number of other western countries. These programs have previously been outlined in Chapter 2. In review, they include clinical models such as The Oxford Internship Scheme in the UK, Professional Development Schools in the US, the Teachers for a New Era (TNE) initiative in the US, the Melbourne Master of Teaching program (Teach for Australia) in Australia, Authentic Teacher Education in the Netherlands, and Teacher Training Schools in Finland (Burn & Mutton, 2013).

These examples highlight the changing dynamic of initial teacher education in Australia, and raise issues regarding the development of teacher identity and our understanding of teacher role in a changing educational landscape. One common yardstick against which teacher identity and teacher role may be considered is the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (Proficient Level) – (see Appendix M). Similarly, the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (Graduate Level) provides a framework for the professional knowledge, professional practice and professional engagement for all initial teacher education program graduates in Australia – (see Appendix L). As such, the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (Proficient Level) is the current yardstick against which we view the core roles of teachers in Australia. Table 8 (below) shows the seven domains of teaching within the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers.

Table 8. Australian Professional Standards for Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain of teaching</th>
<th>Standards</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Standard 1</td>
<td>1. Know students and how they learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard 2</td>
<td>2. Know the content and how to teach it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard 3</td>
<td>3. Plan for and implement effective teaching and learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard 4</td>
<td>4. Create and maintain supportive and safe learning environments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard 5</td>
<td>5. Assess, provide feedback and report on student learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard 6</td>
<td>6. Engage in professional learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard 7</td>
<td>7. Engage professionally with colleagues, parents/carers and the community</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For preservice teachers, the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (Proficient Level) framework provides the parameters of the organizational roles
of Australian teachers, and reinforces the organizational image of the roles of an effective professional teacher. To this end, the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers are now central and fundamental indices for all practicing teachers and preservice teachers, as they occur as a foundational component of all approved initial teacher education programs in Australia. The centrality of the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers are demonstrated in the newly developed Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) Report form uniformly used across Queensland by all ITE providers for final SPE experience reporting (see Appendix H). This standardised form is used to report on the final SPE placement of all primary and secondary ITE preservice teachers in Queensland, and has been developed through collaboration between ITE providers and employing, accreditation and regulatory authorities. An examination of the form clearly shows the manner in which all aspects of assessment outcomes and reporting are benchmarked against the APST. Although there does remain the capacity for supervising teachers to supply direct written comment on the preservice teacher, the overwhelming tenor of the document indicates that the APST determine and encompass the assumed and implied roles of teachers.

In addition to national systemic elements that may influence the development on preservice teachers’ perspectives of the roles of secondary teachers, there are Queensland specific elements that may also influence preservice teachers. These include standards and codes that preservice teachers are required (and expected) to observe. For preservice teachers at the University of the Sunshine Coast, these standards and codes include:

● USC Supervised Professional Experience Code of Conduct (see Appendix C).
● Code of Ethics for Queensland Teachers (see Appendix I).
● Department of Education, Training and Employment Standards of Practice (see Appendix J).
● Code of Conduct for the Queensland Public Service (see Appendix K).

The standards and codes listed above allude to the organizational image of a professional teacher; one who demonstrates integrity, dignity, responsibility, respect, justice and care (“Code of Ethics for Teachers in Queensland,” 2015). Arguably, immersion in the various codes of conduct and professional standards as
a preservice teacher will strongly influence preservice teacher perspectives regarding the roles of secondary school teachers. Clearly, the influences that contextualise preservice teachers’ development of teacher identity and teacher role are complex and continuing (Furlong, 2012). Furlong’s (2012, p.1) research highlighted that:

Student teacher identity is not static. It is generally accepted that student teachers must undergo a shift in their identities as they move through their initial teacher education and into life in the classroom and may well experience further identity alteration as they progress through their teaching careers.

It is important to reiterate at this juncture that for the researcher engaged in this method of qualitative research, an essential mind-set is to appreciate that the researcher is not trying to prove a theory, as would be the case in a quantitative research project. Rather, the qualitative researcher, in this instance using an approach aligned with grounded theory, begins to investigate an area of research interest; and what is relevant to that area of research interest is allowed to emerge (O’Donoghue, 2007; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). This implies that as data is collected it is concurrently interpreted and analysed within the context of the study. This methodological process is essential in the data analysis phase of this study.

This chapter will now examine the data that was gathered in relation to the perspectives of teacher identity and roles held by secondary preservice teachers. Perspectives concerning the roles of secondary school teachers, which emerged from the research, were generated from preservice teachers who were in enrolled in ITE programs at the University of the Sunshine Coast. These perspectives are presented, not as individual responses to interview questions, but as a result of analysis of outcomes and themes. These themes were generated from a thorough analysis of all data transcribed from interview texts, and field observations recorded in field notes and memos, as outlined in Chapter 3.

4.1.2 Themes

As outlined earlier in Chapter 3, interview data was coded using NVivo (Version 10) qualitative data software. The open coding process generated a range of categories in each of the data sets, with many categories being replicated across
different interview groups. Examples of categories created through the open coding of each data set can be seen in Chapter Three.

From these initial categories, four main themes emerged within the data. These themes are centred on key teacher roles:

- Preservice teachers’ perspectives regarding the personal qualities of teachers.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives regarding the relationships within teaching.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives of the teaching and learning process.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives regarding classroom management.

The main themes that emerged from an analysis of the data are closely aligned to those identified in recent research into teacher identity undertaken in Ireland by Furlong (2012). It is posited the alignment of the themes in the two studies stems from close similarities in the investigation of comparable cohorts of preservice teachers in comparable ITE programs, as learning and teaching and classroom management are common elements of preservice teacher program structures in western countries. Furlong’s study involved a cohort of 15 participants who were enrolled in a Post Graduate Diploma in Primary Teaching program. As with the Graduate Diploma in Education participants in the current study, Furlong’s participants possessed a broad range of academic qualifications and capacity in Arts, Business, Science and Nursing prior to entry to the ITE program (Furlong, 2012). The current study varies from Furlong’s (2012) work in that participants are drawn from secondary teaching programs, and include both undergraduate and Graduate Diploma program students. It is heartening to see thematic similarities emerge between both studies, despite some differences in focus between primary and secondary cohorts. The thematic similarities indicate the existence of a commonality of perspective that exists within preservice teachers (at least in western countries). With this in mind, Furlong’s (2012) work will be further considered later in this study to provide additional scope to the discussion chapter.

Further investigation and analysis of the thematic data led to the development of three core propositions interrelated with the broadly identified themes. The three core propositions have been developed to capture the essence of the data in a concise and specific manner. The three core propositions arising from the themes are:
● It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context.

● It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm.

● It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people.

These three core propositions are represented diagrammatically below in figure 8.

![Diagram of Core Propositions]

**Figure 8.** Three Core Propositions

Each core proposition, and any associated sub-propositions, will be presented in a chapter of its own: chapters 4 through to 6. It is noted that the three core propositions developed through examination of the data do not directly align with the published AITSL Professional Standards for Teachers (Graduate Level) (see Appendix L) or the AITSL Professional Standards for Teachers (Proficient Level) (see Appendix M). Whilst it may be argued that there is an implicit understanding that demonstration of meeting the various standards focuses on developing positive relationships between teacher and student, this does not seem to be explicitly stated. As such, it is argued that the Australian Professional Standards
for Teachers is organizationally focused, and the participant core propositions that arise from the research are based on interaction and relationships.

As mentioned earlier, each of the three core propositions has been identified to contain a number of sub-propositions. These sub-propositions were generated through the coding of the data and allow the core propositions to be expanded and interpreted. The sub-propositions need to be seen as points on a continuum through which the researcher strives to develop interpretations of the data (Dey, 1999). As such, the core propositions and sub-propositions that support them are intrinsically linked. The remainder of this chapter is framed to:

- Present and analyse the core proposition, namely: It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context (4.2);
  - Identify and analyse the sub-propositions:
    - Reflecting school and SPE experiences (4.3);
    - Care and nurturing of students (4.4);
    - Consistency and predictability (4.5);
- Provide a conclusion to the chapter (4.6).

The analysis unfolds forthwith.

4.2 Core Proposition 1

It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context.

The research literature and data presented in this thesis overwhelmingly affirmed that implicit, and central to the role of the teacher, is the capacity to develop and maintain positive relationships with young people. The core proposition of a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context is central to
the participants’ perspectives of the nature, role and function of the secondary school teacher. This was equally true for participants who had good prior experiences of schooling and for those who had poor prior experiences of schooling. This perspective presented itself comprehensively in the interviews conducted with participants from all of the interview cohorts, and manifested itself in diverse forms throughout the interviews. The core proposition of fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context emerged from the interviews as participants expressed their discrete ideas and perspectives concerning the roles of secondary school teachers. Participants expressed their ideas through their personal experience of schooling, personal experience of teachers and of their personal experiences as preservice teachers on a supervised professional experience placement – typically the initial placement of their program of study. These experiences allowed them to speculate about what it was that they believed the roles of a secondary school teacher should encompass. All participants acknowledged the importance of continuing to build their own professional and personal capacities in the process of becoming a secondary school teacher.

Importantly, a majority of the participants did not immediately identify positive professional relationships as an important aspect of their role as a preservice secondary teacher prior to undertaking a Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) placement. Counterintuitively, the majority of the participants identified one or more of their own secondary school teachers as having a positive professional relationship with them, which often extended to broader school activities outside of the classroom (such as sporting or artistic activities). Additionally, the majority of participants identified a change in their perspectives regarding the roles of secondary school teachers once they had completed one or more SPE placements in secondary schools. This change was from a perspective of secondary school teachers as having primarily a focus on content knowledge, to one where maintaining a positive professional relationship between teacher and students was seen as a core role of secondary school teachers.

The following comment by Hannah Jones (p.1) reflects the attitudes of a number of the participants, and their desire to be engaged in identifying themselves as a secondary school teacher:
A favourite teacher, or teacher who stands out for me, there were many but the main one, would be Richard Smith my Year Seven teacher. I think why he appealed to me was his sense of fun, he allowed you being the eleven and twelve year olds that you were to continually try and cross the line but he would always let you know where the boundary was and I really appreciated him for that. He really helped with my transition I think into high school, which is something that has stayed with me that I would like to do for kids when I’m a teacher.

Hannah is acknowledging her experience of the capacity of the secondary school teacher to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people – in this instance, in the early secondary school phase. In itself, Junior Secondary is a crucial stage of transition from primary to senior secondary education, which in many situations in Queensland signals a change in school site from a smaller primary school campus to a larger secondary school campus (“Junior Secondary in state high schools,” 2016). The Queensland Department of Employment and Training (DET) (Junior Secondary in state high schools, 2016, para. 1) states that:

Junior Secondary is a phase of education in state secondary schools for Years 7, 8 and 9, which helps to ensure the bridge between primary and secondary school is safe, strong and consistent for all students.

There is a clear implication in this brief description by DET that positive professional relationships between teachers and students are a fundamental element in the development of safe, strong and consistent school environments.

Additionally, Hannah is reflecting on her own experiences with a teacher, where the professional relationship is a safe place with well-defined and understood boundaries. The relationship was significant enough for Hannah to remember and reflect on the details of the relationship and the teacher, even though it occurred when she was an adolescent at this stage of her schooling experience. This is a common, recurring theme across responses from other participants. Hannah recounted another influential teacher of hers, who also provided clear professional boundaries. Of this teacher, Hannah (p.1) outlines:
But as far as teachers standing out; one would be my English teacher, Bill Ellison, who again was very similar to Richard Smith, had a sense of fun but also would discipline you, let you discover where the boundaries were and always made sure that you didn’t cross them.

Hannah’s comments allude to both the consistency and predictability of a professional relationship that had been developed, and in some ways self-regulated, by the teacher and students.

The forms of the positive professional relationships outlined by Hannah and other participants varied greatly. The subjectivity and personal perspectives of the participants nuanced the definition of what each participant determined to be positive and professional. A further example of a preservice teacher reflecting on a school based professional relationship with a teacher is recounted by Ebony Dean (p.1) who says:

My Art teacher, because that was like my ‘ace’ area and she gave me almost total independence in the classroom. I had access to all the facilities, I had access to the room and, you know generally people aren’t supposed to have access to the room and things like that so I was supported with that. She put my stuff into the Minister’s awards without me knowing because I was away – you know she really supported me in that area.

Developing, then maintaining, a positive professional relationship is a process that occurs over an extended period of time. Ebony’s interactions with her secondary school Art teacher occurred across her five-year enrolment at her secondary school. It can be speculated that although Ebony had already experienced professional relationships with other teachers across the entire duration of her schooling, the strong, trusting nature of the professional relationship between Ebony and her Art teacher was unique and had a lasting impression on Ebony. The experience will strongly influence Ebony’s perspectives about roles of secondary school teachers from her current position as a preservice teacher, and eventually as an early career teacher.

Rosalie Cook (p.1) provided a further example of a positive, professional relationship she had with a secondary school teacher. Rosalie had been reflecting on her secondary school experiences with her own teachers, when she stated:
I definitely want to do that myself, having that student-teacher relationship, you know if the kids are having a bad day having that relationship there that they can come and talk to me but then having those boundary lines as to where you can and cannot cross with students you know.

Once again, this statement articulates the teacher/student relationship as being a professional relationship, which is a safe place with defined and understood boundaries. Additionally, the inference in this statement is that Rosalie sees her emerging role as a teacher as more than simply a provider of knowledge in a didactic teaching environment: there is a sense of pastoral care in the teaching role. In a similar manner to Rosalie, Jake Morton (p.1) reflected on his experiences at school and said, “The good teachers, if somebody had a personal problem or if they had any problem they’d take them aside and talk to them and try and sort them out as best they could”. Jake’s statement signals a pattern of responses regarding the teacher’s role incorporating a dualistic professional relationship that included both academic and personal components. The dualistic nature of teacher’s roles is also highlighted by Hannah Franks (p.1), who states, “Well aside from teaching you the academic side of things the majority of my teachers were more than that. The majority were incredibly caring. They are just helping you through things”.

The majority of participants readily related positive memories of teachers from their own schooling experiences. The memories typically reflected teachers as being caring individuals and schools as being an enjoyable place and reflect the core proposition of teachers maintaining positive professional relationships with young people. This view is a position espoused by the National Education Association (NEA), which promotes caring as an essential teacher quality (“A Quality Teacher Is a Caring Teacher – Show Students You Care About Them,” 2016). The NEA (A Quality Teacher Is a Caring Teacher – Show Students You Care About Them, 2016, para 1) states:

Showing students you care about them helps create a positive, supportive relationship and helps build an environment where learning can flourish. And you’re modeling behavior that you want students to learn and emulate.
Additionally, the NEA (A Quality Teacher Is a Caring Teacher – Show Students You Care About Them, 2016, para 4) states:

Most teachers care about imparting knowledge to students. But the best teachers also care about the relational aspect of teaching. They take time to establish a trusting and caring connection with their students, who in turn become more receptive to what’s being taught.

The Queensland government also supports this stance, in part reflected via the contents of the Learning and Wellbeing Framework (“Learning and Wellbeing Framework,” 2015). The framework documentation states, “Principals and school staff support student wellbeing by providing challenging, interactive and engaging learning experiences and by nurturing relationships with families and the wider community” (Learning and Wellbeing Framework, 2015, para. 1).

When reflecting on her own student experiences, Alison Paul referred to interactions with one particular teacher. Alison Paul (p.1) reported “And she helped with that. She helped with; even if you just needed to go talk for a few minutes she would say ‘yes, come to my office, like let’s just chat’. From the perspective of a secondary school student, the availability of a conversation with a trusted adult, even if it is brief, is one that held great value to Alison, and has remained with her as a key memory. Alison Paul (p.1) continued her comments regarding the roles of secondary teachers with the following statement:

Teachers have many roles. I find teachers are first and foremost teachers to their students of a content but also they have roles like, I find in providing a comfortable environment for their students as well as getting to know them – a whole bunch of roles.

Alison’s comment above alludes to the dualistic roles inherent in the embodiment of the secondary school teacher. On one hand, the secondary school teacher is required to take on the role of content specialist. At other times, the secondary school teacher is positioned in the role of caring and concerned professional adult, with little regard for their capacity as a content expert. This role is rarely recognised in any official capacity.

Blaine Barton (p.2) reflects on his experiences in a final SPE placement, and reflects that:
In terms of student relationships, I actually thought it would have been more content-based than what it is. It’s a lot more relational than what I thought it was. Just because having dad being a primary school teacher and then my uncle’s being high school, I thought that primary would be a lot more relational than what high school was. So I thought I was going to be doing something with a lot more content.

Blaine’s statement raises the recurrent primary/secondary debate surrounding the level of professional, caring relationship that a teacher may enter into, as well as the impact of sex-role socialisation theories of care and professional relationships (Skelton, 2003). Blaine’s statement reflects a pervading social perspective that primary teachers are characterised by being nurturing, caring and focussed on an innate sense of positive relationship with a student. In counterpoint, Blaine’s perspective alludes to the secondary teacher as being content focussed, with the positive, professional relationship as the focus of the teacher’s role being relegated to a far lesser status (or given little or no focus at all). This incongruity has been noted in work undertaken by researchers across various areas of education and schooling (Pajares & Urdan, 2008; Scanlon, 2008; Wright & Tuska, 1968). Additionally, Skelton (2003) reported her related research that indicated it was of vital importance to actively recruit both males and females to become primary teachers, due to the perceived feminisation occurring within primary schools. Skelton’s (2003) work suggests that western social constructions of masculinity and femininity continue to define the socially understood care relationships between teachers and students. The issue of relationship and associated care difference in the roles of primary and secondary teachers is a recurrent topic across western countries. As such, it is significant that preservice teachers from all of the participant groups in this study clearly identified positive, professional relationships as being fundamental to the role of the teacher. Hattie Fergusson (p.1) commented about her experience of identifying the importance of positive professional relationships during an SPE placement. Hattie (p.1) reflects that:

I emailed my mentor the weeks leading up to prac saying I’m terrified of math content. I’m very worried that I’m not going to be able to do Year Ten math and she wrote back saying that’s going to be the least of your problems. Come and pick up a textbook. You’ll be absolutely
fine. By the end of the three weeks, you will laugh that you thought content was going to be a problem. And she was right.

When further questions were asked by the interviewer about whether Hattie felt relationship was a key component of the teaching experience, Hattie (p.1) replied “Yeah. Because I think the kids will learn anything if they like you and they trust you. And you know I got a few things wrong on the board in Year Eight or Ten maths and they were very forgiving”. Similarly, Conrad Harper (p.1) comments, “It’s important for the teacher to know the content, but to get them (students) to understand the content the relationship needs to be there”. The observations above are summarised by Gayle Hammond (p.1) who, in her final year of a four-year undergraduate program, reflects:

Over the four years I have noticed it’s not about content at all. I mean of course that’s a huge chunk of it but over forty per cent of what students learn is through the way you approach them, so through that rapport with students, and so that was a huge-huge thing that I have to learn.

Participant Regina Lloyd (p.1) made observations of her most recent supervising teacher in an SPE placement. Regina (p.1) stated that she observed, “How they should interact with their students because they are of that older age especially with your senior class, his interactions, and how he tried to adapt to their different learning styles”. Adding to this observation, Regina (p.1) says, “I really liked that and that’s sort of what I’ve envisioned a good secondary teacher to be like”. Alongside this observation that a positive, professional relationship will look and feel different to junior secondary and senior secondary students, Regina also alludes to the unseen aspects of the teacher’s role. After an SPE placement, Regina (p.1) observes, “Behind the scenes though there is a lot more going on than I think I ever pictured before now”.

Analysis of the data obtained through interviews with the participants clearly indicates that the majority of participants held a perspective that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context.
4.3  Sub-proposition 1.1

The strong desire for preservice teachers to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people is a reflection of personal experiences both in their own schooling experience and as a preservice teacher observing supervising teachers in the classroom.

The focus of Core Proposition One is that the perspective of preservice teachers of the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context. With respect to this sub-proposition 1.1, the data demonstrated that preservice teachers have a strong desire to develop and maintain positive and professional relationships with young people. In addition, the data demonstrated that this ethos is a reflection of both preservice teachers previous schooling experiences and experiences in supervised professional experience placements.

4.3.1  Own Schooling Experience

Participants were particularly forthcoming in relation to their own personal histories of schooling and interactions with teachers prior to beginning an initial teacher education program. Participant’s previous schooling experiences were generally very positive, and exploration of previous schooling experiences invariably focussed on the role of the teacher and the professional/personal demeanour that the teacher revealed to students. This position is characterised by Ebony Dean (p.1), who stated:

I enjoyed school for the most part. I’d say probably there are a few stand out teachers that I can remember and they were all teachers who put individual time into helping me with areas I was really good at so, not so much helping me with things that I couldn’t do but the ones who paid like, more attention to me for the areas that I was good at perhaps because they were interested in the same areas.

In this statement, Ebony highlights a nuanced example of the professional relationships that teachers have with young people; one where care is demonstrated not by remedial assistance, but rather by attention to areas of
student’s strengths. This is a particularly important distinction to make in terms of personal perspectives held by preservice teachers. Despite any generalised background demographics that may overlay the entirety of the group, all members of the participant cohort have been able to successfully navigate secondary school and obtain entry to tertiary study to undertake an initial teacher education program. This indicates that participants have experienced successful secondary education in Queensland, supported in their strength areas by secondary teachers.

The personal schooling experiences described by participants were generally very positive, although the experiences varied greatly with the gender, schooling background and social situation. Jake Morton (p.1) shared his insight into positive experiences with two of his own secondary teachers. Jake recounted that:

Once they broke us in we were in the entire boys class and he set distinctive rules so we had to play the game. Very authoritative and strict, straight down the line. He was someone who also really cared about what was going on in the class. And Mr Wood, who’s now I believe a vice principal out west somewhere, a principal out west somewhere. He was a Biology teacher and he was just kind of brilliant really. He wrote textbooks and that. His passion was Biology and he kept pushing you to explore different things.

Jake’s recounting of teachers who are remembered for their authoritarianism, strictness and professional boundaries and behaviours, through which actions they demonstrate care and a positive professional relationship towards students, is a common thread from mature aged participants. Both Jake Morton (36 years old) and Hannah Franks (37 years old) made specific mention about teachers being both firm, yet caring. Hannah Franks (p.1) recounted:

We got a lot of direct instruction. I would say that the teachers taught us what they knew when I was going to school which I haven’t seen as much here in our learning but then again the teacher that I really liked would give us what we needed to know and then let us work on it on our own or in groups. We did a lot of group work, which is currently being emphasised for sure. So sometimes they were, you know, leaders rather than boss but I also saw a lot of the, a lot of the direct instruction route as well.
It may be that the perspectives of both Jake and Hannah were determined by being taught by an older generation of teachers who used a more authoritarian approach in their classes. Additionally, there are gendered elements to both their statements, as the teachers in both instances were male. It may be speculated that what may initially be considered incongruence between strict classroom structure and care was ultimately reassuring to these participants due to the consistent and predictable environment that resulted. Additionally, both the male teachers in these examples may have been fulfilling the accepted social role of a male secondary teacher for the two participants – strict, clear boundaries, firm-but-fair, with a caring nature under the tough exterior. In a sense, this may also have been reassuring for the participants, as it provided them with an accepted social lens through which to negotiate their relationship with their teacher.

Participants clearly recounted various ways in which their teachers demonstrated positive professional relationships. Recounting of these experiences was often accompanied with a sense of nostalgia; these narratives elicited strong positive emotions and memories from participants. It is noted that whilst the interactions that are recalled have been significant events in the lives of participants, remembered and related years after leaving school, it may be speculated that they may well have gone unnoticed by the teachers involved.

Jarred Massey (p.1), a Mathematics and Science preservice teacher, recalled an influential science teacher in the following statement:

> Because as I watched, I remember the way he was doing things. He was always running around the class to describe to us the way an electron moved and things like that, and always getting out practical things. It was never the lecture format that people sometimes associate with the Maths and Physics pursuits.

Gloria Powell (p.1), a Health and Physical Education preservice teacher, reflected on the positive professional relationships she had with two of her teachers by recalling:

> My favourite teacher was my Geography teacher just because we got along so well, and then my PE teacher; he kind of developed my interest in Sports Science.
In a similar vein to Gloria Powell (above), Ray Knight (p.1), a History/English preservice teacher, reflects on positive professional relationships with one of his secondary school teachers as follows:

I had a teacher for Modern History, Mrs Bowman. She was great and just so passionate and talked to us about, you know, the different ways that you could sort of look at education, one for learning to pass tests and one for sort of lifelong learning, and I think that got through to a few people saying, ‘you know here’s a teacher that sort of gets it’.

Finally, Jennifer Walsh (p.1), describes her experience of a positive professional relationship with a secondary school teacher as follows:

My old legal studies teacher, she just had a really good relationship with the kids and even though she didn’t know -- she wasn’t a legal studies teacher, but she figured out how to use the relationships to help her teach.

The above examples provided by participants reveal various ways in which secondary school teachers demonstrated positive professional relationships with preservice teachers who were participants in this study. Participants were consistent in their belief that this modelling of positive professional relationships had informed their own emerging professional practice. Of note is the focus by participants on the relationship aspect of the role of the teacher; the content knowledge of the teaching role is rarely mentioned, or mentioned in unison with the relationship aspect (this is also noted in the field notes taken during interviews). It is also important to note the examples provided by Esther Ramsey, a mature aged preservice teacher. Esther’s responses to the same questions posed to other participants, and provided above, were markedly different. One of Esther’s (p.1) initial statements during her initial interview is as follows:

School was preferable to home. I don’t have any particularly fond memories of schooling. I didn’t have a good home background at that stage, I often went to school with bruises nobody ever noticed them – school was better than home basically.

Without any additional prompting by the researcher, Esther (p.1), expanded in this initial statement by explaining:
I didn’t have a good home background at that stage; I often went to school with bruises. Nobody ever noticed them – school was better than home basically. I remember one teacher when I was about seven who was very sweet, she’s the only teacher I remember the name of, Mrs Shert, and she was always there, like at that level, at my level; if I was standing she was always sitting, and she was just a listener. I didn’t have any particular memory of any other teachers; good, bad or indifferent.

Esther’s statements are notable for as number of reasons. Firstly, her repeated statement that the school environment was preferable to the home environment demonstrates the crucial role that the physical and social structure of the school plays in providing a safe environment for some children. Secondly, Esther’s statement that her only particularly special memory of any teacher across the totality of her schooling is from early primary school simply stands in stark contrast to responses from all other participants. Field notes indicate that Esther’s childhood saw her attend a number of schools until she left formal schooling to pursue a career in primary health care, followed by a number of other jobs as well as parenthood. Surprisingly, during additional elaboration, Esther (p.1) stated, “Well, right from when I was seven I wanted to be a teacher…but the day I finished high school my mother dropped me off at the hospital with a job as a nurse aide and that was it”. Esther gave no specific reason for her desire, at such a young age, to be a teacher. It may be speculated that it was seen, to her seven-year-old self, as a socially appropriate or achievable position – similar to the nursing position she eventually followed upon leaving school. With her challenging schooling background and life experiences, Esther’s perspectives of teachers and their roles have an unexpected positivity. Despite her personal experiences at school, Esther (p.1) provides the following insights:

I’ve really come to realise that the teacher is probably one of the three most important people in a child’s life. Like, has a really big influence on life. Like there are mum and dad and family people and there are teachers that spend a lot of time with them. So, I think it’s a really big important role and I think, what I’m liking about, what I learn is that we’re giving them the ingredients so that they can learn stuff. I was given the information and told to learn it. We’re coming at it from a completely different point of view now. But that’s what I’m looking forward to my role: giving them the choice to learn.
Despite the difficulties of her own experiences of schooling and teachers that Esther describes early in her initial interview, she retains a level of confidence and optimism regarding the roles that teachers play. Esther’s statement above still clearly demonstrates not only her views of the importance of teachers, but also the requirement for teachers to have a positive professional relationship with students to allow them to become an important person in a child’s life.

4.3.2 SPE Experience

Participants were equally forthcoming in relation to reflecting on their own Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) placements. The participant’s SPR placement experiences were generally very positive, and an exploration of personal reflections on these experiences invariably focused on the role of the teacher, the role of the preservice teacher and the professional/personal image that the teacher revealed to students. This position is characterised by Hannah Law (p.1), who stated:

You know I tried to adopt a lot of Michelle’s in-classroom policies and that was fine, I was able to do that, but the students didn’t have obviously the same respect level and, yeah I just didn’t, I don’t know I didn’t really introduce myself, I didn’t, you know wasn’t – I didn’t have a status, really.

In terms of Hannah’s desire to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with students during an SPE placement, her statement reflects the realities experienced and reflected on in some way by all other participants within the study. All participants indicated that they entered the SPE placement with the desire and intention of adopting the classroom strategies and procedures of the supervising teacher. All participants commented on their difficulty to take in the teacher image that they aspired to, and alluded to the difficulty of identifying the exact nature of what that image entailed. Similarly, Tiffany Sparks (p.1) reflects that:

I tried really hard to start with, to model it on everything I had collected from my own experience, from my Uni experience, from my mentors but that was mostly just initially until I realised that the mentors mark good teaching practice by comparing to themselves.
Tiffany’s (p.1) statement is indicative of the developmental stage that preservice teachers progress through as they locate and define their own image and role. Tiffany indicates that her teacher development drew on personal experience of teachers from her own school days, information from her ITE program and direct observation of her supervising teacher. Tiffany’s statement also touches on the difficulties encountered by ITE providers in relation to quality assuring SPE placements against the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers. Tiffany’s (p.1) statement of, “mentors mark good teaching practice by comparing to themselves” is a recurrent issue within ITE quality assurance processes. Whilst tangential to the current study, this statement is important in signalling the need to continue to address broader issues within ITE programs to achieve comparability and quality at a national level.

Jennifer Walsh (p.1) reflected that her development during SPE was through both experiencing her own teachers and observing her SPE supervising teachers. Jennifer (p.1) says:

First one was modelling on teachers I’ve had. But then it also was a lot on a mentor, (but I did agree a lot on his perspective and everything that he stood for as a teacher).

Supervised Professional Experiences are especially concentrated periods of development for preservice teachers, with steep learning curves. Janie Malone (p.1) reflects on her SPE placement, saying:

They included me in every bit of teaching they could, and they used me in every part that they thought they could include me, which I think really enhanced my practicum. And also because of the, you know you get confidence when you have been, I guess praised enough and then you are able to actually do things that you probably didn’t think you could.

Janie’s (p.1) statement is indicative of the intense nature of the SPE placement, and suggests that the growth in confidence as a preservice teacher is a reflection of the growth in teacher image and development. Hannah Jones (p.1) provides similar reflections of her experiences at SPE with her supervising teacher. Hannah (p.1)
reflects on the professional capacity of an experienced classroom teacher (her supervisor), through her statement as follows:

There are some days that because she’s had the experience she was like, looked at some things and was like: ‘I’m going to do this today’. So, yeah I was just like ‘whoa, how can you do that’ because I sat at home for six hours figuring out what this is and then how I’m going to teach it.

Hannah’s (p.1) statement is indicative of statements made by other participants regarding the capacity for teachers to be able read the needs of the class and adjust as required. Not only does this capacity suggest a deep knowledge of students, it also reflects the current Australian Professional Standards for Teachers career stages of Graduate, Proficient, Highly Accomplished and Lead Teacher. Whilst these stages mark developmental benchmarks within a teacher’s development, they also reflect a level of chronological development of the role of a teacher. Similarly, Jake Morton (p.1) states:

And that activity just ended. And afterwards, after it was finished he, (Glen) goes ‘how you feeling’? And I went ‘I wasn’t expecting it to be perfect. I didn’t expect it to go that bad’. I said ‘but how come it didn’t work?’ and the next day I came and did it with a different class, and it worked perfectly.

Jake’s statement is in a similar domain to Hannah’s previous comment, in that it references the ability for teachers to be able read the needs of the class and adjust as required. The opportunity that SPE placement provides preservice teachers to observe experienced teachers in their professional interaction with classes can be seen as almost a developmental extension of the apprenticeship of observation process. SPE provides preservice teachers the opportunity to simply observe and absorb the unspoken professional relationships, interactions and experiences that teachers have with their students. This provides preservice teachers with firsthand experience of the highly nuanced relationships that occur in the classroom environment in a secondary school. Hannah Jones (p.1) remarked on this experience with her supervising teacher as follows:
There are some days that because she’s had the experience she looked at some things and was like; ‘I’m going to do this today’. I sat at home for six hours figuring out what this is and then how I’m going to teach it.

In a similar manner, Rosalie Cook (p.1) recounts the following recollection of her own school experience

I mean probably our Drama teacher was sort of a mentor teacher and played the role of, you know, a key role in his subject area but it was also about promoting confidence within yourself as well and sort of had that connectiveness to outside of school. Yeah, that’d be hard to put a name to it but…. I would have to say they did play a role of – oh, what would you put to it? More of a casual ‘how you doin’, how you feelin’ today?’ If you’re feeling pretty crappy then they’d sort of ask you without having to do into a great deal of detail.

When further questions were asked about whether situation would impact on her teaching methodology as both a preservice teacher in her next SPE placement and then as a graduate teacher, Rosalie (p.1) provided a highly animated and passionate reply, as follows:

I definitely want to do that myself, having that student-teacher relationship. You know if the kids are having a bad day, having that relationship there, that they can come and talk to me but then having those boundary lines as to where you can and cannot cross with students you know. Like ‘I’m here to help you but’ I can’t give you too detailed, you know if it crosses the lines – boyfriends, or something like that but. Also in my role in Health and PE I hopefully, fingers crossed, the school that I go to does ‘sex ed.’ and go in that way and help kids that way or, you know giving kids advice to try and build up a strong relationship with their parents, being able to talk to them and if not send them towards the guidance counsellor.

Hannah, Jake and Rosalie have made reference to their supervising teachers demonstrating the dual components of experience tempered by professional relationships and understanding of the student cohort. Participants in this section have clearly articulated through their responses the strong desire for preservice teachers to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young
people, and that this desire is a reflection of personal experiences – both in their own schooling experience and as a preservice teacher observing supervising teachers in the classroom.

4.4 Sub-proposition 1.2

Sub-proposition 1.2 proposes:

Participants clearly articulated their perspective that fundamental to the role of the teacher was an element of care and nurturing for students and young people.

Sub-proposition 1.1 proposed:

The strong desire for preservice teachers to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people is a reflection of personal experiences both in their own schooling experience and as a preservice teacher observing supervising teachers in the classroom.

Sub-proposition 1.2 goes a step further in terms of the perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers articulated by preservice teacher participants in the research project. The inclusion of the words ‘care’ and ‘nurturing’ in relation to the secondary school environment is significant. As has been outlined earlier in Chapter Two, common social images see primary school teachers as caring and nurturing (often linked to gendered stereotypes of the primary teacher as embodying the nurturing female archetype). This is in contrast to common social images of secondary school teachers as content focussed with a more masculine and/or disciplinary structure that favoured content and structure over care and nurturing. Hannah Jones (p.1) recounts her SPE experience of her supervising teacher’s focus on this component of the teacher’s role as follows:

So any time I was having difficulties with students she always knew their background. She always knew outside of the classroom, like what was going on and who was where. You know there was a student who wasn’t there in my first two weeks and he was just there one day and I was like; ‘who is this’? And she said ‘Oh, he was away in New Zealand and his family does this’ and she just knew, she knew a lot
about the students. So I imagine that came from pastoral care and like building the relationships with the students.

Hannah’s statement is indicative of other responses from secondary preservice teacher participants in this project. The terms ‘pastoral care’ and ‘relationship’ often coincided in participant responses. It is important to note that participants seemed surprised at the level of pastoral care observed during their SPE placements. As with elements of the previous sub-proposition, the preservice teacher participants surprise might be seen as almost a developmental extension of the apprenticeship of observation process. The participants were now in a position to observe secondary teachers from a different perspective, revealing the elements of the teacher’s role that were previously not visible to them.

Alison Paul (p.1) also made comment on her newfound perspectives of the roles of teachers when she said:

Teachers have many roles. I find teachers are first and foremost teachers to their students of a content but also they have roles like providing a comfortable environment for their students as well as getting to know them – a whole bunch of roles.

As with the previous comment by Hannah Jones, Alison’s comment is indicative of sentiments expressed across the cohort of participants. Whilst the SPE experience confirmed the participant’s expectations of delivering specific curriculum content, it also surprised them in terms of the pastoral care and relationship elements of the teaching role. Susan Walker (p.1) interpreted this situation as obtaining equilibrium between both sides of the secondary teacher equation – content and relationship. Susan Walker responded in her post SPE interview as follows:

But see… I feel like I’ve really got a nice happy medium going because it’s important. Like they need to know that you’re human and that you can cry and you have feelings and that – you’re not gonna cry in class – but that you also are the professional and you are in the end ultimately there for all the discussion and their opinions and everything, that you still are the leader of the group.
Some participants reported substantial changes in their personal perspectives of the role of the classroom teacher – particularly in relation to increased understanding of students and their life worlds through positive professional relationships in the classroom. Jake Morton’s (p.1) story demonstrates this quite dramatically, as he explains in his post-SPE interview:

I think it’s a great school and the kids are awesome but there’s so many social problems in that school – it was kind of stunning. And as the kids got to know me, and I am sort of that sort of person that approaches people and shows emotion… and just the horrific stories they were telling me. So it went from ‘why is this kid turning up without paper’ to after two weeks he said to me ‘I’ve actually been living on the street for a (week) because I was thrown out of home’.

A number of participants reported similar situations were they were confronted by the reality of a life world that was substantially different to their own experiences. Importantly, in these instances, there was the opportunity to debrief and reflect upon their changed perspectives with peers and/or academic staff in an environment that was both supportive and non-judgmental of either the preservice teacher participant or the students at the particular school. Equally importantly, the field notes indicate that this participant had the opportunity to reflect on this situation with his supervising teacher, thus obtaining an additional level of perspective about the social realities of some secondary students.

As Jake’s experience was further examined in the post-SPE interview, Jake (p.1) stated:

I would think from my perspective the most important thing would be to actually get the students interested in what it is that they need to know and making them understand why they need to know it. Because that’s it, you’re a teacher but it can’t be done without the other stuff, it can’t be done without the pastoral care – being aware that there’s whole lot of other crap going on in their lives.

Jake’s statement is again indicative of many of the post-SPE participant responses, and reflects the sentiments expressed by both Hannah and Alison. Participants typically reported post-SPE their realisation that they needed to find their equilibrium between curriculum content and positive professional relationship
with students. There were a number of sub-texts evident in these statements, and these were noted in the field notes. The first of these sub-texts is the imperative in secondary schools on ‘getting the content covered’. Many participants commented on both the pace and the pressure of achieving the content milestones required to teach and assess units of work. Some participants suggested that the pace of teaching and the pressure to meet the content milestones were barriers to developing positive professional relationship with students – there was simply no time during the scheduled lessons for this to occur in any meaningful way. The second sub-text was that teachers needed to acknowledge that students might well be impacted by a multitude of situations in their home lives that can directly impact on their capacity and performance in the school environment. Thirdly, there is the sub-text that for successful teaching to occur, some form of positive professional relationship has to be established between the teacher and the student. Together, these subtexts raise a cyclic conundrum that both teachers and preservice teachers face – what is more important in terms of ‘good’ teaching; covering the curriculum content or developing positive professional relationships with students than may, in turn, be useful in assisting students to meet the curriculum content?

Alicia Archer (p.1) provides an extended example of how her SPE supervisor developed positive professional relationships with students that benefited both students and teacher. Alicia reports,

My mentor, John, he took on a lot. He was doing a lot of extracurricular stuff in terms of sport. Even though, he’s a maths teacher, he took a lot of sport, uh things like netball, and volleyball, and basketball and things like that after school. Debating; and he sat in on different music classes and it really wasn’t necessarily because he didn’t have to. It was more because he could and he found that it boosted his relationships with particular students by being there for stuff outside of his classroom, and then again, it was pastoral care. He had his own pastoral care group. So he found that if he went to particular extracurricular stuff, he had a stronger relationship with those students when it came to dealing with them in the classroom.

Alicia’s example above demonstrates a further example of the unseen elements of teacher’s roles. Clearly, the teacher in Alicia’s example had made a conscious
professional decision to develop stronger professional relationships with students that would be of benefit to him professionally in his classroom teaching.

Kathryn Barber (p.1) reported an example from her own schooling experience that provides a slightly different perspective on this sub-proposition. Kathryn was reflecting on teachers from her own schooling experiences. She stated:

If you got in trouble they’d pull you outside of the classroom and say ‘listen you’re not working the way I know you can you’re not doing things to your potential’ but like – I remember a teacher that I absolutely hated and I’d goof off in her Maths class but when she pulled me outside of the classroom one day that’s when I realised ‘oh she actually cares about me’.

This statement was significant for Kathryn, as it demonstrated to her the difference between professional persona of the teacher in the classroom and the reality of the caring, professional behind the teacher. Gayle Hammond (p.1) offers a further insight into this area of teacher’s roles. Gayle reflected on an experience from her own schooling when she reports:

I always knew since I was little that I wanted to be a teacher but it was concreted in Year Eleven and Twelve at high school. I had a particular teacher that just took that little bit of extra time to make sure I was okay. I went through a little bit of a rough patch in my senior schooling and she would always just, you know, get down and say how are you today… and not interrogating me, but just making sure I was okay and I found that to be something that I would take on myself to get to know my students. And so, if I walked into a room and they were a little bit off, I would know that there was something bigger. It wasn’t a teaching style; it was once again a relationship practice.

Gayle’s example clearly shows the elements of care and nurturing for students and young people within the role of the teacher. In Gayle’s situation, the teacher’s actions were so significant that she stated, “I found that to be something that I would take on myself to get to know my students” (P.1). When questioned about this a little further in relation to her most recent SPE placement, Gayle stated:
I mean of course it doesn’t work all the time. But when it does it really does and I have noticed it. Actually using that sort of strategy and focusing on relationships, I’ve noticed that has worked; that’s why I kept with it as well.

Within this statement, Gayle encapsulates the relationship, care and nurturing elements of the teacher’s role, in addition to noting that her current classroom practice in this area as a preservice teacher is drawing on her own experiences of classroom teachers.

The participants referenced in this section have clearly articulated through their responses the theme of Sub-proposition 1.2 – that fundamental to the role of the teacher was an element of care and nurturing for students and young people.

4.5 Sub-proposition 1.3

Sub-proposition 1.3 proposes:

Participants clearly articulated their perspective that fundamental to the role of the teacher was an element of consistency and predictability of the relationship presented by the teacher to students.

Preservice teacher participants typically reported their initial surprise at the amount of organisation required within teaching. Although this element of professional life is discussed with both preservice teacher cohorts on a number of occasions leading up to their SPE placements, the reality regarding the amount of organisation and predictability required within the profession is unlikely to be understood until experienced through an SPE placement. Hattie Ferguson’s (p.1) post-SPE statement exemplifies this situation. Hattie points out that:

Yeah, there’s a lot of other things going on in a school that as a student observing your teacher you don’t see. And there’s really not a minute a day that was left over for the teachers to do anything but school.

The words and phrases that participants chose to describe consistency and predictability of the school/classroom environment reflect their individual situations and circumstances. Deborah Jordon (p.1) describes her observations of
quite a different version of consistency and predictability in the classroom during an SPE placement. Deborah reports:

And my main mentor in my first prac, she had been teaching for over 25 years and that was the way she believed her students learned the best. It was complete silence through the lessons and you were to put your hand up and be acknowledged, and then you could have your say.

Far from being concerned about this style of classroom environment, Deborah reported that students appreciated the clear boundaries and shared understandings within the teacher/student relationship. Deborah also reported of her own schooling experience as, “I went to a Christian Catholic and public (school). Mostly a private school; please be seated, pens down, eyes this way”. Deborah reported that two of her SPE placements had quite different understandings of classroom practice; hence she observed two quite different forms of teacher/student relationships. Jennifer Walsh (p.1) made similar observations of her experienced supervising teacher during an SPE placement. When speaking about consistency and predictability of relationships in classrooms, Jennifer observed:

Organisation. Because my first mentor had been teaching for a lot longer. He was a lot more organised and knew exactly what he was teaching. He knew how to read the kids, what expectations and stuff were needed, where my second mentor didn’t have any of that.

Hannah Jones (p.1) shares the following about her own schooling background:

Teachers helped shape who I am because I didn’t have a lot of, you know structure at home and, it was just all over the place. I went to thirteen different schools, so it’s, just like that was my structure, and I want to be that for students that don’t have it (sic). So I feel like, that’s what I’m passionate about and would be stressing that bit obviously.

Importantly, Hannah (p.1) has indicted in her statement that “structure” (or consistency and predictability) was an important element in her own schooling life, due to her home and personal situation. That she means to continue to “want to be that for students that don’t have it” indicates the significance of this aspect of the teacher’s role to her now. Lauren Sutton (p.1) reflected on the role of teachers in relation to consistency and predictability as follows:
They guide you, they help you with stuff you’re struggling with as well – they can be your friends as well. I guess they organise a lot of stuff and all that other sort of things that teachers get the pleasure of doing.

Lauren, like many participants, references teacher’s as the indicators towards the notions of predictability and consistency. The inference is that organisation, preparation and planning provide an environment that is predictable, consistent and provides a level of reassurance to students. By way of example, Esther Ramsay (p.1) reflects on her observations of teacher’s roles in her initial SPE placement with the statement:

I think one of the biggest surprises for me is the amount of preparation and the amount of things that have to be aligned. I mean I just wasn’t aware of how teaching is done, it’s been such a long time since I’ve been at school, so I didn’t – the actual making it work in the classroom didn’t really surprise me – it’s just the amount of, and I’m not saying I know how to do that.

Esther’s reflection uses the word ‘aligned’ – a reference to the internal alignment, coordination and organisation required not only of curriculum material but lesson planning and coordination. Esther’s reflection also touches upon an element that is universally reported by all participants – that the workload of the classroom teacher observed and experienced during their SPE placement is far greater and far more diverse than any of the participants expected. This is exemplified by a reflection from Hannah Jones (p.1), who reported aspects of her SPE middle-years placement as follows:

You spend a lot of time making sure that students are getting lunch; I mean just basic needs, making sure that they’re sitting down and eating it, making sure that they’re getting picked up at the end of the day – and I never imagined any of that for a senior level-type situation.

Similarly, Deanna Rose (p.1) reflected on her changed perspectives of the workloads of classroom teachers as a result of SPE placement as follows:

The only major difference that I noticed between my mental perception and the reality was that, um, there’s a lot more work on the
secondary – the reality was there was a lot more work than what I perceived there to be.

Deanna Rose (p.1) also shared personal reflections and observations from her own senior schooling experiences to highlight consistent and predictable teacher/student relationships. Deanna discusses experiences of one of her own teachers as follows:

Her relationship with students, because when I was in Year Twelve… I had her from Year Eleven to Twelve, and she was just respectful of everybody in the class. She spoke to us as if we were maybe her colleagues rather than her students and we had a really large input into how our classroom was run – and things like that. And everyone – she had no behaviour management issues because she respected everyone, so everyone respected her. Even to the point where we would have one boy in my class, Callum, and he was, I don’t know if there’s something wrong with him or if he just was hyperactive by nature, but he misbehaved in every other class I had with him (and that was three other classes) and English was the only one when he was well-behaved. I think that all came down to she didn’t speak down to him whereas every other teacher did. And so I modelled more the relationship side.

Deanna is one of the many research participants who drew on observations of positive professional relationships; either from their own schooling experiences, their SPE experiences or both. Importantly, Deanna recognised the key elements of this relationship and modelled it in her own SPE placements as a preservice teacher.

The participants referenced in this section have clearly articulated through their responses the theme of Sub-proposition 1.3 – that fundamental to the role of the teacher was an element of consistency and predictability of the relationship presented by the teacher to students.

4.5.1 Conclusion

This chapter initially provided a review of the four main themes derived from analysis of the data, and the three core propositions that arose from further
investigation of the four main themes. The chapter then investigated the first of the three core propositions, namely

It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context.

Following this, the core proposition was further investigated via three sub-propositions, namely:

- The strong desire for preservice teachers to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people is a reflection of personal experiences both in their own schooling experience and as a preservice teacher observing supervising teachers in the classroom.
- Participants clearly articulated their perspective that fundamental to the role of the teacher was an element of care and nurturing for students and young people.
- Participants clearly articulated their perspective that fundamental to the role of the teacher was an element of consistency and predictability of the relationship presented by the teacher to students.

The data analysis within this chapter has overwhelmingly affirmed that implicit, and central to the role of the secondary teacher, is the capacity to develop and maintain positive relationships with young people. This chapter has demonstrated that the fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context is central to the participants’ perspectives of the nature, role and function of the secondary school teacher. Additionally, this chapter has demonstrated preservice teacher’s perspectives regarding the fundamental caring roles of teachers and importance of consistency and predictability of teacher relationships with students.

The next chapter will consider Core Proposition 2.
Chapter 5
Data Analysis

5.1 Core Proposition 2

The second core proposition derived from an analysis of the data is:

It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm.

The research literature and data presented in this thesis overwhelmingly affirmed that implicit, and central to the role of the secondary teacher, is the capacity to possess not only specific subject area knowledge, but to also have the capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm. The core proposition of a fundamental capacity to possess appropriate subject area knowledge and pedagogical skills is central to the participants’ perspectives of the nature, role and function of the secondary school teacher. This was equally true for participants who had good prior experiences of schooling and for those who had poor prior experiences of schooling. This perspective presented itself comprehensively in the interviews conducted with participants from all of the interview cohorts, and manifested itself in diverse participant statements throughout the interviews. The core proposition of fundamental capacity to possess appropriate subject area knowledge and pedagogical skills emerged from the interviews as participants expressed their discrete ideas and perspectives concerning the roles of secondary school teachers. Participants expressed their ideas through their personal experience of schooling, personal experience of their own teachers and of their personal experiences as preservice teachers on a supervised professional experience (SPE) placement. As with the examination of the previous core proposition, the experiences shared by the participants in this section allowed them to speculate about what it was that they believed the roles of a secondary school teacher should encompass. Additionally, all participants acknowledged the importance of their own
professional and personal development along the continuum of becoming a secondary school teacher.

A common response from participants when discussing the fundamental capacity of secondary teachers to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm is to reflect on their initial Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) placements. This resulted in detailed responses where participants clearly described their first hand observations of teachers, and articulated there changing perspectives regarding the roles of secondary school teachers. When discussing secondary teacher subject area knowledge and pedagogical practice post SPE placement, Gayle Hammond (p.1) provides the following lengthy response:

I have got much more appreciation for teachers and what they do. I don’t think you actually fully understand that until you are put in their shoes and you walk the walk and talk the talk and know what they, their workload and what they have to do and what they have to understand. And I think its different teacher for teacher. Some teachers just have that innate ability to walk in there and run the place and it turns out perfectly, but it is hard work and I definitely, my whole perspective of what is involved in being a teacher…it’s not just about knowing some stuff about history or English, but you actually need to know your students and you need to know how to get that content across.

Gayle touches on several commonly raised issues from the entire participant cohort. The first is the almost universal reference by participants to having a renewed appreciation for the teaching roles of teachers and the daily work that they undertake. This includes classroom-teaching duties, duties within the school and extracurricular activities, as well as the undocumented roles of pastoral carer, sports coach and other non-core teaching roles. Secondly, preservice participants appear to draw distinctions between teachers who they see as being ‘natural’ teachers, who appear to deliver effortless lessons that are highly engaging with little or no planning, and teachers who have to ‘work’ at the act of teaching through meticulous and detailed planning. Importantly, participants see these two teacher constructs as two alternative, albeit equal, pathways to the same pedagogical outcome – participants did not draw distinctions regarding the quality
of lessons or the ultimate effectiveness of the teacher. Finally, participants acknowledged their surprise at and appreciation of the actual subject area knowledge requirements of the classroom teacher, in addition to possessing equal levels of pedagogical capacity to develop engaging lessons and the capacity to develop a positive professional relationship with students in order to assist with learning engagement.

When her response to the question of teacher subject area knowledge was expanded on, Gayle Hammond (p.1) proposed:

My perspective of a teacher was “know your content, get up there and know your students, have a good time”. I suppose that’s not always the way it turns out, as much as you would like to just get up there and tell them what you know. But in the six-week block I just became really comfortable. I felt like I was a teacher. I really did feel like I was fitting in and I knew what I was doing and always learning of course but felt really comfortable.

Gayle’s statement highlights the tensions raised by several preservice teacher participants regarding their conceptions of what ‘effective teaching’ comprises. At their developmental stage as preservice teachers, effective teaching may frequently be equated with subject content delivery, where in Gayle’s words preservice teachers “just get up there and tell them what you know”. Arguably, this teaching position may be seen as a ‘safe space’ for preservice teachers who have not yet developed positive professional relationships with their students. Importantly, this teaching position seems to have been superseded by more authentic conceptions of what ‘effective teaching’ comprises after an extended period of SPE. Gayle’s concluding comments on this issue also reflect her changing perspectives regarding effective classroom teaching and teacher role as a result of her SPE placement. Gayle Hammond (p.1) reflects:

I think I was quite naïve really before I went in and jumped in there on my own. I suppose I had always wanted to be a teacher and I built that from when I was in high school as well; saw how they acted and how they taught and always knew that’s why I wanted to do. I wasn’t really aware of how it is so much different being on the other side and having so much more to understand and to take on board, for example, behaviour as well. I really didn’t think about that.
Gayle’s voluble responses to this question are particularly detailed, and demonstrate a level of self-reflection that borders on the cathartic. The realisation of her changed perspectives regarding secondary teachers’ subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm, as a result of experiencing an SPE placement, are completely authentic and honest.

Hattie Fergusson (p.1) provides a similar narrative regarding her changed perspectives regarding secondary teacher’s fundamental capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm. Hattie responds to this question as follows:

I think I’m starting to understand a little bit more about what goes on outside of the classroom. I mean, I guess on some level I always knew that teachers had to prepare those things. They didn’t just wing it every time they walked into the classroom. But the whole experience of Uni and doing an education degree has already made me understand that teachers are far more educated than what I really thought they were. The fact that I’m doing a double degree and the kinds of subjects I have to do to teach Year Ten math has been surprising. So I have a greater respect for high school teachers now than I used to.

Clearly, Hattie’s SPE experience has altered her perspective regarding secondary teacher’s subject area knowledge. This changing perspective requires her to confront her own position as a preservice teacher, and alters her views about her own initial teacher education courses at university. The apprenticeship of observation construct (Lortie, 1975) would seem to be a major factor in the various perspectives shared by both Gayle and Hattie in this section. The apprenticeship of observation construct (Lortie, 1975) would seem to be a major factor in the initial perspectives of secondary teacher’s subject area knowledge shared by participant Conrad Harper (p.1). Reflecting on his own expectations of Supervised Professional Experience placement, Conrad shares:

My perception of teaching was that they taught out of a textbook, and everything was planned, and the dynamics of the classroom was as I, as a mature aged student, expected to have had when I went to school.

Conrad’s statement highlights the tensions shared by several mature aged participants who had elected to undertake either the undergraduate or Graduate
Diploma in Education pathway to achieve teacher registration. Mature aged participants reported that reconciling the experiences of their own traditional schooling experiences with the realities of contemporary classrooms was challenging, and occasionally confronting. Conrad Harper’s (p.1) following statement exemplifies this:

I mean...I realise that it’s not just as easy as I believe teaching was. You know, I used to...I was a bagger of teachers. You know, heaps of holidays, you just go into the classroom, tell them to open a textbook, scream at them this information, exam is going to be done, you got to regurgitate this information; it’s a lot more than that. It really is about being able to actually give that information to students, and then have to maybe explain in a few different ways, check for understanding a lot more, and then getting them to apply that information to see if they actually do genuinely understand the information.

Conrad’s comment above demonstrates the substantial changes in personal perspectives that may impact some preservice teachers during the course of their initial teacher education program. Conrad’s statement provides insight into his own developing understandings of effective pedagogy, as he describes a teaching methodology via the process of appropriately differentiating the delivery of lesson content, followed by checking for understanding, followed by the appropriate application of the new learning. Through this statement, Conrad has evidenced personal success within this area of his ongoing professional growth.

Participant Marcella Ramsey was particularly forthcoming in her responses to this question, and provided detailed, rich and insightful replies. In her initial comments, Marcella, like other participants in this section, made explicit mention of the unexpected workload associated with the role of the teacher. Marcella Ramsey (p.1) recounts an experience from her SPE placement:

I went on a two day numeracy project, where that will be the curriculum for the next two years. And I was along with that and just how much work...like we didn’t stop during that time. It was just full on. I just witnessed a lot of stuff, how he’s back there until 6:00 pm most days. Just because he felt like that was the time we needed to be able to get everything done.
Clearly, as with previous responses from participants, Marcella was surprised at the actual workload of the classroom teacher, as compared to her perspectives of the teacher’s role prior to undertaking an SPE placement. Marcella’s description of her supervising teacher reflects earlier references to teachers who have to ‘work’ at the act of teaching through meticulous and detailed planning – clearly a workday that ends at 6:00 pm was an unexpected discovery by Marcella and other participants. This statement about changed perspectives of teacher’s roles and workloads was expanded upon when Marcella reported as follows on her SPE experience:

> Just the appreciation of how hard you’re actually working during that time. I have to come home and sleep every afternoon, just to try to get through; just because of how much effort I was exhausting. During the day just trying to get an idea through to someone, thinking on my feet that quickly about how many different ways I can explain it, and then having to react to different behaviour managements at same time. Just needed a quick rest at some point to get up and do lesson plans again.

The statements and comments made by participants regarding their surprise at the workload of classroom teachers were significant enough to warrant further consideration. A review of participant’s responses indicted that their understanding of the term workload was not uniform – some clearly indicated that their comments were in relation to classroom teaching duties, whilst other participants had referenced a broader understanding of teacher workload (or what they viewed as a teacher’s role) to include additional duties including playground duty, administrative work, planning, sports coaching and attending meetings, excursions etc. Irrespective of their individual perspectives, the general consensus reported by preservice teacher participants was that a teacher’s role included a high workload. An article from March 2016 in The Guardian newspaper (online) reported on 4450 responses received from UK teachers to a survey about workloads (Lightfoot, 2016). The article reports teacher’s responses as follows:

> Almost all – 98% – say they are under increasing pressure and 82% describe their workload as “unmanageable”. More than three-quarters are working between 49 and 65 hours a week. Nearly three-quarters – 73% – say their workload is having a serious impact on their physical health and 75% on their mental health. Only 12% say they have good
work-life balance and only a third feel their employers consider their wellbeing. (Lightfoot, 2016, para. 5).

Additionally, the article provides responses from teachers, which include the following:

“I work 60 hours a week on average and still don’t feel like I’m doing a good enough job,” says one teacher. “If I want a life outside work I just get too exhausted.” “I just want to do what I love without all the red tape and stress,” says another. (Lightfoot, 2016, para. 6)

The Guardian article was significant in that it raised concerns regarding apparent direct links between the increasing workloads of teachers and teacher attrition rates in the UK. A similarly complex situation to the one described in the UK exists in Australia (Adoniou, 2016). By way of illustration, Adoniou (2016, para. 5) draws attention to the intricacy of teachers work. She uses a typical primary teacher as an example as she observes:

In primary school, the teacher must organise learning in all the curriculum areas – an expert in adverbial phrases at 9am, phonology at 10am, improper fractions at 11am, the respiratory system at 12pm, musical notation at 1.30 pm and the history of federation at 2.00pm. And that’s just Monday.

The intricacy and complexity of the teacher’s role in a contemporary classroom is not limited to primary classrooms, although the types of complex and intricate issues that teachers are confronted with may change. In addition to the purely mechanical issues of workload in classrooms, there is also the very human and very personal aspect of the emotional workload that is managed by all teachers on a daily basis (Hopman & Drake, 2015). Preservice teacher participants have alluded to the emotional workload of teachers in their responses. Hopman & Drake (2015, para. 5) illustrate the intensely emotive of this hidden workload as follows:

As a simple example, consider a child a teacher is helping to read. When that child looks up with a tear-streaked face and says, “I can’t do it, I’m stupid!” some teachers will feel a sense of frustration or powerlessness that despite their best efforts, a goal has not been met.
This image of the roles and workloads of teachers presented above stands in stark contrast to images of teacher’s roles and daily working lives held by some in society. As pointed out by Hopman & Drake (2015, para. 10), “There’s still a widely held public perception that teaching is an easy job because school’s out at 3:30 pm and there are plenty of holidays”. Participant Marcella Ramsey clearly articulated similar views to those mentioned by Hopman & Drake (2015) about the public perception of teachers when she commented:

I think that’s forced almost by that societal view. How everyone else views teachers and therefore we take it upon ourselves. But then, when we actually get into it, it’s kind of like whoa! It’s not a 09:00 am to 03:00 pm job you know. And everyone that gets into it says, you know, oh great holidays, it’s 09:00 am to 03:00 pm, chill out, you’ll be fine. And you walk in and it’s nothing like that whatsoever.

In Australia, teacher workloads have typically been central issues in enterprise bargaining negotiations between unions and employing organisations (Mancendio, 2015). In these instances, those who are the negotiators or the general public are held prisoner by their own perspectives of the roles of teachers, via the apprenticeship of observation construct. Mancendio (2015, para. 1), a secondary teacher from Canberra, demonstrates a personal response to this inability to see past the typically operational role of the teacher when he reveals:

I tell people that “I teach” because that’s easier to comprehend. It’s harder to explain that I sometimes spend days calling students to make sure their leaving home doesn’t mean they have to quit school; or connecting with parents to discuss post-secondary plans of students who have no clue; or mentoring pre-service teachers on how to navigate duty of care, risk assessments, and all the reporting requirements for running excursions. None of this was stipulated in my job description but all of this is my job.

Mancendio’s (2015) statement above reflects the sentiments that were raised earlier in the chapter regarding the mixed perspectives that preservice teacher participants had about their changing perspectives of teacher’s roles and workloads.
It appears a key concern for governments and employing organisations in general is the flow-on effects that unsustainably high workloads have on the durability of the teaching workforce, and the impact that this will potentially have on employers, schools and school systems, ITE providers and students (McKinnon, 2016). Adoniou (2016), Hopman & Drake (2015), Lightfoot (2016) and McKinnon (2016), all draw close links between high teacher workloads and high teacher attrition rates, particularly in the first five years of graduates entering their teaching careers. Hopman & Drake (2015, para. 1) suggest that:

Research shows nearly one in three Australian teachers are so unhappy in their profession they consider leaving within their first five years of employment. That means 16,000 teachers currently in Australia’s classrooms are finding the challenge of managing their professional lives too great.

These links are also substantiated by data from a longitudinal study carried out in Australia that identified early career teachers reporting high levels of face to face teaching in addition to high levels of extra-curricular and administrative work (Buchanan et al., 2013). This study also identified direct links between high teacher workloads and early career teacher attrition (Buchanan et al., 2013). A review of information available from the OECD identifies Australian teachers as having a very high level of actual classroom teaching time compared to other OECD countries (“OECD – Education at a Glance 2016,” 2016). Figure 9, below, provides a comparison of actual yearly teaching times for lower secondary teachers for public (state) schools.
Importantly, Figure 9, above, only indicates the in-class teaching time and does not indicate any time devoted to extracurricular or administrative duties. I might appear that the statements made by preservice participants regarding their surprise at the workload of teachers are justified. Their comments suggest that the apprenticeship of observation construct influenced their perspectives of the roles of teachers, masking the reality of teacher’s workloads and roles.

Significantly, Marcella Ramsey (p.1) draws on both her initial teacher education program and her own schooling experiences as she reflects on the roles of teachers and effective classroom practices. Referring back to her own schooling experiences, Marcella outlines classroom practices that were effective for her as a student, and describes the process of incorporating them into her developing repertoire of practice as a preservice teacher as follows:

So, one of them was a Maths teacher who was very logical in what he’d say. He’d give us a series of steps to work through if we’re learning something new, so that we could refer back to those steps all the time, and I kind of replicated that when I was doing my teaching. I found one of my English teachers used a lot of narrative to get her
point across and get us interested, and so I was including that in Maths, which is normally not something you can find a lot of, uh, ways to make engaging. And so I found myself using what she did in terms of narrative, incorporating it, making questions a story that kids can get involved in.

Marcella’s extended response prompted a further question regarding her views regarding effective teaching practices between when she was a student at school and now, when she was a preservice teacher. Marcella’s reply is as follows:

I don’t know if it’s more they have changed dramatically in terms of what they’re doing. I think what’s changed is my perspective of what they’re doing. Um, trying to think of an example. Just a lot of what we’re expected to do to go the extra mile and to build relationships. Because like a lot of what you saw in class, I didn’t feel…like the teachers may have been told to do particular things, but they just stuck to what they knew a lot of the time. Whereas I think knowing what I do now, there’s a lot more about trying to develop yourself and go further and try to re-reflect upon your practice and how you’re doing it and change it to suit 21st century learning.

Marcella’s response above is significant in that it links two key perspectives. Firstly, Marcella comments on her changed perspective regarding the need to develop positive professional relationships as a key element of developing effective classroom practice. Secondly, Marcella identifies the need to embrace ongoing professional development on order to effectively engage the 21st century learners in her classes. Marcella’s comments are heartening, as they reflect core values within the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers, and demonstrate a developing sense of professional reflection. When prompted further to expand on her comments regarding effective teaching and 21st century learners, Marcella offered the following:

Kids don’t react to us standing at the front and just talking all the time. They don’t appreciate that anymore. It has to be something they can do, engage with or see, because that’s what they deal with on a day-today basis. They get fed all these images and stuff, and that’s what they’re used to. So, when they come to class, they need that to be able to learn.
This statement is representative of views expressed by other participants in relation to concerns by preservice teachers on how to effectively deliver engaging lessons in an environment that may sometimes be saturated with external stimuli. Marcella expands on her response as follows:

I think there’s a massive technological change and that’s what’s bringing about all of the changes that we have to do in the classroom. I remember, like, computers were the devil when I was in high school. You know you didn’t want kids on the computers because you couldn’t tell what they were doing. Now, you have to have computers in your lesson. Otherwise, you’re going to be left behind.

Marcella’s statement above reflects the tensions experienced by preservice teachers as they reflect on their capacity to demonstrate engagement in their lessons. The APST 3.4 (see Appendix H, p.250) specifically calls for the use of ICT resources in the development of effective and engaging lessons. The effective use of ICT can be a source of great concern to preservice teachers, irrespective of whether they are undergraduates or mature aged post graduate students. The statement calls into question the judicious use of ICT in the classroom, and raises the question of the judicious use of ICT to bring about effective and engaging teaching.

Blaine Barton is an undergraduate participant who is a Biology and HPE secondary preservice teacher. Blaine’s initial response when asked to reflect on secondary school teachers’ capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm was to recall a strong memory of his own secondary school experience. Blaine Barton (p.1) reflects that:

I think that a key thing that I remember from teachers that I do remember is that they had high expectations of me.

Importantly, Blaine’s memory of ‘good’ teachers centres on the high expectations that were set in the classroom context. It is implicit in Blaine’s response that effective teaching includes setting and explicitly stating high expectations for students. Also of note is that Blaine’s response explicitly states that the teachers with high expectations are the ones he remembers…presumably because of the
significance of memory of his school experience. When asked to expand on this initial response, Blaine (p.1) replied:

What I remember from my teachers is I’m doing biology… and my biology teacher was very passionate. Her face and her speech in teaching biology was what I remember…her enthusiasm for it. And just her generosity in helping you to learn…you probably couldn’t do it any more, but she would have study sessions at her house on Sundays and have afternoon tea for the students. Anyone could go and everyone was welcomed. That’s what I remember. I also remember my drama teacher because she was young and she was… I don’t know. She just really clicked with the students and you’d always have fun in her lessons but it seemed she always managed to get the content out.

Blaine’s expanded response clearly demonstrates the links that Blaine makes between enthusiasm and passion his teacher had for her subject area and the effective teaching that occurred in (and outside of) the class. Of note is his use of the word ‘generosity’ in describing his Biology teacher and his memories of the class. If we subscribe to the notion that generosity is a quality — like honesty and patience — that we all hold in high esteem, then we can see that Blaine’s teacher was not only giving freely of her professional self to her students, but was also explicitly acting as a positive role model for the young people in her class. The image of the teacher as a role model will be further examined in the next chapter.

In a similar manner to other participants, Blaine made mention of teacher workload in his responses during interviews. Rather than specifically mention a quantitative aspect of teacher workload, Blaine (p.1) shared the following thoughts:

I think on my first prac in the first day or two, in my head I remember I was just like “If only you kids knew how much trouble all your teachers go to for you”. That was a big thing…they have no idea and I had no idea in school either.

Arguably, this statement also refers to the enthusiasm teachers have for their subject area and the effectiveness of their teaching as a result of effective planning and preparation. As with other participants cited earlier in this chapter, such as Hattie Ferguson, Blaine’s SPE experience altered his perspective regarding
secondary teacher’s subject area knowledge and behind-the-scenes preparation and lesson organisation. In a similar manner to Hattie, Blaine’s changing perspective requires him to confront his own perspectives of the roles of secondary teachers. The apprenticeship of observation construct (Lortie, 1975) would seem to be a major factor in the changing perspectives Blaine refers to in his response.

5.1.1 Conclusion

This chapter has investigated the second of the three core propositions, namely:

It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm.

The data analysis within this chapter has overwhelmingly affirmed that implicit, and central to the role of the secondary teacher, is the requirement for teachers to not only possess appropriate capacity in the area of subject knowledge, they also require the capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm. Participants more frequently remembered and discussed teacher effectiveness and enthusiasm in their responses, compared to references to subject area knowledge. It is argued that the reason for the less frequent reference to requisite knowledge levels is that the deeply ingrained social constructions of secondary teachers, discussed earlier on Chapter Two, presuppose that secondary teachers will possess a high level of specialist knowledge in their individual teaching areas. This chapter has clearly demonstrated that preservice teachers are strongly impacted by the apprenticeship of observation construct as they enter their initial Supervised Professional Experience placement, with participants reporting changing perspectives in their views about teacher workloads, teacher enthusiasm for subject areas and teacher engagement in planning and preparation.

The next chapter will consider Core Proposition 3.
Chapter 6
Data Analysis

6.1 Core Proposition 3

The third core proposition derived from an analysis of the data is:

It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people.

The research literature and data presented in this thesis overwhelmingly affirmed that implicit, and central to the role of the secondary teacher, is the capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people. The core proposition of a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people is central to the research participants’ perspectives of the nature, role and function of the secondary school teacher. This was equally true for participants who had good prior experiences of schooling and for those who had poor prior experiences of schooling. This perspective presented itself comprehensively in the interviews conducted with participants from all of the interview cohorts, and manifested itself in diverse participant statements throughout the interviews. The core proposition of a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people emerged from the interviews as participants expressed their discrete ideas and perspectives concerning the roles of secondary school teachers. Participants expressed their ideas through their personal experience of schooling, personal experience of their own teachers and of their personal experiences as preservice teachers on a supervised professional experience (SPE) placement. As with the examination of core propositions 1 and 2, the experiences shared by the participants in this section allowed them to speculate about what it was that they believed the roles of a secondary school teacher should encompass. Additionally, participants acknowledged the importance of the teacher as a role model when responding to questions in this section of their interviews. As a result, this chapter of the data analysis will also consider the participants’ perspectives.
regarding teachers as positive role models for young people as a component of the overall proposition of altruism.

The Merriam-Webster dictionary provides a definition of altruism as being an unselfish regard for or devotion to the welfare of others, and goes on to state that altruism includes feelings and behavior that show a desire to help other people and a lack of selfishness. In a more explicit school context, altruism may be considered as “a liking for and desire to work with children and young people and a wish to serve society” (Mansfield, Wosnitza, & Beltman, 2012). Education researchers have suggested that altruism should be considered a central reason as to why individuals decide to choose teaching as a profession (Alexander, Chant, & Cox, 1994; Alsup, 2006; Chambers, 2002; Dinham, Ingvarson, & Kleinhenz, 2008; Friedman, 2016; Mansfield et al., 2012; Nias, 1997; Olitalia, Wajaya, Almakiyah, & Sarawati, 2013; Watt et al., 2012). Alexander, Chant & Cox (1994, p.40) suggest, “Something loosely called “altruism” provides the most compelling answer to the question of why the choice was made” for an individual to wish to become a teacher. Dinham, Ingvarson & Kleinhenz (2008, p.17) support this view, and state:

Teacher’s reasons for entering teaching tend to be consistent across studies. Altruism and intrinsic fulfilment, along with the desire for professional growth, predominate.

However, Dinham, Ingvarson & Kleinhenz (2008) importantly point out that despite being an important aspect of the teaching identity, altruism alone and of itself is not a guarantee that a preservice teacher will develop to become an effective teacher within the profession. Research has also indicated that so-called ‘second career’ teachers are strongly motivated by altruism in making their decision to move to the teaching profession (Chambers, 2002).

One difficulty of considering altruistic motivations as a desirable capacity for working with young people is the intent behind those motivations. Alexander, Chant & Cox (1994) use the term ‘altruism’ in a liberal sense. Friedman (2016), on the other hand, considers the teacher’ altruistic motivations from a substantially more psychological and behaviourist perspective. Whilst Friedman (2016, p.625) does provide an unequivocal statement that altruism is a motivating factor for individuals to choose to become preservice teachers, he tempers this notion by stating his belief that:
Teachers’ expectations for self-expression through teaching are directed towards the fulfilment of altruistic needs (instilling knowledge, caring, bestowing friendship) and providing for narcissistic desires (gaining admiration, respect, and demonstrating leadership).

This statement by Friedman (2016) can be confronting to classroom teachers, if not carefully clarified. Friedman (2016) provides an explanation that there is the capacity for an individual teacher to possess contextual ‘healthy’ narcissism. Friedman (2016, p.640) points out that:

Those who turn to teaching, most of whom are women, may view the teaching profession as an especially attractive path for realizing their aspiration to motivate and manage people. In other words, to fulfill (healthy) narcissist desires.

Friedman (2016, p.640) additionally proposes that there is:

An empirical foundation for arguing that people turn to the teaching profession being motivated by their altruistic aspirations and are directed by a desire to sate narcissistic desires.

It is possible to examine the statements made by preservice teacher research participants using the theoretical backdrop of teacher altruism described above. Marcella Ramsey (p.1) states:

Probably my first prac, my mentor was a head of year level. I had, heard of that before but then, with that she also took that year level girls basketball every Wednesday afternoon, so that’s something I didn’t expect to encounter.

Marcella’s statement is indicative of similar observations made by preservice teachers regarding their supervising teachers. At a surface level, Marcella’s statement seems completely innocuous, in that we are socially conditioned to accept that the roles of teachers include non-teaching duties. Yet when considered through the lens of altruism, it is possible to argue that the additional weekly sports coaching duty taken on by a busy Head of Department was a demonstration of Mansfield, Wosnitza & Beltman’s (2012) “a liking for and desire to work with
children and young people and a wish to serve society” definition of educational altruism. The role of a Head of Department in a Queensland secondary school is challenging and complex, and involves managing staff members and large numbers of students. The role of a sports coach for a school team, which includes team training, matches, travel and organisation between schools, is a substantial one. We should assume that the Head of Department in question took on the role of sports coach because they had liking for and desire to work with young people. They may also consider that sport, as an activity, is an important component in the social fabric of Australia, and by encouraging and modelling young people to participate in sport, the Head of Department is actively serving society. This example is a micro-example of the ways in which teachers demonstrate their capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people. Arguably, the majority of examples of teachers demonstrating altruistic motivations are going to the day-to-day micro-examples that are integral within the role of the teacher, rather than macro-examples of altruism.

In a similar manner to the example above, Deanna Rose (p.1) provides her perspectives about aspects of the roles of two her SPE supervisors. She relates:

They had camps. They had four camps throughout the entire Year Nine, so they had four weeks of school camp then four weeks of school camp, then holidays and so on. So he was organising camps, eLearning, Year Nine. They both enjoyed the experiences of getting to go on camp, but it took a huge chunk out of their workload. Prepping for classes, obviously, and exams and assessment, marking assessment…that was a big thing for them.

Deanna has touched upon another of the unseen aspects of teacher’s roles that is rarely considered by the general public, or by preservice teachers. In a similar manner to how sport (and the coaching of school sports teams) is considered an integral component of the role of the teacher by the general public (via the public’s apprenticeship of observation), so too is involvement in school camps. Using the same definition of educational altruism as before, undertaking the coordination of and participating in school camps is, almost by default, best describes as requiring a liking for and desire to work with children and young people and a wish to serve society. Taking complete responsibility for large groups of students in a camp situation is daunting and incredibly challenging, and requires an absolute belief
that the outcome of the camp will be of benefit to the students who participate. Additionally, in a similar manner to participation in school sports, student participation in school camps provides experiences in social collaboration and teamwork, personal resilience and organisation that may not be gained anywhere else in a student’s life. It can definitely be argued that teacher participation in school sports and school camps are demonstrations of altruism.

Within the typical school based role of the teacher, there a multitude of micro-examples of altruism. Blaine Barton (p.1) describes his observations of his SPE supervisor as follows:

He was always chasing up kids outside of his normal class. Like in his spares, he was chasing out behaviour issues. So, that was something I didn’t expect.

In Queensland state schools, a secondary teacher typically is provided with 3 x 70-minute preparation lessons – generally called ‘spares’ – for a total of 210 minutes preparation time per week. The teacher’s use of this valuable time to follow up on behavioural issues with students demonstrates the teacher’s altruistic motivations. Behavioural issues in a secondary school context are complex and very often linked in some way to issues that exist external to the school. Very often, secondary teachers following up on behavioural issues are using their positive professional relationships with students to provide pastoral care and communicate some level of guidance. Participants in this research project have related this role of teachers when they have related their memories of their own schooling. By way of example, Hannah Franks (p.1) shares her memories of teacher’s work from her own schooling experience:

Absolutely, it wasn’t just teaching nine till three. It was helping me before and after school. Even our form teachers throughout would often have chats with us individually or as groups asking us how we were – ‘what’s happening’ – not, you know, what’s happening in your life at the moment, but generally. Those kinds of questions.

Hannah’s example above is another micro-example of altruism. Teachers who develop positive professional relationships with their students, who enquire about their student’s wellbeing and exhibit active care for their students are
demonstrating they are acting from altruistic motivations. Jake Morton (p.1) shares the following example regarding one of his supervising teachers from one of his SPE placements demonstrating an altruistic motivation:

Every Tuesday he did an hour session after school where kids that were struggling with anything, basically, come and see him. He taught across all his curriculums, he taught Grade Nine. It was just something that he offered as far as I understand it. I didn’t hear anyone else actually offering it.

Grace Brady (p.1) provides a similar example of educational altruism through her recollection of her own schooling experiences with a highly influential teacher. Grace recalls:

This actually really helped...he stayed behind for an hour, for two days a week, so we could sit and do our homework or just go over things we didn’t understand. He was just like legend in the school...when our year got him; he was the Inspirational Teacher of the Year.

Both Jake Morton and Grace Brady are providing their first-hand perspectives of teacher’s micro-examples of altruism. Whilst these examples may seem initially inconsequential, they are remembered and openly related within the research project by participants, to whom the recollections have great meaning.

Hannah Jones (p.1) provides another illustration of a secondary school teacher, (her own SPE supervising teacher), demonstrating educational altruism. Hannah relates:

My mentor teacher was a busybody; she was all over the place, involved in everything, she had her hands in so many different activities. She did the Writers’ Cup, she did the yearbook, she – I can’t even name all of the things that she was in, but, yeah it was a good experience for me because I’m like that as well.

Arguably, Hannah’s example of her supervising teacher echoes the findings of Friedman (2016, p.640), whose work would indicate that whilst Hannah’s supervising teacher was motivated by altruistic desires, she also had an “aspiration to motivate and manage people. In other words, to fulfill (healthy) narcissist desires”.
Shari Allison (p.1) provides a slightly different perspective on educational altruism. As a result of reflection on her Supervised Professional Experience placement, Shari shared the following statement:

It’s not about being you know, the person in charge. It’s about teaching. You know it’s about achieving…kids achieving, education, no matter what level they are. Just being able to see them learn something is you know, rewarding.

Arguably, Shari’s statement goes to the heart of educational altruism. When Shari says, “It’s about teaching”, she is channelling one of the most cherished sentiments in the educational world. “It’s about teaching” is teacher parlance for the myriad reasons behind their reasons for choosing to become a teacher. Inevitably, exploring just under the surface of this statement will reveal the raison d’etre that sustains teachers – “a liking for and desire to work with children and young people and a wish to serve society” (Mansfield et al., 2012).

The central proposition of this chapter is that the perspective of preservice teachers is that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people. This would prima facie appear to be central to the socially expected roles of teachers in general. In additional to educational altruism, preservice teacher research participants acknowledged the importance of the teacher as a role model when responding to questions in this section of their interviews. As a result, this chapter of the data analysis will also consider the participants’ perspectives regarding teachers as positive role models for young people as a component of the overall proposition of altruism.

The proposition of the teacher as a positive role model does not directly align with specific Australian Professional Standards for Teachers, although it is implicit within the standards that teachers will model appropriate professional behaviour towards students, colleagues and community members. The concept of teachers as role models would seem to fall within the bounds of a hidden curriculum within the APST…an implied component, supported and incorporated within the various ethical statements of employing and accreditation bodies. As research participants articulated their perspectives that the capacity for providing and promoting positive role models for young people is fundamental to the role of
the teacher, it became apparent that role modelling was an important issue to preservice teachers.

Teachers have a long history of being expected to be morally upright characters and to display good character in keeping with the accepted social standards of society (Lumpkin, 2008). Lumpkin (2008, p.45) states, “Because of teachers’ influential role in the lives of young people, the public still expects teachers to display behaviours reflective of moral virtues, such as fairness and honesty, and to adhere to professional codes of conduct”. When asked to reflect on her own teachers, and whether she would emulate them in her own teaching practice, Janie Malone (p.1) responded:

Well I think I certainly would try my best to use them as a role model to, you know to teach at my best effort the subject-related knowledge and at the same time be caring for their souls.

Janie’s choice of the word ‘souls’ when referring to her students is thought-provoking, in that when she is reflecting on her previous teachers she distinguishes between the content focussed capacity of a teacher and the intangible capacity to model behaviours that would, in essence, guide students’ souls. In this specific example, it might be speculated that Janie is equating souls to moral and ethical standards of behaviour. Lumpkin (2008) offers a number of examples of the sorts of behaviours that teachers’ model, including integrity, honesty, trust, fairness, respect, and responsibility. Lumpkin (2008, p.46) argues, “Teachers can and should serve as role models who teach character and moral virtues”. Whilst the idea of defining character and moral virtue may seem culturally and socially situated, employing bodies and The Queensland College of Teachers have clear and unambiguous statements regarding the ethical standards which teachers are expected to model and uphold (“DET Standard of Practice “, 2016; “Queensland College of Teachers Code of Ethics,” 2016). Tangentially, Janie’s use of the term “souls” when referring to her students echoes of secular public education in Queensland, an issue which has a long and fraught history in Queensland (Maddox, 2014). Whilst it is unlikely Janie was consciously making a reference to state school teachers caring for student’s souls in a proselytizing sense, there is no doubt that the very use of religious terms alongside any discussion of secular schooling is fraught. In addition to the culture wars mentioned in Chapter 2, the
issue of the chaplaincy program in Queensland State Schools (and Australian public schools in general) has been both a controversial and politically charged issue (Remeikis, 2016). Whilst some might argue that modelling the ideals of integrity, honesty, trust, fairness, respect, and responsibility may be assisted by the inclusion of religious instruction on government schools, groups such as Queensland Parents for Secular State Schools argue that religious instruction and the chaplaincy program pushes a sin and salvation message onto the children of unsuspecting parents (Remeikis, 2016).

Alison Paul (p.1) also reflected on her memories of her own teachers. Alison recounts:

I think I’d emulate her because she’s just so upbeat and everything and that’s a kind of person I look up to and hopefully will emulate like her. Or like my coach in secondary she was really good at skills and getting the point across; why we’re going what we’re doing, and so I really enjoyed her way of teaching.

Whilst Alison isn’t referring to any moral or ethical aspect of the teachers’ personality, she does highlight another element of the hidden curriculum of the APST…personality and a joie de vivre for teaching and working with young people. Some participants found it difficult to find the right words to articulate their impressions. As an example, Rosalie Cook (p.1), when referring to her own school drama teacher, says:

Our Drama teacher was sort of a mentor teacher and played the role of, you know a key role in his subject area but it was also about promoting confidence within yourself as well and sort of had that connectiveness to outside of school. Yeah, that’d be hard to put a name to it but.

Providing positive role models for young people was a topic touched on by participant Esther Ramsey. At 48 years of age, Esther was one of the oldest of the participants, and had entered her Initial Teacher Education Program after raising a family and working both as a nursing aide and in the child care industry. Esther recounted she had a difficult home and school life, and admitted to having largely negative views of her own school experiences – particularly in her secondary schooling years. Despite these negative views of her own experiences, Esther
remained determined to follow her desire to become a secondary teacher. When interviewed following a supervised professional experience placement, Esther Ramsay (p.1) said:

I think, especially having done the past eight weeks, nine weeks, I’ve really come to realise that it’s, the teacher is probably one of the three most important people in a child’s life like, has a really big influence on life. Like there’s mum and dad and family people and there’s teachers that spend a lot of time with them so I think it’s a really big important role.

Esther’s perspective is that apart from their parents influence, the teacher has the major influence in a child’s life. Whilst not explicitly stated, this statement suggests the role modeling that teachers provide to students. Esther’s perspective may be coloured by her work in the child care industry for almost 10 years, yet the sentiment remains that she believes teachers provide a parallel role influence to parents.

Ebony Dean (p.1) referred to role modeling in a similar vein to that taken by Janie Malone, outlined earlier in this section. Ebony had considered the various teaching and non-teaching (or hidden curriculum) aspects of teaching. Ebony said:

I don’t think when you’re not teaching in the classroom setting you’re still are a model or a mentor. So, for example, I think things like values education, which we’re just touching on in a couple of my courses, I think that’s something that’s not just a talk thing that’s a modelled thing. So no I don’t think there’s a point when you’re ‘not teaching’.

Ebony’s comments are representative of comments by other participants. They also raise the question of the breadth of what participants identified as being a role model – the term took on varied meanings. By way of example, Hannah Jones (p.1) recounted her own school experiences with a teacher who she saw as a role model:

We still continue and have developed into a kind of a friendship and, she’s always been sort of a mentor to me. And that happened with a couple teachers, so within the friendship department as well. I feel like there was a lot of things when you’re a teenager that you can’t really talk about with your parents or you feel scared and don’t know how they’ll react and so it’s nice to kind of have a buffer who’s still an
adult who, I don’t know, can kind of gauge – it’s just a different perspective and it’s nice to have someone to go and talk to, definitely.

Clearly, Hannah is describing a teacher who played a significant role in Hannah’s life as a student. The key word in Hannah’s comment is ‘gauge’ – where the teacher, as a respected adult, is used as an alternative role model to parents to help the young person make sense of their life world. This sentiment is shared by a number of participants and points to a need to identify role modeling as an important aspect of the teacher’s role.

Gayle Hammond (p.1) reflected on her initial experiences of SPE in relation to teachers possessing subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm in Chapter 5 by stating the following:

I think I was quite naïve really before I went in and jumped in there on my own. I suppose I had always wanted to be a teacher, and I built that from when I was in high school as well; saw how they acted and how they taught and always knew that’s why I wanted to do.

The same statement by Gayle can be considered to reflect her motivations for becoming a teacher. Clearly, Gayle’s teachers had provided a level of role modelling that convinced her to emulate their own careers.

In a similar vein to Hannah Jones, previously, Gayle is recounting a situation reported by a number of participants. Participants commonly recalled their desire to be a secondary school teacher was interlinked with the very strong impressions that their own teachers had made on them at school – and clearly demonstrating the apprenticeship of observation process (Lortie, 1975). Like Hannah Jones and Gayle, Hannah Franks (p.1) succinctly states her views when she says:

I would like to emulate those teachers that have stood out to me. I don’t want to be a teacher simply to teach the kids how to read and write.

Hannah’s statement provides another piece of the common pattern that is emerging where preservice teacher participants refer to their own experiences of teachers as role models, and wish to continue the cycle with their own students. In modern
parlance, this can be seen as an example of ‘paying it forward’. Ebony Dean (p.1) reflected on her own schooling experiences and proposed that this would impact on her own teaching. Ebony stated:

Making sure I had a part in my area outside of the classroom. So not just within the school I’d had to be practicing in some area beyond that if that’s going to add to what I can bring to the classroom but also being able to support the students who have particular interests in or, you know, excel in certain areas.

Whilst not explicitly stating that she was modeling past teachers from her own schooling experiences, the subtext of Ebony’s statement suggests that she is referring to practices that she has been exposed to previously that demonstrate teacher involvement in working positively with young people. More explicitly, Hannah Jones (p.1) provides the following statement:

I’d like to have the same role as my teachers have, like the teachers that I respect and continue a relationship with – as being that sort of pastoral care. I definitely want to act what I preach, you know, like I want to model what I’m trying to promote.

This final statement by Hannah Jones exemplifies the common ‘pay it forward’ ethos expressed by preservice participants. The participants referenced in this section have clearly articulated through their responses the theme that fundamental to the role of the teacher was the capacity to provide and promote positive role models for young people. Finally, a statement made by earlier by Ebony Dean (p.1) also provides a specific example from her schooling experience that highlights one way in which she saw her own teachers as role models. Ebony states:

They modelled what that particular discipline required. For example, my Art teacher was the Head of Department and she was also a practicing artist – a ceramic artist – and the English teachers were columnists and/or people who had done a lot of performing arts and things like that. So, they also had that additional level that they were in the field as well as teaching the field, or they had been in the field so it wasn’t just that they were teaching the content I suppose. They were the most effective ones I think for me. So there was a big difference between, for example, those types of teachers and, for example, my
Maths teacher who I suppose couldn’t really or didn’t demonstrate the maths that we were doing.

Ebony’s comment tends to reject the commonly repeated idiom – ‘Those who can, do; those who can’t, teach’. Ebony clearly identifies those teachers who have had some additional real world experience in their particular teaching area as being the most effective teachers. Arguably, these same teachers acted as role models for Ebony (who herself had experience in the professional world prior to her entry to the Graduate Diploma in Education program).

To conclude this chapter, a number of additional participant comments are worthy of consideration. In their interviews, both Tiffany Sparks (p.1) and Gayle Hammond (p.1) utilised a specific analogy regarding Supervised Professional Experience placement. Tiffany’s statement regarding her experience of SPE was, “I felt like I was putting on somebody else’s shoes”. Gayle’s comment was:

I have got much more appreciation for teachers and what they do and I don’t think you actually fully understand that until you are put in their shoes and you walk the walk and talk the talk.

Neither participant had spoken to each other about the content of their individual interviews. Thus, the use of the analogy of a preservice teacher feeling like they were wearing someone else’s shoes is significant. The analogy gives rise to the discussion about the ‘fit’ and ‘growth’ that preservice teachers feel about their SPE placement schools, and how comfortable preservice teachers feel during SPE placement (Watt et al., 2012). In a similar manner, Shari Allison (p.1) mentioned that she had, “Kind of grown into my own skin as a teacher” by her final SPE placement as a preservice teacher. Once again, Shari has used a ‘fit’ and ‘growth’ analogy to describe her perspectives of developmental progress and growth as a preservice teacher.

Tiffany Sparks (p.1) raises the important issue of conceptions about the homogeneity of teachers across geographic location, employer, school sector, and school community. Tiffany states in an interview immediately following her second SPE placement:

I went to private school as well...I went to a private Catholic school. Now I’ve done one prac in an independent school and one prac at state
school. So it’s just the scope of teacher quality, of teacher expectation, like the staff at different schools expect so much different -- so many different things from their teachers. So, yeah, just the scope of different experiences that you can have as a teacher going into a school is huge and I didn’t quite realise that.

Tiffany’s statement clearly reflects how her apprenticeship of observation impacted on her perspectives regarding the roles of secondary teachers. Arguably Tiffany’s experience is one that is manifest across many non-teachers in Queensland. The perspective of a teacher as a ‘one-size-fits-all’ commodity is an easy one to hold for those not within the teaching profession.

When discussing Supervised Professional Experience, Hattie Fergusson, (p.1) revealed, “I don’t think university has helped me on prac at all in a classroom, in a university classroom, in a tutorial or a lecture”. Hattie’s statement reflects findings reported from both the TEMAG review and the SETE review mentioned in Chapter 2. Without further questioning, it is impossible to know how deeply Hattie had reflected on this statement or whether it was really the case at all. The reported disjuncture between ITE program university experience and school-based experiences is an area that the literature has identified as requiring further collaborative efforts by both ITE providers and school organisations (Craven et al., 2014).

6.1.1 Conclusion

This chapter has investigated the third of the three core propositions, namely:

‘It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people’.

The data analysis within this chapter has overwhelmingly affirmed that implicit, and central to the role of the secondary teacher, is the requirement for teachers to not only possess the appropriate capacity to demonstrate educational altruism within their role as a secondary school teacher, they also require the capacity to model appropriate professional behaviour towards students, colleagues and community members. Participants frequently remembered and discussed
educational altruism displayed by their own teachers and/or by supervising teachers during their SPE placements. Participants also frequently remembered and discussed teachers who had acted as role models to them in their own school experiences.

Chapters 4, 5 and 6 have presented an analysis of the three key propositions developed from the research. To reiterate, these propositions are:

- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context.

- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm.

- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people.

The three data analysis chapters have clearly demonstrated that the core propositions developed from an investigation of the data are particularly relevant and meaningful to the participants in this research project. Chapter 7 provides a discussion of the relevant data.
Chapter 7
Discussion

This chapter presents the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework, a framework developed from the themes and perspectives that emerged from the data gathered throughout the study and analysed in chapters 4, 5 and 6, and referenced against the existing literature that has been reviewed in chapter 2 and touched on throughout the thesis. The theory building that resulted from the development of the three core propositions has provided a theoretical framework through which to consider preservice teacher role identity, namely, the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework. This framework has been generated through the principles of grounded theory and is based in the three core propositions presented in chapters 4, 5 and 6. It is as complete as the empirical data allows. It is envisaged that by considering preservice teacher’s perspectives of teacher roles and identities, initial teacher education providers will be better positioned to positively respond to the increasingly regulated entry requirements to ITE programs – in particular, the personal attributes of individual applicants and alignment with the inherent requirements of the teaching profession as expressed through the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (AITSL) and the various employing body standards for ethical practice and conduct.

This chapter will present the following:

- Present the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework; a substantive theoretical framework for consideration of the development of preservice teacher identity during Initial Teacher Education programs (7.1);

- Discuss the three core propositions, the inter-relationship between the various components of the framework, and expand on the enabling conditions behind the framework (7.2);

- Provide a conclusion to the chapter (7.3).
Figure 10. Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework

7.1 Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework

Prior to the proposal and critique of the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework, the context of the study will be revisited. It will be recalled that chapter two of this thesis provided a literature review of current knowledge in a range of specific areas in order to provide a context within which to position the current research project. To this end, a detailed literature review was conducted that investigated the following areas:

- **The social, political and philosophical elements of schooling in Queensland:** This section of the literature review considered the historical development of Queensland state schooling, and then undertook a closer investigation of Queensland state schools in the 1970s and 1980s, as this was a particularly pivotal time in the Queensland, both politically and socially. This section of the literature review then identified a number of recent innovations in Queensland state schooling, including the New Basics Project, the QSE 2010 initiative via The Smart State agenda, the Queensland iteration of the Australian Curriculum via the Flying Start initiative and most recently the State Schools Strategy 2016 – 2020. This section of the literature
concluded that Queensland state schools and schooling are involved with managing unprecedented social and technological change within an unpredictable global, national, and state political and social climate. The roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland are currently abstruse – on the one hand focussed on the social/emotional components of the profession, on another managing the continued measurement of high level performance for all students through interpretation of data sets, whilst concurrently integrating employability capacity for all students to meet the requirements of government mandated policy, as well as having to develop individually as a professional through peer learning groups and professional development programs.

- **The social, political and philosophical elements of teacher education in Queensland:** This section of the literature review considered the historical development of teacher education in Queensland, viewed as a subset of eras of teacher education development in Australia. This provided a comprehensive survey of teacher education in Queensland from the earliest Model Schools to the most recent SETE and TEMAG reports. This section of the literature review identified concerns about the structure, nature and purposes of teacher education programs. The literature review identified innovations in initial teacher education, including the Teach for Australia program and clinical models of initial teacher education. This section of the literature concluded that Initial Teacher Education in Queensland continues to develop in response to social, political and educational influences from local, national and international sources. Initial Teacher Education has been subject to many reviews and reports over an extended period of time. Within these reports, there has been a core level of consensus regarding Initial Teacher Education programs, with a focus on positioning teaching as a professional vocation rather than as a skilled traineeship. Notwithstanding the many reviews and reports on teacher education in Queensland and Australia, a review of the literature in Initial Teacher Education programs is best summarised by Roekle (2011, p.180), who states: “There is no one “best context” for educating and preparing beginning teachers”.

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• **Representations, Images and Identities of Teachers and the Apprenticeship of Observation conceptualization:** This section of the literature review considered teacher socialisation (external aspects) and teacher identity (internal aspects) within a social, political and educational framework. This section of the literature concluded that teacher professional identity stands at the core of the teaching profession. The review identified that preservice teachers bring predetermined understandings of images and identities of teachers to ITE programs, and that these understandings have been developed through a variety of influences, both internal and external to the preservice teacher. The review also identified that altering preservice teachers’ existing views about the roles of teachers and their personal teacher identities is complex, with little evidence that ITE programs have had any substantial impact in this area to date.

The field data was collected and analysed over time as outlined in chapter 3. As reported in chapters 4, 5 and 6, the data analysis process identified four main themes, from which three core propositions emerged. To review, the four main themes were identified as:

- Preservice teachers’ perspectives regarding the personal qualities of teachers.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives regarding the relationships within teaching.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives of the teaching and learning process.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives of classroom management.

The representations of the roles and identities of secondary school teachers are interpreted through the lens of the three core propositions that emerged from investigation of the four main themes. The three core propositions that emerged from the main themes were:

- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context.
• It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm.

• It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people.

Based on these core propositions, the framework has been generated, allowing a synthesis of existing and new empirical findings to be amalgamated into a theoretical framework that will make a significant contribution to knowledge in this field. It can be argued that, by definition, a framework is a basic structure underlying a system, concept, or text. In the case of the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework, the concepts and systems that are represented within the framework are complex social structures that reflect deeply ingrained social, political, cultural and educational perspectives. As such, components within the framework have been condensed for the purposes of providing clarity and an understanding of their holistic, interrelated structure to others. Analysis of the empirical data and of the extensive literature review undertaken earlier in the study highlighted various extant theoretical positions associate with perspectives on teacher role and teacher identity. As such, the framework has been developed both from empirical data obtained from the research process and is aligned with current significant research in preservice teacher education. The centrality of the three core propositions, determined as a result of data analysis from the research process, provides an anchor for the framework.

The four main themes identified through the data analysis are broadly reflected in research recently undertaken by Furlong (2012). Furlong’s (2012) work was referred to in the literature review in Chapter Two. To briefly recap, Furlong’s (2012) research looked at student teacher idealised identities of teachers who worked in Ireland’s schooling system. Furlong (2012) utilised a life history methodology in his research, which provided a deep exploration of the schooling and ITE experiences of Irish teachers. Furlong’s (2012) research provides a system-specific snapshot of development of preservice teacher identities, with a view to investigating the “key shaping forces which influence the idealised identities of student teachers” (2012, p.72). Notwithstanding the different research
questions and focus between each study, and the cultural and systemic differences between Ireland and Queensland, there is a clear congruence between the identified themes that emerged from both studies. The current research project provides a system-specific snapshot of the development of preservice teacher identities in a Queensland initial teacher education context. The current research project has also investigated “key shaping forces which influence the idealised identities of student teachers” (Furlong, 2012, p.72). The work undertaken in this research project has given rise to the development of three core propositions, which reflect the perspectives of secondary school preservice teachers. The three core propositions clearly encompass the affective domain, referencing positive, professional teacher/student relationships, effective and enthusiastic teaching and a capacity for teachers to possess altruistic motivations for their work with young people. Furlong’s (2012) research concluded in part that:

If we were to construct a picture of the teacher the students wished to be (idealised identities) from their combined narratives one could argue that it would be: the caring, warm, approachable teacher who facilitates children’s learning, but who is firm and in control. A teacher, who commands respect, yet is remembered fondly.

In broad terms, the findings of the current research project are completely congruent with Furlong’s (2012) earlier conclusions. The preservice teacher participants in the current study clearly identified the roles of secondary teachers and their own developing teacher identities as requiring secondary teachers to be both competent and confident with the content of their specialist areas and with classroom management and organisation. Additionally, the preservice teacher participants equally identified secondary teachers be capable of demonstrating a real interest and enjoyment of their teaching content area, a capacity to build meaningful, trusting professional relationships with students and to be an ethical role model for young people who are going through a hugely important developmental life stage.

The work of Watt, Richardson, Klusmann, Kunter, Beyer, Trautwein & Baumert (2012) also supports the current research project. Watt et al. (2012) conducted a longitudinal study into the motivations for preservice teachers’ choice of teaching as a career. This study incorporated the application of the Factors
Influencing Teaching Choice scale – the FIT – Choice scale (Watt et al., 2012).

Watt et al. (2012, p.792) report that:

The FIT-Choice (Factors Influencing Teaching Choice) scale was developed to assess the primary motivations of teachers to teach, and was demonstrated to be psychometrically sound in its initial use among a sample of 1653 Australian preservice teachers

There was a level of commonality between some areas of the current research project and that of Watt et al. (2012), and elements identified in the FIT-Choice Model that resulted as the outcome of that study. In particular, Watt et al. (2012, p.804) identified the following:

The highest rated motivations for the choice of a teaching career were consistently intrinsic value, perceived teaching ability, the desire to make a social contribution, to work with children/adolescents, and having had positive prior teaching and learning experiences.

There is a very high level of congruence between the motivations identified by Watt et al. (2012) and factors identified as perspectives of teachers’ roles within the current study, particularly those identified in Core Proposition 3, which looked closely at elements of educational altruism. The FIT – Choice Model used by Watt et al. is shown below in Figure 11.

**Figure 11.** FIT-Choice Model
Importantly, the FIT-Choice Model (Watt et al., 2012) also identifies a range of external socialisation influences that impact preservice teacher’s self perceptions. Similar socialisation influences have been identified in the current study, and these have been described and examined in Chapter 2.

Comparing the commonalities of findings between the current research project and the conclusions provided by Furlong’s (2012) and Watt’s et al. (2012) earlier work provides a substantial level of confidence that the broad findings of the current study are supported by the empirical evidence of existing research undertaken on a similar research question. This initial evaluation provides an appropriate point to expand the findings of the current study into the form of a theoretical framework that, whilst specific to the preservice teacher participant cohort at the University of the Sunshine Coast, is anticipated to have a level of transferability and scalability to other initial teacher education cohorts. The developed theoretical framework will encompass the development of preservice teacher role identity development from pre-program entry through to early career teaching. As such, it can be argued that the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework makes a substantial contribution to the current conceptualisation of the roles and identities that preservice teachers hold regarding secondary school teachers.

The core component of the framework is that of the three core propositions. Figure 11 highlights the three core propositions of preservice teachers regarding the roles of secondary school teachers in situ within the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework (highlighted in dashed line). These are central findings that have been distilled from analysing data obtained from semi structured in-depth interviews with preservice teacher participants. Figure 12 is shown on the next page.
7.2 A discussion of the three core propositions

The first of the core propositions – “It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context”, immediately identifies the human connection in the act of teaching; the centrality of human relationship in that is manifest within the teacher/student dynamic. The positive professional relationships that secondary teachers develop and maintain inside the school site occur in a vast array of situations and locations, between students and teachers where there exists not only an age difference, but potentially gender, cultural, social and religious differences as well. Within a school site, these professional relationships are being created and developed in classrooms, on sporting fields, in theaters and drama spaces, in art studios, technology workshops and science laboratories. When the teacher/student dynamic moves away from the internal school environment to one outside of the school, there is no change in the age, gender, cultural, social and religious differences that may have existed between the teacher and the student within the internal school environment. What has changed
is the social environment within which the relationship operates, where the imbalanced power relationship that exists between teacher and student within the internal school environment is altered. When teachers take students on excursions, school camps, sporting or cultural trips, or interact with students outside of school in a sporting or social environment, they continue to develop and maintain positive professional relationships in these environments. The responses from research participants provided in Chapter 4 provide clear examples of the nature of secondary teacher’s positive professional relationships both inside and outside of the classroom context. Importantly for teachers, positive professional teacher/student relationships have a large and positive impact on students’ academic results (Hattie, 2009). The work of Hattie (2009) clearly demonstrated the positive impact that constructive relationships between teachers and students can have on how students think, act and achieve. Hattie’s (2009) work quantifies teacher/student relationships to an effect size of 0.72 – well into the zone of desired effects. This is shown in Figure 13 below.

![Figure 13: Student/Teacher Relationships](image)

The implication of this core proposition is that preservice teachers have identified that positive teacher/student relationships are essential for the role of an effective secondary teacher – and, from the perspective of preservice teachers, are equally as
important as content knowledge and teaching enthusiasm (identified in Core Proposition 2).

Analysis of the research participant’s interview data identified three additional sub-propositions that supplemented and supported the first core proposition. The first of these sub-propositions is: “The strong desire for preservice teachers to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people is a reflection of personal experiences both in their own schooling experience and as a preservice teacher observing supervising teachers in the classroom”. This sub-proposition also identifies the centrality of human relationship in that is manifest within the teacher/student dynamic…and additionally indicates the absolute necessity for SPE supervising teachers to be aware of their need to model positive professional relationships to preservice teachers. This sub-proposition highlights the cyclic nature of teacher relationships with students, where the apprenticeship of observation lays down deep and lasting impressions of teachers and their roles in students, to be carried forward into the profession by the next generation of teachers. This sub-proposition indicates the necessity for supervising teachers to appreciate the equal importance of positive professional relationships when they undertake the mentoring of a preservice teacher, alongside the areas of curriculum, pedagogy and classroom management. By extension, this sub-proposition emphasises the need for an examination of the identification, selection, training and evaluation of supervising teachers. It would seem an essential measure that schools and employing organisations provide a degree of professional quality assurance to ITE institutions that teachers who can model positive professional relationships with students supervise preservice teachers.

The second sub-proposition is: “Participants clearly articulated their perspective that fundamental to the role of the teacher was an element of care and nurturing for students and young people”. The Oxford dictionary defines the term caring profession as, “A job that involves looking after other people, such as nursing, teaching, or social work”. Indeed, there seems little doubt that teaching is a caring profession when Rogers & Webb (1991, p.174) insist, “Good teachers care, and good teaching is inextricably linked to specific acts of caring”. Sub-proposition 2 supports the long-held understanding of teaching as one of the caring professions, and promotes the necessity for this aspect of the role of the teacher to be explicitly identified in ITE programs and more fully explored within the context
of preservice teacher selection and supervised professional experience preparation (Goldstein & Lake, 1999; Nias, 1989; Noddings, 1984; Rogers & Webb, 1991). Goldstein & Lake (1999, p.2), identified that:

Preservice teachers begin their teacher education experiences with preconceived, atheoretical ideas of the relationship of teaching and caring, ideas which reverberate throughout the teachers’ initial forays into classroom life.

In light of the alignment between research and the data elicited from the perspectives of preservice teacher participants in this research project, it seems self evident that teachers (and, by extension, preservice teachers) need to have the capacity to empathise and demonstrate care and for students in an appropriately professional manner. It is important to emphasise that ‘care’ in this instance is not the oversimplified, essentialist or romanitised understandings of caring teachers, including “widely held and long-standing notions such as maternal instinct and motherly love” (Goldstein & Lake, 1999, p.5). Rather, care in this context is more properly equated teachers’ appropriately professional care and empathetic understanding of a student as an individual. The benefits for students that flow from supportive teacher-student relationships include improved student motivation, learning and achievement (Davis, 2011). Examples of how teachers might demonstrate this type of caring professional relationship with students are as follows:

● Teachers create room for their students to have voice in the classroom.
● Teachers monitor their levels of unpleasant emotions.
● Teachers endorse humanistic orientations and are supportive of student’s autonomy.
● Teachers emphasise social negotiation and emphasise natural consequences for disruptive behaviour.
● Teachers strive to be ‘in sync’ with interpreting and responding to student behaviour.
● Teachers create intellectual boundaries.
● Teachers create space in the classroom for learning from mistakes/failure.
● Teachers hold attainable, high expectations for all students.
Teachers cultivate student interest and strive to connect content to student’s lives. (Davis, 2011, para. 4).

Considering the explicit examples provided above, teacher care and nurturing of students and young people is indisputably a central attribute of a secondary teacher’s role and identity. Focussing on this attribute in the areas of preservice teacher selection for entry to ITE programs, preservice teacher supervision during SPE placements and in the coursework component of ITE programs is necessary to afford this aspect of the teacher’s role the prominence it deserves.

The third sub-proposition is: “Participants clearly articulated their perspective that fundamental to the role of the teacher was an element of consistency and predictability of the relationship presented by the teacher to students”. In a similar way in which sub-proposition 2 about secondary teachers care and nurturing roles, sub-proposition 3 points to a key teacher role, the importance of which has been identified by the research. Sub-proposition 3 is also a highly pragmatic proposition – one that may be demonstrated and observed in practice. Consistency is a term often associated with whole-school organisational perspectives, and is seen as a useful tool in developing an effective school and classroom environment (“Consistency is Key in Schools,” 2014; Wentzel & Ramani, 2016). Within the context of sub-proposition 3, the focus is on teacher/student relationship consistency and predictability, and the ways that this is manifest in the classroom. Teachers might demonstrate relationship consistency and predictability in a number of ways, including:

- **Demonstrating a predictability and consistency of their expectations.** This includes ensuring students know what is expected of them; how they are expected to interact with their peers and with the teacher in the classroom. Predictability of the consistent interplay between teacher and students brings comfort to students; ‘what is expected of me’ is not a mystery but clearly established, allowing the development of the holistic relationship between teacher and student.

- **Demonstrating a predictability and consistency of their actions.** This includes a teacher consistently doing what they say they are going to do. It also includes the development of a predictable ‘rhythm’ within the learning environment. Additionally, students should come to expect their teacher’s
emotional responses. This creates learning conditions that students can depend upon without exception. The stability and consistency of a classroom environment can be undermined due to a teacher’s lack of control over their own emotions. In a classroom with a predictable ‘rhythm’, student anxiety is reduced, which reciprocally raises student confidence and removes yet another obstacle toward the expectation of eventual success.

- **Demonstrating a predictability and consistency of their relationships.** The relationships that teachers develop with students need to be predictable – such that there is no doubt that the teacher will do whatever it takes to assist the student towards success. By extension, this predictability and consistency allows students to feel that the classroom is a safe place to learn, and they have trust in their teacher that enables them to take risks, to make mistakes, and to recover free from personal or emotional harm.

In a similar manner to sub-proposition 2, the consistency and predictability of teacher’s relationships with students and young people is a central attribute of a secondary teacher’s role and identity. Focussing on these attributes in the areas of preservice teacher selection for entry to ITE programs, preservice teacher supervision during SPE placements and in the coursework component of ITE programs is required to provide this aspect of the teacher’s role the prominence it deserves.

An examination of Core Proposition 1, along with the three supporting sub-propositions, with the AITSL Proficient Teacher Career Stage Descriptors identifies a level of textual dissonance. The AITSL Proficient Teacher Career Stage Descriptors have been developed and adopted by all states of Australia, and are supported by all ITE accreditation bodies (“Australian Professional Standards for Teachers,” 2011). Core Proposition 1, along with the three supporting sub-propositions, have highlighted the centrality of affective roles of secondary teachers. The AITSL Proficient Teacher Career Stage Descriptors (“Australian Professional Standards for Teachers,” 2011, p.6) explicitly mentions that teachers

“Know the unique backgrounds of their students and adjust their teaching to meet their individual needs and diverse cultural, social and linguistic characteristics. They develop safe, positive and productive learning environments where all students are encouraged to participate”.

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This is as close as the AITSL Proficient Teacher Career Stage Descriptors comes to mentioning the development of positive professional relationships between teachers and students, and the accompanying positioning of teaching as one of the caring professions. When compared against the conceptualisations of a caring profession, the AITSL Proficient Teacher Career Stage Descriptors appear markedly mechanistic in nature; deficient of reference to the human relationship in that is manifest within the teacher/student dynamic.

The AITSL Proficient Teacher Career Stage Descriptors (“Australian Professional Standards for Teachers,” 2011) are shown below:

- Proficient teachers meet the requirements for full registration through demonstrating achievement of the seven Standards at this level.

- These teachers create effective teaching and learning experiences for their students. They know the unique backgrounds of their students and adjust their teaching to meet their individual needs and diverse cultural, social and linguistic characteristics. They develop safe, positive and productive learning environments where all students are encouraged to participate.

- They design and implement engaging teaching programs that meet curriculum, assessment and reporting requirements. They use feedback and assessment to analyse and support their students’ knowledge and understanding. Proficient teachers use a range of sources, including student results, to evaluate their teaching and to adjust their programs to better meet student needs.

- Proficient teachers are active participants in their profession and with advice from colleagues identify, plan and evaluate their own professional learning needs.

- Proficient teachers are team members. They work collaboratively with colleagues; they seek out and are responsive to advice about educational issues affecting their teaching practice. They communicate effectively with their students, colleagues, parents/carers and community members. They behave professionally and ethically in all forums.

The second of the core propositions – “It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively
and with enthusiasm”, identifies the more generally understood aspects of the roles and identify of a secondary school teacher. There is a far higher level of alignment between this core proposition and the AITSL Proficient Teacher Career Stage Descriptors than with core proposition 1. In particular, the AITSL Proficient Teacher Career Stage Descriptors, (“Australian Professional Standards for Teachers,” 2011), state the following in terms of specific teaching and pedagogical practice:

They design and implement engaging teaching programs that meet curriculum, assessment and reporting requirements. They use feedback and assessment to analyse and support their students’ knowledge and understanding. Proficient teachers use a range of sources, including student results, to evaluate their teaching and to adjust their programs to better meet student needs.

The implication of this section of the AITSL Proficient Teacher Career Stage Descriptors is that teachers need to possess an appropriate level of subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm in order to meet the specific elements of the descriptor. Student requirements for entry into ITE programs, and requirements for the overall accreditation of ITE programs, have been progressively increasing. This is most recently evidenced in the Action Now: Classroom Ready Teachers document (Craven et al., 2014). To date, the most common metric used to determine entry to an ITE program is an Australian Tertiary Admissions Rank (ATAR) score, (although in Queensland the equivalent of the ATAR score, the Overall Position (OP) score, is used as an alternative). Craven et.al (2014, p.13) state:

The Australian Tertiary Admission Rank (ATAR) is the most commonly used mechanism for the selection of Year 12 school leavers to undergraduate teacher education programs. However, in 2012 school leavers with a known ATAR comprised just 19.5 per cent of the total domestic undergraduate commencements in teacher education

In late 2016 the Victorian state government implemented requirements of specific minimum ATAR scores for school leavers to enter ITE programs (Anderson, 2016). Anderson (2016, para. 1) reported:
Only the top 30 per cent of Victorian students will be eligible for undergraduate teaching courses under the State Government’s plan to increase the minimum entry score.

During his interview with the Victorian Education Minister, James Merlino, Anderson (2016, para. 5) quotes the Minister as stating, “As Minister for Education and as a parent I want the best and brightest teaching our children”.

The statement by Education Minister Merlino raises an issue that goes to the heart of the current research project – what is meant by “best and brightest” in terms of the roles of a secondary teacher? If we measure “brightest” by a metric such as an ATAR score, it would seem likely that all entrants using this metric will be in the top 30% of graduates from secondary schools (Anderson, 2016). Additionally, successful completion of national literacy and numeracy tests to demonstrate that pre-service teachers are within the top 30 per cent of the population in personal literacy and numeracy are now a pre-registration requirement (Maiden, 2015). In her interview conducted with then Federal Education Minister Christopher Pine, Maiden (2015, para. 5) quotes the Minister as stating:

> For too long there have been public concerns about the variability in the quality of teaching graduates and in the effectiveness of existing programs in preparing new teachers. Testing key aspects of the literacy and numeracy skills of aspiring teachers will assist higher education providers, teacher employers and the general public to have absolute confidence in the skills of graduating teachers.

These two measures clearly indicate that preservice and graduate teachers definitely fall into the “brightest” category. However, the blunt instrument of the ATAR score does nothing to determine “best” in terms of being a future teacher. Affective aspects of teachers’ roles, such as empathy, caring, resilience, altruism, passion for teaching, emotional intelligence are arguably equally as important as raw subject area knowledge. This is clearly demonstrated though the empirical data developed through this research project, which has resulted in the formulation of the three core propositions which form the basis of the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework. Currently, the affective aspects of teachers’ roles are seldom (if ever) considered or determined in the ITE program selection process. In a
positive move, Craven et al (2014, p.17) made recommendations in their report that:

Higher education providers select the best candidates into teaching using sophisticated approaches that ensure initial teacher education students possess the required academic skills and personal characteristics to become a successful teacher.

This recommendation signals the opportunity for an examination of a broad range of personal characteristics of preservice teachers to be considered alongside the usual academic capacities of a program applicant.

The third of the core propositions

It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people also identifies the human connection in the act of teaching. In core proposition 3, the human connection is the process of teachers ‘giving of themselves’ – their time, their interest, their experience, their creativity, their contacts, as well as ‘giving of themselves’ in the sense of providing a role model to students and young people (Heick, 2016). Heick (2016, para. 3) proposes:

Teaching is martyrdom. So often, educators feel the need to give themselves up to be feasted upon until there’s nothing left. Giving yourself is a different kind of gift, though. Here, it means truly putting your self aside — your need to be the best, your insecurities, professional goals, need for affirmation, and so on — and instead give in to the act of teaching.

The preservice teacher participants in this research project recognised that their own teachers and their supervising teachers from SPE placements had exhibited educational altruism; freely giving their time and life experience to students. Although preservice teacher participants freely provided examples of how teachers gave their time and experience to them, they appeared to have difficulty voicing how they navigate the paradigm shift from being the recipient to being the donor of educational altruism. Arguably, this may be due to the ‘unspoken’ social context of not wanting to draw attention to oneself – not wishing to seem like a
‘tall poppy’ (Kreag, 2016). Kreag (2016, para. 6) suggests, “Teachers usually pride themselves on being concerned with their students’ interests, even to the detriment of their own interests at times”. The empirical data gathered through this research project supports this statement. The implication for preservice teachers – both school graduate and mature age student, is that their transition into the profession (as demonstrated in the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework) is best undertaken in a structured, measured way. Stepping into a profession that has been described as “martyrdom” from a school or non-caring profession must-needs be managed over an extended timeframe by ITE academic staff and supervising teachers, and recognised as the paradigm shift that it clearly is (Heick, 2016). This process will require a sophisticated level of professional reflection and personal understanding for preservice teachers. As with core-proposition 2 above, the affective aspects of teachers’ roles are seldom (if ever) considered or determined in the ITE program selection process, and as such it is critical that the personal characteristics of preservice teachers are considered alongside the usual academic capacities of a program applicant.

The linear nature of the development of identity within the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework is provided by reference to existing conceptualisations found within the current literature, including that of Cross and Ndofirepi (2015) and Wright & Tuska (1968). This linear progression is identified (highlighted in dashed line) in the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework, shown on the next page in Figure 14.
The three core propositions are elements that are in the “Play” subset of the larger, linear developmental continuum of preservice teacher growth, initially proposed by Wright and Tuska (1968). The work of Wright & Tuska (1968) was an early exploration of the professional developmental continuum of preservice teachers. Importantly for the current framework, the terms initially utilised by Wright and Tuska (1968) – ‘Dream stage’, ‘Play stage’ and ‘Life stage’ have been retained, as these terms have clear reference to statements made by preservice teacher participants and to terms used in the existing literature. The linear nature of preservice teacher development has continued to be researched; more contemporary work in this area has being undertaken by researchers including Cady, Meier & Lubinski (2006) and Walker, Brownlee, Whiteford, Excely & Woods (2012). The aforementioned researchers concur that preservice teachers enter ITE programs with particular perspectives about the role of teachers and of teaching. Cady, Meier & Lubinski (2006, p.296) make reference to the apprenticeship of observation model when they affirm, “On the basis of their prior experiences as students, participants entering teacher-education programs have preconceptions about teaching”. This observation aligns with Wright and Tuska’s
Importantly, Cady, Meier & Lubinski (2006, p.296) found that “The beliefs of preservice teachers also limit their ability to interpret the ideas fundamental to the teacher-education program and influence their instructional decisions”. This statement provides an avenue for further examination of conditions that will positively support preservice teachers’ capacity to engage in their ITE programs at a deeper and more meaningful level.

The suggestion by the researchers cited above is that the initial perspectives and preconceptions that preservice teachers bring with them to ITE programs are deeply ingrained and take time to be reflected upon, re-evaluated and ultimately modified by preservice teachers. When considered against the data gathered in this thesis, the work of Wright & Tuska (1968) reflects the psychological growth experienced by preservice teachers. Cady, Meier & Lubinski (2006, p.296) explain this as a process where the “internal locus of authority requires a level of intellectual development that has shifted from accepting knowledge from authorities to constructing one’s own knowledge”. Importantly for the framework being developed, this process is also envisaged as a linear progression that occurs over time and with experience. Wright & Tuska (1968) proposed a simple linear model where preservice and early career teachers move through several stages of development. These three stages, Dreams, Play and Life (Wright and Tuska, 1968) can be seen extending, in the case of the Dreams stage, from childhood, through to The Play stage of the preservice teacher, and finally to the Life stage post-graduation as a developing early-career teacher.

Prior to entering an ITE program, Wright & Tuska suggest that the preservice teacher is at the stage of dreams (Wright & Tuska, 1968, p.258). Wright and Tuska state:

Before practice teaching, professional development is at the stage of dreams. These are the self-enhancements the prospective teacher anticipates acquiring when she assumes the professional role. They reflect her motives for teaching and influence what she later finds satisfying and frustrating in her work.
Wright and Tuska (1968, p.274) suggest that for preservice teachers:

> Before practice teaching the role conception of “Me as a Teacher” is a fantasy of how self will improve by emulating teaching models and will achieve fulfilment through becoming a teacher.

The dream component of the continuum is focussed with the anticipation of becoming a teacher. In turn, the anticipation if becoming a teacher is predicted on the preservice teacher’s beliefs about the role of a teacher: how preservice teachers visualise themselves in that role (Wright & Tuska, 1968).

The play component of the model encompasses the experiences of preservice teachers during their ITE programs, including their supervised professional experience placements in schools. Wright & Tuska (1968, p.276) suggest, “during practice their role conceptions change from raw imagination to half-baked experience. Now they know the role as what they have played at being”. Critically, Wright & Tuska (1968) acknowledge that this is a stage where the preservice teacher’s self-conception is explored and improved.

The life component of the model encompasses the important transition from preservice teacher to early career teacher. Both the SETE report and the TEMAG review identify this time as a key juncture in professional growth. Wright & Tuska (1968, pp.279 – 280) observe that, “After a year of experience there is little room left for imagination. The first-year teacher is no longer dreaming or playing. She is being a teacher. She is involved in real life”.

A similarly conceived linear progression is mentioned in more recent work by Cross and Ndofirepi (2015). Cross and Ndofirepi (2015) discuss the development of teacher identity development by referring to the stages of pre-teaching, fictive and lived teacher experience – very similar to the liner stages proposed by Wright and Tuska (1968). In a similar model of linear progression, Sumara and Luce-Kaplar (1996, p.65) proposed:

> Becoming a teacher involves more than transposing teaching skills onto an already-established personal identity: it means including the identity ‘teacher’ in one’s life. Beginning teachers must negotiate at least three teaching identities: those they bring with them into teacher education, those they develop while doing university course work, and those they develop during student teaching practicums.
It is clear that the progression of preservice teacher role and identity development is commonly conceptualised as a three-stage process, comprising perspectives held before entry to the ITE program, perspectives developed during the ITE program and perspective developed post the ITE program. Using the linear model of Wright & Tuska (1968), and supported by the more recent works of Cady, Meier & Lubinski (2006), Cross and Ndofirepi (2015), Sumara & Luce-Kaplar (1996) and Watt et al. (2012), in conjunction with the three core propositions identified within the empirical data, a Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework has been developed to conceptualise the processes examined by the research project. For reference, the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework is shown below in Figure 15. Figure 15 clearly identifies the three core propositions nested as a subset component of the ‘Play stage’.

**Figure 15.** Core propositions nested as a subset of the ‘Play stage’

Within the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework, the three core propositions that emerged from the data are nested as a subset component of the ‘Play stage’ section...that is, within the preservice teacher stage. The core propositions are nuanced by and within Initial Teacher Education Programs
(including supervised professional experience placements) by a number of mediating factors. The mediating factors include the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers and the Ethical Standards of school sites, employing bodies and external accreditation bodies (examples of these are provided in Appendices C, I, J and K). For example, AITSL, via the APST, along with state and federal government bodies can, and regularly do, impact as mediating factors. An example may be quite fundamental, such as demonstrated requisite subject area knowledge, or ATAR score levels required by particular state governments for entry to initial teacher education programs.

In addition to mediating factors embedded in the 3 core propositions, a number of enabling conditions have been identified as emanating from a variety of sources, including organisational and ethical structures developed by employing and regulatory authorities. Examples of enabling factors that are embedded within the framework are modeling and mentoring processes implemented by supervising teachers and specific innovations within individual ITE programs, which may enable the development of preservice teachers’ perspectives of the roles of teachers and preservice teachers own growing preservice teacher identity. In Figure 16, on the next page, the enabling conditions are identified (highlighted by a dashed line).
The ongoing, iterative nature of the development of teacher identity and role is bookended on one side against the initial conceptualizations that young people hold of teachers, teacher roles and the nature of school. On the other side, it is bookended by the ongoing, reflective nature of developing teacher roles as preservice teachers develop their teaching experience and capacity. The Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework provides a lens through which initial teacher education practitioners can view the development of preservice teachers as their teacher identities and roles are developed throughout the cycle of their ITE programs. Arguably, the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework will make a contribution to the current conceptualisation of preservice teacher identity and role formation, which continues to be a topic of consideration both within the tertiary educational community and within schools who accept preservice teachers on Supervised Professional Experience placement.

In its simplest form, a framework may be defined as a basic structure underlying a system, concept, or text. In this sense, the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework provides the ‘basic’ structure underlying a far more complex interconnection of personal and professional growth that occurs within secondary
school preservice teachers during an Initial Teacher Education program. The Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework is shown on the next page in Figure 17.

There are a number of specific components to Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework. The centrality of the 3 core propositions within the framework has already been discussed earlier in this chapter. It must be noted that the precursor to the 3 core propositions are the pre-existing perspectives of preservice teachers. In the framework, arrows leading towards the 3 core propositions signify this precursor condition.

Similarly, the linear arrow at the top of the framework highlights the linear nature of preservice teacher development – from Dream stage, to Play stage, to Life stage (Wright & Tuska, 1968). The theoretical underpinnings of this conceptualisation have also been expounded earlier in this chapter. The ongoing, iterative nature of the development of teacher identity and role is bookended on the left-hand side of the framework by the initial conceptualizations that students entering into an initial teacher education program hold of teachers, teacher roles and the nature of school. Similarly, the iterative nature of the development of teacher identity and role is bookended on the right-hand side of the framework by the extended cyclic processes that additional professional experience and professional reflective practice will bring as the graduate teacher continues into the Life stage of teacher development. As has been highlighted earlier in this study, the incorporation of the AITSL Australian Professional Standards for Teachers stages (shown on the next page in Figure 17) demonstrates the professional expectation from AITSL that all registered teachers in Australia will continue to develop and reflect upon their role identity throughout their careers.
In the case of Figure 17 above, the Dream and Play Stages are not identified...in Figure 17, they would exist below the APST Graduate Stage. The Life Stage of the Graduate Standard teacher is shown in Figure 17, and typically lasts between 18 months and 3 years as the graduate teacher gains experience and progresses from provisional teacher registration to full teacher registration. Full registration typically signals a move to being considered a Proficient Standard teacher. The linear progression of APST stages can be considered as an extension of the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework, as teachers will continue to develop their Life Stage from Proficient Teacher to Accomplished Teacher to Lead Teacher stage.

7.3 Conclusion

The Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework has been presented in this chapter. The main elements of the framework have been described and discussed against extant research and empirical data derived from the research project. Each of the core propositions (and sub-propositions where applicable) have been discussed in relation to the perspectives that preservice teachers have regarding the roles and identities of secondary school teachers in Queensland. The Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework provides a lens through which initial teacher education practitioners can view the development of preservice teachers as their
teacher identities and roles are developed throughout the progression of their ITE programs. From a practical perspective, the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework is a useful tool that is immediately applicable in augmenting Queensland ITE programs.
Chapter 8
Conclusions and Recommendations

As I discussed in Chapter 1 of this thesis, initial teacher education is currently experiencing a period of change and increasing complexity. The sweep of this change and increasing complexity of all aspects of initial teacher education impacts on higher education at institutional, state and national levels. At an institutional level, the University of the Sunshine Coast, as a growing regional university, is committed to servicing a diverse socio-economic and geographic catchment region that extends from the northern suburbs of Brisbane to Hervey Bay. As such, the University of the Sunshine Coast is dedicated to delivering the highest quality initial teacher education programs to a cohort of preservice teachers who variously include ‘first-in-family’ students, secondary school graduates and mature aged students who bring diverse academic, vocational and life experiences with them.

At a state level, schools, schooling processes and initial teacher education have been shaped by social, cultural, political and educational practices and conventions that have reflected a uniquely Queensland influence (Fitzgerald, Megarrity, & Symons, 2009). In Chapter 1 of this thesis I unambiguously presented a contextual and personal perspective of Queensland schools and schooling processes. As a school student, teacher and teacher educator in Queensland for the past 47 years, the contextual perspective situated me, as the author, within the broader narrative of the thesis.

The research project has been conducted against the backdrop of an increasingly neoliberal political environment at the national level. Complex issues of school choice and competition, equitable school funding arrangements as proposed by the Gonski Report (2011), high stakes testing regimes, PISA and NAPLAN test competition and performance pay for teachers have become customary even in the most informal, everyday conversations about teachers, schooling and education. As a result, this study into preservice teachers, teachers and teaching is critical in order to inform debate at institutional, state and national levels, both now and into the future.
Equally importantly, the research project has also been undertaken in Queensland, Australia, during a time of substantial transformation in initial teacher education in the area of accreditation requirements and professional standards (at both a national and state level), the implementation of uniform national graduate standards for teachers, the implementation of a national curriculum from P – 12, and the release of two major reports into the area of initial teacher education. The background of substantive review and change within initial teacher education gave additional impetus to undertake the research project in order to obtain greater understanding of preservice teacher perspectives at an institutional level. The release of the Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group (TEMAG) report (2015) provided important perspectives, data and recommendations in relation to initial teacher education, whilst acknowledging the 40 reports and 100 reviews conducted into initial teacher education since the 1970s had resulted in inadequate outcomes which had provided only a limited impact on policy and practice of initial teacher education in Australia (Craven et al., 2014; Mayer et al., 2015). A significant inference arising from the material presented in the TEMAG report is that, despite the volume of reviews, reports and research into initial teacher education, over an extended period of time, by acknowledged leaders in the field, there remain so many variables within schools, school systems and employing bodies in Australia that a unifying model of initial teacher education is yet to be realised. The research project did identify that the current Australian Professional Standards for Teachers and recommendations proposed by the TEMAG report provided a strong foundational basis for all universities upon which base their ITE program structures.

Chapter 2 of this thesis provides a detailed literature review in three key areas through which the development of this research project has been informed. These areas are:

- The emergence and development of schooling in Queensland, highlighting the specific aspects of schooling as a social construct that distinguished Queensland schooling from that offered in other states.
- A broad review of the development and nature of teacher education in Australia, and more specifically of teacher education in Queensland.
- The literature relating to representations, images and identities of Teachers.
The literature review confirmed the close links that have existed between state school structure, schooling processes and initial teacher education, and the manner in which those associations continue to be evidenced.

Chapter 3 of this thesis provides a detailed and cogent explanation of the methodology used for the study. In order to generate a substantive theory regarding the participants’ perspectives in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland, this study interviewed 35 University of the Sunshine Coast secondary preservice teachers immediately prior to, and immediately following, a Supervised Professional Experience placement. Participants were drawn from secondary undergraduate degree programs and Graduate Diploma in Education programs. In keeping with the methodological approaches outlined by O’Donoghue (2007) and Punch (2000), this qualitative research project is underpinned by a conceptual framework which adopts the interpretivist paradigm of symbolic interactionism to explore the perspectives of preservice teacher participants. Preservice teacher participant’s interactions with their Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) mentors, fellow staff members, community members, students, previous teachers and previous school experiences were explored through the use of semi-structured interviews. The data from these interviews was collected, analysed and provisionally verified as the interview process was conducted. Field notes were used as reference points in order to verify and expand on the data analysis process. As such, the methodology adopted in this research project is one based on the traditions of grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The data analysis practices adopted in this research project incorporated the extensive use of NVivo (Version 7) software to code data (both open coding and line-by-line coding were undertaken). From these coding process, a number of key themes became evident. Furthermore, from these analyses, a substantive theorizing of the findings occurred.

As demonstrated in this dissertation, Chapters 1, 2 and 3 have provided a justification for the research question, a contextualisation of the study with the author’s life-world, a review of the existing literature that informs the research question and a justification of the methodological approach used to generate theory surrounding the perspectives that preservice teachers hold in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland.
Chapters 4, 5 and 6 of this thesis built on key theoretical propositions that were generated by the adoption of the methodological processes described in Chapter 3. Chapters 4, 5 and 6 provide the reader with the specific results of the data analysis. These chapters articulate the theory generated as a result of detailed examination of the data. As a result of the methodology used in the study, the data reduction process identified four key themes within the data, namely:

- Preservice teachers’ perspectives regarding the personal qualities of teachers.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives regarding the relationships within teaching.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives of the teaching and learning process.
- Preservice teachers’ perspectives regarding classroom management.

From these four identified themes, three core propositions were developed. These are:

- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context. The research participant’s perspectives in relation to this core proposition (and sub-propositions) were examined in detail in Chapter 4.

- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm. The research participant’s perspectives in relation to this core proposition were examined in detail in Chapter 5.

- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people. The research participant’s perspectives in relation to this core proposition were examined in detail in Chapter 6.

Chapters 4, 5 and 6 provide a detailed examination of the data, and provide numerous examples from the transcribed interviews of the preservice teacher participant’s various perspectives of the roles and identities of secondary teachers in Queensland. In addition to the three chapters thoroughly interrogating the data
obtained from interviews of the preservice teacher participants, they also incorporate selected supporting statements from the literature review conducted in Chapter 2. Incorporating selected supporting statements from the literature review assisted in clarifying and confirming the perspectives ascribed to the participant’s interview statements.

Chapter 7 provided a detailed examination of the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework. The substantive theoretical framework was developed through theory building utilising extant research and empirical data derived from the research project. Specific work that informed the development of the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework included that of Furlong (2012), Watt et al. (2012) and Wright & Tuska (1968). Furlong’s (2012) life history research of schooling experiences with Irish preservice teacher participants provided a congruent research project for comparative purposes. The longitudinal study conducted by Watt et al. (2012) provided additional common research comparisons, as the FIT-Choice Model (Watt et al., 2012) and the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework shared a number of common structural elements (particularly elements of educational altruism and external socialisation influences on teachers’ self-perceptions). The Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework provides a lens through which initial teacher education academics may view the development of preservice teachers as their teacher identities and roles are developed throughout the progression of their ITE programs.

This chapter provides a conclusion to this thesis. This includes final theorising as a result of the findings as well as possible implications for secondary preservice teachers and initial teacher education programs in the future.

8.1 Findings of this Study

The research achieved its overall aims, which were:

- To examine the perspectives of preservice teachers in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland.

- To generate substantive theory regarding the perspectives of preservice teachers in relation to the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland, and
To consequently develop a framework that incorporates the three core propositions that preservice teachers hold regarding the roles of secondary school teachers.

This research study is responsive to the work undertaken in the area of teacher roles and teacher identity, including that undertaken by Aspland (2006), Brennan and Wills (2008), Cross & Ndofirepi (2015), Giddens (1991), Hattie (2009), Nias (1996), Sachs (2001), Sim (2006), Sumara & Luce-Kapler (1996), Webb (2005) and Weber & Mitchell (1995). The research study is also responsive to key national reviews and professional standards – particularly the TEMAG review (Craven et al., 2014) and the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (“Australian Professional Standards for Teachers,” 2014).

The research study identified incongruities between research and practice in relation to the roles and identities of teachers, particularly in the affective areas of teacher relationships.

8.1.1 Summation of Research in relation to the roles and identities of teachers

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 established that a diverse body of research has identified the importance of the affective, caring aspects of teacher’s roles and identities. The literature review identified the significance of positive professional teacher/student relationships, both inside and outside of the classroom environment. The research findings from this study, drawn from Chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7, have clearly established the perspectives of preservice teachers are that secondary teacher’s roles include the fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with students; possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm; and possess altruistic motivations for working with young people. Chapters 4, 5 and 6 illustrated the pervading social images of teachers through media provide unrealistic understandings about the role of the teacher, leading to mismatched preservice teachers’ expectations. Additional research by Hattie (2009), introduced in Chapter 7, strengthens the importance of the professional teacher/student relationship as fundamental in the role of an effective secondary teacher, resulting in positive impacts on students’ academic results.
8.1.2 Summation of Practice in relation to the roles and identities of teachers

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 identified a number of schooling and initial teacher education practices, policies and procedures that occur in Queensland. The first of these practices is represented by the social and political structures that impact on Queensland state schools. Chapter 2 demonstrated that state schools have historically been used to promote social and political agendas, across the entirety of the political spectrum. It was also noted that this situation exists as a contemporary agenda of Queensland state schooling. The literature reviewed on Chapter 2 illustrated that Queensland schools have acted as socio-political mechanisms to either promote or suppress policy relating to religion, morality, work ethic, economic growth, nationalism and civic responsibility, family structure, the roles of teachers and the nature and purpose of schools and schooling in the social structure. As demonstrated by example in Chapter 2, secondary school teachers, as employees of the state, have been used as de facto instruments to execute the socio-political agendas of the government of the day. Examples of this can be seen by revisiting the implementation of the “Learning or Earning” Youth Participation in Education and Training Bill 2003 into schools under Labour Party premier Peter Beattie and the removal of the Man: A Course of Study (MACOS) and the Social Education Materials Project (SEMP) projects from state schools under National Party premier Sir Joh Bjelke Petersen.

The second practice is represented by the structures and procedures that impact on initial teacher education in Queensland. Chapter 2 demonstrated that initial teacher education has been subject to continual review and revision over an extensive period of time. The reviews and revisions have been in response to political, economic and social drivers, which have reflected the situating of teaching as a profession. Chapter 2 highlighted the concomitant tension between teaching being accepted as a profession and the increased academic, professional and ethical requirements of professional status. Chapter 2 also highlighted the tension between the realities of the roles of teachers and teaching and the commonly held perspectives of the general public of the roles of teachers and teaching.

The third practice is represented by the AITSL Teacher Career Stage Descriptors, the overarching professional career stage descriptors against which all Australian preservice and registered teachers are benchmarked. The career stages referred to are those of Graduate teacher, Proficient teacher, Accomplished teacher
and Lead teacher. As stated by the AISTL website (“Australian Professional Standards for Teachers Career Stages,” 2014):

The descriptors across the four career stages represent increasing levels of knowledge, practice and professional engagement for teachers. Progression through the stages describes a growing understanding, applied with increasing sophistication across a broader and more complex range of situations.

8.1.3 Incongruities between research and practice in relation to the roles and identities of teachers

The summation of the research in relation to the roles and identities of teachers highlights that the extant literature and the data analysed in the current research study indicate the critical importance of recognising caring, affective elements within the roles and identities of teachers. These affective elements include positive professional relationships with students, altruistic motivations for working in the teaching profession and the promotion of positive role models to young people.

The summation of practice in relation to the roles and identities of teachers indicates schooling and initial teacher education impacted by ongoing change driven by social, economic and political factors, tensions relating to the professional standing of teaching and tensions between social perspectives of teachers’ roles and the AITSL Teacher Career Stage Descriptors.

Examination of the incongruities between research and practice in relation to the roles and identities of teachers reveals a snapshot of the current reality in relation to initial teacher education. Whilst initial teacher education in Queensland is driven by social, economic and political factors, tensions relating to the professional standing of teaching and tensions between social perspectives of teachers’ roles and the AITSL Teacher Career Stage Descriptors, research is pointing to the critical importance of recognising caring, affective elements within the roles and identities of teachers. The process of valuing and identifying caring, affective elements within the roles and identities of teachers is a process that directly impacts on initial teacher education. From a professional perspective, this process must begin with a re-evaluation of the entry requirements into ITE programs. Re-evaluation of the entry requirements into ITE programs has been identified in the findings of the TEMAG report (Craven, et al., 2014, p.16), which states:
There are diverse views regarding selection of initial teacher education students and there is strong support for the use of sophisticated processes to select the students who will make the best teachers.

High-performing education systems screen initial teacher education students against criteria they believe will make the best teachers, including academic capability, literacy and numeracy skills and personal characteristics.

As a result of these findings, the TEMAG report, (Craven, et al., 2014, p.17) recommended:

Higher education providers select the best candidates into teaching using sophisticated approaches that ensure initial teacher education students possess the required academic skills and personal characteristics to become a successful teacher.

The ‘sophisticated approaches’ employed to identify the ‘personal characteristics to become a successful teacher’ have the potential to be addressed in a number of ways. One response has been the Teacher Capability Assessment Tool (TCAT) developed by the Melbourne Graduate School of Education. This is a tool designed specifically for assessing Australian preservice teachers, and is currently used by a number of ITE providers (“TCAT,” 2017). The TCAT website (“TCAT,” 2017) reports:

The assessments within the tool focus on tests of ability (such as literacy, numeracy and spatial reasoning), and assessments of your disposition, personal characteristics, communication style, ethics, and cultural sensitivity and awareness in relation to a being a teaching student and as a future teacher professional.

The TCAT provides student feedback reports, which may assist them to set individual goals relevant to work placement and preparation for teaching practice. TCAT data can also assist in planning and fine-tuning of the course offerings to help better prepare candidates for classroom teaching.

A second response could potentially be through employing a similar tool to the TCAT. The CASPer test is in wide use across the United States for assessing applicants to nursing and medical programs (“CASPer Test,” 2017). An equivalent
tool to CASPer is the GAMSAT test used to assist in the selection of students for entry into graduate medical programs in Australia, the UK and Ireland. The CASPer website (“CASPer Test,” 2017) reports:

The CASPer test is an online screening tool designed to more evaluate key personal and professional characteristics that make for successful students and graduates. CASPer increases fairness in applicant evaluation by providing admissions and selection committees with a reliable measure of traits like professionalism, ethics, communication, and empathy.

Utilisation of the TCAT, or an amended “teaching” version of the CASPer/GAMSAT tests, would support the TEMAG recommendation that, “education students possess the required academic skills and personal characteristics to become a successful teacher” (Craven, et al., 2014, p.17).

8.1.4 Finding One

Secondary preservice teachers enter initial teacher education programs with particular perspectives of the roles and identities of teachers. Their initial perspectives of teachers’ roles and identities are content focussed, and formed through their own schooling experiences and social images of teachers.

8.1.5 Finding Two

Following a Supervised Professional Experience (SPE) placement, secondary preservice teachers’ perspectives of the roles and identities of teachers expand to incorporate additional teacher capacities to:

- Practise positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context.
- Demonstrate care and nurturing for students and young people.
- Demonstrate consistency and predictability in their professional actions, expectations and relationships with students.
- Demonstrate the capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm.
- Demonstrate altruistic motivations for working with students and young people.
- Demonstrate a positive role model for students and young people.
8.1.6 Finding Three

There exist incongruities between current research and practice in relation to the roles and identities of teachers, particularly in the affective areas of teacher professional relationships, care, role modelling and altruism.

8.2 Implications and Recommendations

After reflecting on the participants’ perspectives and responses that they shared, I propose a number of recommendations for policy makers and educators in the field of initial teacher education. These are:

- It is recommended that teacher-employing bodies continue to recognize, value and promote the deeply humanistic nature of teaching, and the centrality of this feature in the role of a teacher.

- It is recommended that Initial Teacher Education institutions recognize, value and promote the importance and centrality of professional relationships, enthusiasm for working with young people and a capacity for altruism, by embedding these aspects in the development of their preservice teacher programs.

- It is recommended that Initial Teacher Education institutions employ a sophisticated process, such as the TCAC, to assist in determining the capacity of program applicants to maintain positive professional relationships with students, and the applicants’ capacity for empathy and altruistic actions.

- It is recommended that Initial Teacher Education institutions continue to embrace a holistic view of the preservice teacher development, by reference to the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework, in order to better prepare preservice teachers for their transition through initial teacher education and into the teaching profession.

Several implications arise from the four recommendations presented in this section. These are:

- The richness of the humanistic responses provided by participants in this study suggests that teaching clearly remains a profession which attracts caring individuals who are genuinely committed to the best educational and social outcomes for young people. Governmental and public calls for higher levels of demonstrated academic ability for entry into ITE programs, as a response to
perceived poor student performance in PISA, TIMSS, NAPLAN and similar tests must be balanced against the holistic roles that all teachers play in schools.

- The AITSL Proficient Teacher Career Stage Descriptors were examined in Chapter 7 of this thesis. The examination highlighted that whilst the stage descriptors were highly relevant to describing many of the easily observed roles of secondary teachers at the Graduate and Proficient stages, they also appeared markedly mechanistic in nature; deficient in reference to the deeply humanistic relationship in that is manifest within the teacher/student dynamic. It may be necessary to expand the descriptors to include explicit descriptors that describe the affective aspects of a teacher’s role.

- One of the recommendations of this thesis is that Initial Teacher Education institutions employ a sophisticated process, such as the TCAC, to assist in determining the capacity of program applicants to maintain positive professional relationships with students, and the applicants’ capacity for empathy and altruistic actions. This recommendation does not suggest that the TCAC or similar test is used as a gatekeeping test (as the documentation on the TCAC clearly refers to the longitudinal nature of the TCAC process). The implications for the introduction of the TCAC, or similar, tests are that ongoing monitoring of the affective capacities of preservice teachers is required, in a similar manner to the monitoring of academic capacities.

- The Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework presented in this thesis provides a substantive framework for initial teacher educators at the University of the Sunshine Coast. The Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework has been developed in a micro setting of one regional university, with a particular cohort of preservice teachers (as referred to in earlier chapters of this thesis). More extensive research will be required to determine the relevance and applicability of this framework in other regional or urban universities. This raises the possibility of a longitudinal study to evaluate the validity of the framework with other secondary preservice teacher cohorts.

- A final implication that is raised from the findings of this study is that of measuring teacher effectiveness. As mentioned earlier, there are regular Governmental and public calls for higher levels of demonstrated academic ability for entry into ITE programs, questions regarding the reasons for
perceived poor student performance in PISA, TIMMS, NAPLAN and similar tests, and occasional populist calls for a ‘back to basics’ approach to teaching – where the roles of teachers in school becomes one of transmission of facts and governance of appropriate classroom behaviour. Measuring teacher effectiveness is often achieved by reference to NAPLAN scores, where comparisons can be made between states, between ‘like schools’ and within schools. In light of the findings of this thesis regarding the importance and centrality of the affective aspects of the roles of secondary teachers in schools, it would seem justified to measure teacher effectiveness in the affective domain of their roles (Huebner, 2010). One tool that goes part-way towards answering this need is the Social-Emotional Wellbeing (SEW) Survey developed by the Australian Council of Educational Research (ACER) (“Social-Emotional Wellbeing (SEW) Survey,” 2017). The ACER website states:

Students’ academic competence is frequently measured. However, many schools want to gauge whether students make progress on less tangible qualities such as social and emotional growth. ACER offers schools the opportunity to survey their students and receive a report on a wide variety of social, emotional and, behavioural outcomes of their student population.

ACER points out that SEW Survey report data may be used in a comparative nature, in a similar manner to how deidentified NAPLAN data is currently used to compare like schools. If this occurred, there may be the possibility of a more holistic understanding of student success and teacher effectiveness.

8.3 Thesis Conclusions

This thesis was undertaken to investigate the perspectives of preservice teachers in relation to the roles and identities of secondary school teachers in Queensland, and to generate theory about the same. A detailed literature review into Queensland state schooling, preservice teacher education in Queensland and teacher role and identity development identified what researchers have reported on these topics to date. A research methodology based on Grounded Theory interrogated the perspectives of secondary preservice teachers, providing a substantial amount of
empirical data. Following a detailed analysis of the data, three core propositions were developed. These propositions are:

- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to develop and maintain positive professional relationships with young people both inside and outside of the classroom context.

- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess subject area knowledge and a capacity to teach effectively and with enthusiasm.

- It is the perspective of preservice teachers that the role of the secondary school teacher incorporates a fundamental capacity to possess altruistic motivations for working with young people.

These three core propositions provided the central component of the Preservice Teacher Role Identity Framework, which provides a comprehensive conceptualisation of the linear progression of the preservice teacher within an initial teacher education program, and their transition into the profession.

The thesis offered three main findings that emerged from analysis of the data from the research, supported by specific research drawn from the literature. From these findings, a range of implications was addressed, and several recommendations for both policy and practice were presented. The findings that have been presented in this thesis have the ability to inform initial teacher education programs at the University of the Sunshine Coast, and potentially similar teacher education programs offered by other ITE providers. If the findings of this thesis can be realised at an institutional level, it can be argued that the affective capacities of secondary preservice teachers at the University of the Sunshine Coast will be increased. It is envisioned that this will, in turn, strengthen the teaching profession in Queensland, resulting in a cohort of 21st century teachers who embody the ideals of teaching as a caring profession.
## Appendix A  De-Identified Research Participants

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Appendix B  Research Instruments


1. Can you tell me about your personal school background…starting with your primary schooling and then your secondary schooling? Can you tell me about that?
   ● Where did you go to school? How long at each school? Did you enjoy your schooling experiences or not enjoy them? Why? Are there any teachers or particular schooling experiences that you remember that stand out for you? What do they stand out? Can you tell me about that?

2. Looking back at your secondary schooling experiences, what did you see as the roles of your teachers? Can you tell me about that?
   ● Were they instructional only, or a mix of instructional/pastoral? Can you give some examples? Do you have any feelings as to the entirety of their role? Can you tell me about that?

3. Now that you are a preservice teacher, how do you see your role as a teacher in a secondary school? Can you expand and give reasons?

4. From your current perspective, do you see the roles of primary and secondary teachers as being the same or somewhat different? If different, in what way? Can you tell me about that?


1. Now that you have experienced a Supervised Professional Experience placement, can you tell me something about the roles that your mentor teacher played?
   ● Can you tell me about your mentor teacher’s teaching roles? Pastoral care roles? Extra-curricular roles?
2. Were there things that you observed that you thought were roles outside of your initial perspectives of what a teacher does? Can you tell me about them?

3. Were there times when students approached your teacher from a person or non-school point of view? Can you tell me about that?

4. As a preservice teacher, what roles did you see yourself playing during your Supervised Professional Experience? Can you tell me about that?

5. Did you find yourself referring back to any of your own secondary teachers or schooling experiences during your Supervised Professional Experience? Can you tell me about that?
   - This may include thinking back to significant teachers, modelling teaching styles from your own student experiences etc. Can you tell me about that?
     Did that make you feel comfortable/uncomfortable?

6. Do you see teachers as having one main role or a multi-role function? Can you tell me about that?
# Appendix C  USC SPE Code of Conduct

## Code of Conduct

For education program students in professional learning sites

When at any education professional learning (workplace learning) site, students are expected to observe the highest standards and meet expectations in the following areas:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal presentation</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adhere to the professional dress and grooming standards of the professional learning site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintain high standards of personal hygiene</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collegiability</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Show a pleasant and personable demeanour at all times</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engage positively with all members of staff at the professional learning site, and adopt a collaborative approach at all times</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note and observe the customs, practices and traditions of the department(s) to which you are assigned, and the whole school or institution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comply with the expectations on staff as found in different areas of the professional learning site, such as duties, meetings and professional development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manage emotional tensions with appropriate behaviour and maturity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify and make use of the appropriate channels of redress for any grievance that may arise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not engage in public criticism of any colleague, be they another student teacher, your mentor(s), other staff member, or of the University and its staff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of resources</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respect the intellectual property of all materials supplied for your use or personal by mentor(s) or other colleagues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comply with supervised professional learning site policies and procedures regarding the use of audio-visual, library, sporting and other resources; and respect the budgetary limitations of the professional learning site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure that multiple copies of materials are prepared well in advance, and at an appropriate time, to avoid congestion at facilities provided for the professional learning site staff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offer your personal resources to mentors and their colleagues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoid using professional learning site resources for personal business; but, if absolutely necessary, you should seek appropriate permission</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policies and legislation</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Be familiar, and comply with, all professional learning site institutional policies, rules and regulations at all times</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be familiar, and comply with, all EQ, QSA and other systemic policies at all times</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be familiar, and comply with, all Queensland State legislation with regard to early childhood settings, schools, teachers, teacher-student relations and other relevant areas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be familiar and comply with, all requirements pertaining to duty-of-care and the exercise of professional responsibilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professionalism</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commit completely to the timings of the professional learning site and the supervised professional experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report any conflict of interest that may arise with regard to your supervised professional experience at a professional learning site and any personal, familial or financial interests that may arise prior to your supervised professional experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observe university and professional learning site requirements for attendance and procedures for unavoidable absence. In particular, you must inform the appropriate person(s) if you are absent for medical or other reasons, in good time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate the highest standards of punctuality and time-management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thoroughly prepare for all aspects of supervised professional experience as expected, including documenting regularly proposed and implemented activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actively participate in the life of the professional learning site/community</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by shadowing your mentor(s) at all appropriate times</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by willingly undertaking all professional learning site-related duties as requested</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by showing initiative in offering your services to co-curricular activities, duties and other opportunities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I have read, understand and agree to comply with this Code of Conduct during Professional Learning (Supervised Professional Experience and Wider Field Experience) for the duration of my Education Program.  

Name: ___________________________  
Student Number: ______________________  

Signature: ___________________________  
Date: _______________________________  
I am completing EDU ___________ this semester

Faculty of Science, Health and Education | Teacher Education Professional Learning Office | Email: educationWPL@usq.edu.au
Appendix D  University of Adelaide Human Ethics Approval

18 March 2010

Professor TL Aspland
School of Education

Dear Professor Aspland

PROJECT NO:  Preservice teachers' changing perspectives of the nature of the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland: An interpretivist study
H-042-2010

I write to advise you that I have approved the above project on behalf of the Human Research Ethics Committee. Please refer to the enclosed endorsement sheet for further details and conditions that may be applicable to this approval.

Approval is current for one year. The expiry date for this project is: 31 March 2011

Where possible, participants taking part in the study should be given a copy of the Information Sheet and the signed Consent Form to retain.

Please note that any changes to the project which might affect its continued ethical acceptability will invalidate the project's approval. In such cases an amended protocol must be submitted to the Committee for further approval. It is a condition of approval that you immediately report anything which might warrant review of ethical approval including (a) serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants (b) proposed changes in the protocol; and (c) unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project. It is also a condition of approval that you inform the Committee, giving reasons, if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.

A reporting form is available from the Committee's website. This may be used to renew ethical approval or report on project status including completion.

Professor Garrett Cullity
Convenor
Human Research Ethics Committee
Appendix E  University of the Sunshine Coast Human Ethics Approval

Jodie Thomas  
Secretary, Human Research Ethics Committee

February 26, 2008

Office of Research
S/08/137

Dr Tania Aspland and Mr Kenneth Young
Faculty of Science, Health and Education

Telephone 07 5459 4574
Facsimile 07 5459 4727
Email jthomas2@usc.edu.au

Dear Tania and Kenneth

EXPEDITED ETHICS APPROVAL FOR RESEARCH PROJECT – Preservice teachers’ perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland: an interpretivist study (Project S/08/137)

This letter is to confirm that on 22 February 2008, following review of the application for ethics approval of the research project, *Preservice teachers’ perspectives of the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland: an interpretivist study* (Project S/08/137), the Chairperson of the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Sunshine Coast granted expedited ethics approval for the project.

The period of ethics approval is from 22 February 2008 to 31 December 2010.

Could you please note that the ethics approval number for the project is HREC: [S/08/137].

The conditions of approval for this project are that you:

1. conduct the research project strictly in accordance with the research proposal submitted and granted ethics approval, including any amendments required to be made to the proposal by the Human Research Ethics Committee (except as subsequently amended and approved by the Committee or approved by delegated authority exercised by the Chairperson or a Sub-committee); and

2. inform the Human Research Ethics Committee immediately of anything which may warrant review of ethics approval of the research project, including:
   - serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants;
   - proposed changes in the protocol;
   - unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project; and

(A written report of any adverse occurrence or unforeseen event that might affect the continued ethical acceptability of the research project must be submitted to the Chairperson of the Human Research Ethics Committee by no later than the next working day after recognition of an adverse occurrence/event.)
Appendix F  Information for Research Participants

Faculty of the Professions
School of Education

Information for Research Participants

This letter is an invitation to participate in a research project I am conducting as part of my PhD degree in the Faculty of the Professions, School of Education at the University of Adelaide, South Australia, under the supervision of Professor Tania Aspland. The title of my research project is “Preservice Teachers’ changing perspectives of the nature of the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland: An Interpretivist Study”. I would like to provide you with more information about this project, which explores the ways in which early-career educators, during their university study, view the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland.

The purpose of this research project is to develop theory associated with the perspectives that preservice teachers’ hold regarding the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland. Knowledge and information generated from this study may help to inform the development and direction of teacher education programs at USC and similarly assist colleagues at other universities in Australia which provide teacher education programs.

I wish to connect with preservice secondary school teachers who are engaged in education programs at the University of the Sunshine Coast and to invite them to participate in this research project. During the research project, I will be conducting a series of interviews with preservice secondary school teachers to gather their stories regarding the roles of secondary teachers in Queensland. At the end of this research project the publication of a thesis will share the knowledge from this study with other teacher educators.

Participation in this research project is completely voluntary. Each participant will make their own independent decision as to whether or not they would like to ultimately be involved. All participants will be informed and reminded of their rights to participate or withdraw before any interview, without prejudice, or at any time in the study. If any adverse affects do occur as a result of the study, the university will provide three sessions of counselling at no expense to the participant.

To support the findings of this study, quotations and excerpts from the interviews will be used labelled with pseudonyms to protect the identity of the participants. Names of participants will not appear in the thesis or reports resulting from this study. Participants will not be identifiable, and only described by gender and as a preservice teacher. All paper field notes collected will be retained locked in my office and in a secure cabinet in Room 2:13 Building C at the University of the Sunshine Coast. All paper notes will be confidentially destroyed after five years. Further, all electronic data will be stored indefinitely on a DVD with no personal identifiers. Finally, only my supervisor, Professor Tania Aspland, from the University of Adelaide and myself will have access to these materials. There are no known or anticipated risks to participants in this study.

I would like to assure you that this study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through the Human Research Ethics Committee, University of the Sunshine Coast and the Human Research Ethics Committee, Research Ethics and Compliance Unit of The University of Adelaide. The University of Adelaide ethics approval number for the project is H-042-2010. If you have any comments or concerns with this study, please feel free to contact the Secretary, Human Research Ethics Committee in the Research Ethics and Compliance Unit of The University of Adelaide on (08) 83036028.

If you have any questions regarding this study or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participation, please contact me at (07) 54594808 or by email to kyoung@usc.edu.au. You may also contact my supervisor, Professor Tania Aspland by email to tania.aspland@acu.edu.au.

I hope that the results of my research project will be beneficial to The University of the Sunshine Coast and other universities in Australia involved in teacher education, as well as the broader research community. I very much look forward to speaking with you and thank you in advance for your assistance with this project.

Mr. Kenneth Young
Lecturer in Education
Faculty of Science, Health and Education
University of the Sunshine Coast
Tel: (07) 5459 4808
Email: kyoung@usc.edu.au
THE UNIVERSITY OF ADELAIDE HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

STANDARD CONSENT FORM
FOR PEOPLE WHO ARE PARTICIPANTS IN A RESEARCH PROJECT

1. I, ……………………………………………………………… (please print name)
   consent to take part in the research project entitled: “Preservice Teachers’ changing
   perspectives of the nature of the roles of secondary school teachers in Queensland: An
   Interpretivist Study”.

2. I acknowledge that I have read the attached Information Sheet entitled: “Information for
   Research Participants”.

3. I have had the project, so far as it affects me, fully explained to my satisfaction by the research
   worker. My consent is given freely.

4. Although I understand that the purpose of this research project is to improve the quality of
   teacher education, it has also been explained that my involvement may not be of any benefit to
   me.

5. I have been given the opportunity to have a member of my family or a friend present while the
   project was explained to me.

6. I have been informed that, while information gained during the study may be published, I will
   not be identified and my personal results will not be divulged.

7. I am aware that I should retain a copy of this Consent Form, when completed, and the attached
   Information Sheet.

   …………………………………………………………………………………………………...
   (signature)   (date)

WITNESS

I have described to ……………………………………………………… (name of subject)
the nature of the research to be carried out. In my opinion she/he understood the explanation.

Status in Project: ……………………………………………………………………………

Name: …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………………………...
   (signature)   (date)
Appendix H  Final SPE Report Form

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FORM TO BE COMPLETED ON WILS ONLINE – INSTRUCTIONS TO BE PROVIDED

EDU616 Final Report Form

School of Education

FINAL REPORT: EDU616
(Primary & Secondary)
Professional Learning: Professional Practice 2

NB: If the student has had more than one Supervising Teacher, only one collaborative report will be required.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Placement Particulars</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preservice Teacher’s Name:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dates (full duration of professional experience):</td>
<td>Start Date:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dates (full duration of professional experience):</td>
<td>End Date:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Name:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Address:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of days (including pre-placement days):</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School context: (Metro, Provincial, Rural, Low socio-economic community, Indigenous community, Other)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Phase:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum specialisation (enter NA if not applicable):</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class size (number of students in professional experience class):</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom context (where applicable): students with a disability, Indigenous students, culturally and linguistically diverse students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of Prior Experience

Strengths identified in your previous teaching professional experience(s):

Teacher professional experience(s) you have completed in rural and remote locations:

Teaching professional experience(s) you have completed with Aboriginal groups or Torres Strait Islander communities:

Teaching professional experience(s) you have completed with students with a disability:

Assessment Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exceeding Graduate Level (E)</td>
<td>Consistent evidence of knowledge, practice and engagement that exceeds the APST descriptors at the Graduate Career Stage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Level (G)</td>
<td>Consistent evidence of knowledge, practice and engagement that demonstrates the APST descriptors at the Graduate Career Stage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Towards Graduate Level (D)</td>
<td>Awareness of the description at the APST Graduate Career Stage but demonstrates inconsistent knowledge, practice and engagement at this level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below Graduate Level (B)</td>
<td>Little or no evidence of knowledge, practice and engagement or awareness that meet the description at the APST Graduate Career Stage.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reporting Cluster 1: Planning effectively – preparation for teaching

Examples of evidence

- Artifacts that have been modified by the preservice teacher to suit the needs of the class such as:
  - Unit lesson plans and resources
  - School and system documents

Documented feedback and evaluation of planning that reflects:

- Curriculum content, sequencing, scaffolding, learning activities, differentiation and teaching strategies
- The preservice teacher's written reflections

Below Graduate Level (B), Developing Towards Graduate Level (D), Graduate Level (G), Exceeding Graduate Level (E)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Preservice Teacher</th>
<th>Australian Professional Standards (APST)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of physical, social and intellectual development and characteristics of students and how these may affect learning.</td>
<td>APST 1.1</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate knowledge of teaching strategies that are responsive to the learning strengths and needs of students from diverse linguistic, cultural, religious and socio-economic backgrounds.</td>
<td>APST 1.3</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of strategies for differentiating teaching to meet the specific learning needs of students across the full range of abilities.</td>
<td>APST 1.5</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organize content into an effective learning and teaching sequence.</td>
<td>APST 2.2</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use curriculum, assessment and reporting knowledge to design learning sequences and lesson plans.</td>
<td>APST 2.3</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know and understand literacy and numeracy teaching strategies and their application in teaching areas.</td>
<td>APST 2.5</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create learning goals that provide achievable challenges for students of varying abilities and socioeconomic status.</td>
<td>APST 1.1</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan lesson sequences using knowledge of student learning, content and effective teaching strategies.</td>
<td>APST 1.2</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please leave blank if unable to assess in the school context.</td>
<td>APST 1.6</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please provide comments about knowledge, practice and engagement of preservice teacher in relation to this section. Comments are required if ‘Developing towards graduate level’ (D) or ‘Below Developing towards graduate level’ (B) has been identified for any of the descriptors.

Reporting Cluster 2: Teaching effectively – enactment of teaching

Examples of evidence

- Artifacts such as differentiated activity sheets, resources, evidence of student learning including pre- and post-tests, and annotated samples of student work
- A supervising teacher’s observation notes including comments on the range and effectiveness of demonstrated teaching strategies, student engagement, content knowledge, communication skills and use of resources including ICTs
- Documented feedback and reflections about planning including curriculum content, sequencing, scaffolding, learning activities and teaching strategies
- The preservice teacher’s reflections and application of supervising teacher feedback

Below Graduate Level (B), Developing Towards Graduate Level (D), Graduate Level (G), Exceeding Graduate Level (E)
The Preservice Teacher:  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Australian Professional Standard (APST)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the concepts, substance and structure of the content and teaching strategies of the teaching area.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implement teaching strategies for using ICT to expand curriculum learning opportunities for students.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Include a range of teaching strategies.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate knowledge of a range of resources, including ICT, that engage students in their learning.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate a range of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to support student engagement.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate broad knowledge of strategies that can be used to evaluate teaching programs to improve student learning.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek and apply constructive feedback from supervisors and teachers to improve teaching practice.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please leave blank if unable to assess in the school context.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please provide comments about knowledge, practice and engagement of preservice teacher in relation to this section. Comments are required if Developing towards graduate level (B) or Below Developing towards graduate level (E) has been identified for any of the descriptors.

---

**Reporting Cluster 3: Managing effectively – create safe and supportive learning**

**Examples of evidence**

- Artifacts such as annotated school policies, classroom organisation notes, classroom rules, classroom management plans, and individual student behaviour plans.
- A supervising teacher’s observation notes including comments on communication skills, behaviour management strategies, inclusive participation and engagement.
- Documented reflections and records of professional conversations.
- The Preservice teacher’s written reflections and application of supervising teacher feedback.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Below Graduate Level (B), Developing Towards Graduate Level (D), Graduate Level (G), Exceeding Graduate Level (E)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| The Preservice Teacher:  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Australian Professional Standard (APST)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify strategies to support inclusive student participation and engagement in classroom activities.</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Demonstrate the capacity to organise classroom activities and provide clear directions.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate knowledge of practical approaches to manage challenging behaviour.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please provide comments about knowledge, practice and engagement of preservice teacher in relation to this section. Comments are required if Developing towards graduate level (B) or Below Developing towards graduate level (E) has been identified for any of the descriptors.

---

**Reporting Cluster 4: Assessing and recording learning**

**Examples of evidence**

- Artifacts such as assessment tasks and instructions, tests, guides to making judgements, written feedback to students, evidence of student learning including pre- and post-tests, completed worksheets, completed tasks, moderation marking notes, and teacher sample student responses or whole and lesson plans.
- A supervising teacher’s observation notes including comments on formal and informal feedback, questioning techniques and assessment.
- The pre-service teacher’s written reflections and application of supervising teacher feedback.
- Data gathering tools such as checklists developed or adapted by pre-service teacher.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Below Graduate Level (B), Developing Towards Graduate Level (D), Graduate Level (G), Exceeding Graduate Level (E)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| The Preservice Teacher:  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Australian Professional Standard (APST)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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### The Preservice Teacher:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Australian Professional Standard (APST)</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>F</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate knowledge of the principles of professional teaching and learning.</td>
<td>APST 5.1</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Demonstrate the ability to design and implement effective learning experiences.</td>
<td>APST 5.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Demonstrate the ability to assess and monitor student progress.</td>
<td>APST 5.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Demonstrate the ability to reflect on teaching practice.</td>
<td>APST 5.4</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Demonstrate the ability to engage in professional learning and development.</td>
<td>APST 5.5</td>
<td>☐</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Please provide comments about knowledge, practice and engagement of preservice teacher in relation to this section. Comments are required if ‘Developing towards graduate level’ (G) or ‘Below Developing towards graduate level’ (F) has been identified for any of the descriptors.

### Reporting Cluster 5: Professional conduct

**Examples of evidence:**

- Artifacts such as annotated school and system policies and procedures and communication with parents/careers.
- A supervising teacher’s observations including comments on understanding and adherence to legislative requirements.
- Documentation of participation in school activities including duties, staff meetings and professional development.
- Professionalism including punctuality, dress and interpersonal communication.
- Demonstration of engagement with school staff and external professionals.

### Below Graduate Level (B), Developing Towards Graduate Level (D), Graduate Level (G), Exceeding Graduate Level (E)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Preservice Teacher:</th>
<th>Australian Professional Standard (APST)</th>
<th>E</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Describe strategies that support students’ wellbeing and safety while learning within school and/or system, curriculum and legislative requirements.</td>
<td>APST 6.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Demonstrate an understanding of the relevant issues and the strategies available to support the safe, responsible and ethical use of ICT in learning and teaching.</td>
<td>APST 6.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Understand and apply the key principles described in codes of ethics and conduct for the teaching profession.</td>
<td>APST 7.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Understand the relevant legislative, administrative and organisational policies and processes required for teachers according to school stage.</td>
<td>APST 7.2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the role of external professional and community representatives in broadening teachers’ professional knowledge and practice.</td>
<td>APST 7.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Please leave blank if unable to assess in the school context. Understand strategies for working effectively, sensitively and confidentially with parents/careers.</td>
<td>APST 7.3</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Please provide comments about knowledge, practice and engagement of preservice teacher in relation to this section. Comments are required if ‘Developing towards graduate level’ (G) or ‘Below Developing towards graduate level’ (F) has been identified for any of the descriptors.

### Section 6: Excluded Descriptors

All descriptors can be assessed in a professional experience setting; however, to focus the final professional experience the following descriptors will be assessed in coursework and do not require assessment in the final professional experience:

- Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of research into how students learn and the implications for teaching.
- Demonstrate an understanding of the role of the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers in identifying professional learning needs.
- Understand the relevant and appropriate sources of professional learning for teachers.
- Demonstrate an understanding of the rationale for continuing professional learning and the implications for improved student learning.

### Section 7: Overall comments

Please use this space to describe the preservice teacher’s overall strengths and areas for development.

Preservice teacher response to feedback and suggestions:
Section 8: Moderation
Moderation: Please identify who has moderated the assessment of the pre-service teacher.
Moderation may be completed through classroom visit/s or as a panel discussing the evidence and awareness demonstrated by the Pre-service teacher. Moderation participants are identified via the signatures immediately below:

Site Coordinator Name:

Save Site Coordinator / Electronically Sign & SUBMIT

Higher education institution (HEI) representative’s name (Professional Learning Liaison):

Save Higher education institution (HEI) representative’s name (Professional Learning Liaison) / Electronically Sign & SUBMIT

Other moderator name 1 and position if applicable

Save Other moderator name if applicable / Electronically Sign & SUBMIT

Other moderator name 2 and position if applicable

Save Other moderator name if applicable / Electronically Sign & SUBMIT

Other moderator name 3 and position if applicable

Save Other moderator name if applicable / Electronically Sign & SUBMIT

Section 9: Final Signatures
Each of the signatories must retain a copy of this report for their records.
Each of the signatories can access this report once submitted through WILS online for their records.
The pre-service teacher’s signature indicates they have sighted the completed report.

Save / Sign / Submit

Site Supervising Teacher 1 Name:

Site Supervising Teacher 2 Name if applicable:

Site Supervising Teacher 3 Name if applicable:

If there is more than one supervising teacher, all supervising teachers’ names are required to be recorded in the boxes above. This is important for accuracy purposes, so we can cross-reference the details once a payment claim is received, thus ensuring the correct Supervising Teachers receive payment. One supervising teacher only is required to click on the “Electronically Sign & Submit” button below to sign on behalf of all supervising teachers and submit the form to USC.

Save Supervising Teacher / Electronically Sign & SUBMIT

Site Coordinator Declaration:
By electronically signing and submitting this form, I agree to the following:
- all supervising teachers of the pre-service teacher listed on this form worked collaboratively in completing this report and/or all supervising teachers agree with the contents of the report.
- the contents of this report are true and accurate.

Save Site Coordinator / Electronically Sign & SUBMIT

Student Name:

Save Student / Electronically Sign & SUBMIT

[Logos and branding]
Appendix I  QCT Code of Ethics for Teachers

We demonstrate **Integrity** by:
- creating and maintaining appropriate professional relationships
- acting with impartiality, truthfulness and honesty

We demonstrate **Dignity** by:
- valuing diversity and treating students equitably and with care and compassion while respecting the uniqueness of family backgrounds
- valuing the effort and potential, and acknowledging the uniqueness, of each student

We demonstrate **Responsibility** by:
- giving priority to the education and welfare of all students in our care
- engaging in ongoing professional development and improving teaching and learning strategies
- working collaboratively and cooperatively with colleagues in the best interests of the education and welfare of our students

We demonstrate **Respect** by:
- acknowledging that relationships with students and their families must be based on mutual respect, trust and where necessary, confidentiality and acknowledging the contribution these qualities make to students’ wellbeing and learning
- acting with educational colleagues and the wider community in ways which enhance the profession

We demonstrate **Justice** by:
- being fair and reasonable
- being committed to the wellbeing of individuals and the community and to the common good
- resolving competing claims of different ethical principles and different interest groups through reflective professional discussion

We demonstrate **Care** by:
- having empathy for and rapport with students and their families and caregivers, colleagues and communities
- committing to students’ wellbeing and learning through the practice of positive influence, professional judgement and empathy in practice
Appendix J  DET Standard of Practice

Introduction

Queensland’s Public Sector Ethics Act 1994 (the Ethics Act), sets out four ethics principles which are fundamental to good public administration. All public sector entities, and their employees, must promote these principles in their internal and external relationships.

Each principle is strengthened by a set of values which describes behaviour that will demonstrate that principle.

The principles and values are equally important.

Public sector ethics principles and values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principles</th>
<th>Values</th>
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</table>
| Integrity and Impartiality | 1.1 Commit to the highest ethical standards  
1.2 Manage conflicts of interest  
1.3 Contribute to public discussion in an appropriate manner  
1.4 Manage participation in external organisations  
1.5 Demonstrate a high standard of workplace behaviour and personal conduct |
| Promoting the public good | 2.1 Commit to excellence in service delivery  
2.2 Ensure appropriate community engagement  
2.3 Work as an integrated service |
| Commitment to the system of government | 3.1 Commit to our roles in public service  
3.2 Maintain appropriate relationships with Ministerial staff  
3.3 Ensure proper communication with Members of Parliament |
| Accountability and transparency | 4.1 Ensure diligence in public administration  
4.2 Ensure transparency in our business dealings  
4.3 Ensure appropriate use of official resources, public property and facilities  
4.4 Ensure appropriate use and disclosure of official information  
4.5 Commit to innovation and continuous performance improvement |

The Code of Conduct for the Queensland Public Service (the Code), which describes how public sector employees are to conduct themselves in delivering services to the Queensland community, is based on the Ethics Act. As well as containing the ethics principles and values, the Code of Conduct contains standards of conduct for each ethics principle.

This Standard of Practice (this Standard) is a departmental publication which supports the Code. It provides further ethical guidance to departmental employees about applying the Code’s principles, values and standards of conduct to our daily work.

The Standard is supported by the department’s Policy Framework.
Appendix K  Code of Conduct for the Queensland Public Service

Code of Conduct

Introducing the Code of Conduct for the Queensland Public Service

We make a difference to the lives of Queenslanders. In return, the people of Queensland ask for and deserve our best efforts in meeting our professional duty and upholding the Code of Conduct. We can all demonstrate ethical leadership in how we perform our role, and show our positive commitment to the people of Queensland, their elected representatives and our colleagues.

Code of Conduct - Ethics Principles
The ethics principles are established in the Public Sector Ethics Act 1994. These fundamental principles of ethical behaviour are essential to robust public sector integrity and accountability.

1. Integrity and impartiality
   - That is: being honest, fair and respectful in every dealing, and being unprejudiced, unbiased and just.

2. Promoting the public good
   - That is: contributing to outcomes that benefit the people of Queensland.

3. Commitment to the system of government
   - That is: respecting the government and its institutions and upholding the law.

4. Accountability and transparency
   - That is: taking responsible actions and decisions that can be explained and easily understood.

Code of Conduct - Values
Each ethics principle is strengthened by a set of values. The values help describe the behaviour that will demonstrate each principle. The values are established in the Public Sector Ethics Act 1994 and are in the Code of Conduct.

Code of Conduct - Standards of Conduct
The Code of Conduct contains standards of conduct under each set of ethics principles and values. The standards of conduct show how we can put the principles and values into practice.

Standard of Practice
Agencies may develop a Standard of Practice to support the Code of Conduct in their agency.

Legislation, policy and procedure
The Code of Conduct supports and is supported by:
- legislation, awards, certified agreements, subsidiary agreements, directives, whole-of-government policies and standards, and
- the policies and procedures of our employing agencies.

www.ethics.qld.gov.au

Queensland Government
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<tr>
<th>Proficient Level</th>
<th>APST (Appendix M)</th>
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**Appendix M**

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Appendix M: APST (Proficient Level)

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<td>D</td>
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Appendix M: APST (Proficient Level)
Bibliography


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Cleverley, J, & Lawry, J (Eds.). (1972). *Australian Education in the Twentieth Century*. Camberwell Victoria Australia: Longman Australia


Rumble, P.(2010). *In serch of the Middle School Teacher:What differentiate the middle school teacher from primary and secondary school teachers.* (PhD Thesis), University of the Sunshine Coast


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