1 Background to Literature Review

The present study grew out of a study (Sexton, 2002) that sought to explore how post-graduate pre-service teachers used prior experiences as students in the classroom to inform how they saw themselves in the role as the teacher. That study investigated what were the influences upon the participating student teachers in images they held of themselves. The participants were requested to think back upon their own schooling, reflect upon why teachers stood out in their memory and then describe how those memories impacted upon their own future self-as-teacher image. One question that consistently arose from the seventeen interviewees was what makes someone a teacher.

Teachers and what they know about their craft have been the focus for social and behavioural researchers for over fifty years (Good & Brophy, 2000; Eisenhart, Shrum, Harding & Cuthbert, 1988). Eisenhart et al. (1988) in their investigation of teachers’ beliefs acknowledged the difficulty in locating a working definition of teachers’ beliefs in the educational research literature. Following an analysis of the approaches other researchers had applied to this term, beliefs were defined by Eisenhart et al. as: a way to describe a relationship between a task, an action, an event, or another person and an attitude of a person toward it (p. 53). Specifically, teachers’ beliefs are those beliefs that relate to what teachers do in the classroom with students and materials (Eisenhart et al., 1988, p. 59).

But just how does one capture and evaluate non-observable components of skill such as beliefs, specifically to this study, beliefs about teaching and self-as-teacher? Kagan (1990) highlighted this in her synthesis of the literature into the methodologies used in eliciting, calibrating and evaluating teacher cognition. After reviewing how this term had been applied, Kagan offered a more refined definition:
As it will be shown in the literature review, the first two parts of this definition, pre-service teachers’ self-reflections and their beliefs about teaching, students and content have yet to be adequately considered by educational researchers. Pre-service teachers are those students enrolled in their first teacher preparation course (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992, p. 37). In 1979 Fenstermacher raised the issue of the emerging importance beliefs would hold in research on teaching. Pajares (1992) carried this issue further in his analysis of sixteen research studies into beliefs concluding that, when specific beliefs were assessed and investigated, they may be the single most important construct in educational research (p. 329). His conclusion was based on the idea that beliefs were not only influential in determining how individuals organise and define teaching tasks but were also strong indicators of behaviour for beginning teachers. The perceptions and beliefs of pre-service teachers act as significant filters for the way knowledge is acquired during teacher training. Specifically for the present study, pre-service teachers enter teacher training with beliefs about how they see themselves in the role of the teacher. They must have opportunities to access those beliefs that have informed their teacher role identity and the type of teacher they do and do not want to become.

1.1 Introduction

As it will be shown any investigation into pre-service teachers requires an exploration and understanding of teacher-student interactions, particularly their own experiences of these interactions as a student. Research about teacher-student interactions is a well-established field of enquiry. Historically, this research has been undertaken and presented from the point of view of the teacher. Two of the most prominent researchers in this area

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1 All operational definitions included in this thesis are referenced with page numbers.
Good and Brophy (2000) revisited an earlier synthesis (Brophy & Good, 1974) of over half a century of work in this area. These interactions were catalogued in an extensive list of causes and consequences ranging from higher praise given to higher socio-economic status students to differentiation based on everything from students' speech characteristics, physical appearance, seating location in the classroom, gender, race, promptness, and handwriting styles to deportment. Good and Brophy (2000) then augmented the initial summary to include another quarter century of research and study into classroom relationships.

Additionally, teacher-student research has seen a redirection in focus away from the teacher to how students themselves perceive and make sense of the educational experience (Weinstein, Marshall, Sharp & Botkin, 1987; Weinstein, 1985, 1983; Weinstein, Marshall, Brattesani & Middlestadt 1982 and Whitfield, 1976). Pre-service teachers as former students have spent more than a decade observing firsthand the role of the teacher. Therefore, it is no revelation that they come into teacher education programs with their own ideas about teaching. Research studies have reported on this in numerous ways, including:

(a) the role of prior knowledge as a filter in teacher education course work (Anderson, Blumenfeld, Pintrich, Clark, Marx & Peterson, 1995; Bird, Anderson, Sullivan & Swidler, 1993; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Powell, 1992 and Kagan, 1992);

(b) the capacity of the teacher education course to change pre-service teacher candidates' beliefs about teaching (Joram & Gabriele, 1998; Von Wright, 1997; McGill, 1995, Nettle, 1994; Kile, 1993; Morine-Dershimer, 1993; Carter, Carre & Bennett, 1993; Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Powell, 1991 and Hollingsworth, 1989);

(c) the inability of the teacher education course to change prior beliefs of teacher education candidates (Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher & James, 2001; White, 2000 and Wubbels, 1992);

(d) the need for teacher educators to know/understand the beliefs teacher candidates bring with them (Taylor, 2006; Reif & Warring, 2002; Raths, 2001; Flores, 2001; Henson,

(e) the impact of a lifetime of schooling on teacher candidates (Conle, 2000; Collary, 1998; Bullough, 1997; Carter & Doyle, 1996, 1995a-b; Goodman, 1988; Britzman, 1986; and Lortie, 1975);

(f) the implications of teacher candidates’ naive/simplistic beliefs about teaching (Stuart & Thurlow, 2000; Weinstein, 1990, 1989 and Clark, 1988); and

(g) the beliefs of teacher candidates about teaching based on prior schooling experience (Vuorikoski, 2001; Minor, Onwuegbuzie & Witcher, 2000; Herbert, Amelia & Williamson, 1998; Richardson, 1996; Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Goodman, 1988 and Nespor, 1987).

That pre-service teachers are the product of their own lifetime of experiences and these life experiences affect not only what they do but also why and how they do it, was recognised in Lortie’s (1975) seminal work, Schoolteacher: A sociological study. Lortie’s work involved only two urban sample populations from over fifty years ago. Neither of them included pre-service teachers nor did his interview protocol involve teacher education (Wideen, Mayer-Smith & Moon, 1998). However, Lortie has provided many researchers since with a theoretical foundation. If teachers have been formed, in part or in whole, by an ‘apprenticeship of observation’ which has moulded their beliefs about teaching then, as a corollary, pre-service teachers have been formed from their ‘apprenticeship of observation’ as they themselves are in the process of becoming teachers.

A further development of this shift from teacher-student interactions to student-teacher interactions has been evident in the works of Schiff and Tatar (2003); Tierno (1996); Galbo and Demetrulias (1996); Babad, Bernieri and Rosenthal (1991); Galbo (1989a-b, 1983); and Galbo, Demetrulias and Crippen (1989) in the recognition of the significant roles teachers play in the lives and development of students. More significant to the present study is
the 1998 Australian Senate Employment, Education and Training Reference Committee Report which quoted an Australian student: *who felt teachers were one of the most important things in your life* (p. 64). It goes on to highlight not only the high level of awareness students held about the role of the teacher but also the value they placed on their teachers (p. 65).

Pre-service teachers’ schooling experiences have resulted in studies, that have explored participants’ beliefs about teachers, students and education. Kagan (1992a) reporting on the implications of research on beliefs further refined the definition offered by Eisenhart et al. (1988) in relation to research on teacher beliefs. Kagan contended that: *beliefs are those tacit and often unconsciously held preconceptions and assumptions about students, classrooms and the academic material to be taught* (p. 65).

These beliefs have been the focus of numerous studies and papers examining how such beliefs are addressed by teacher education programs. Some of these studies included a focus on challenging student teachers’ prior beliefs (Renzaglia, Hutchins & Suzanne, 1997; Anderson & Holt-Reynolds, 1995). Others tracked the changes in beliefs over the length of the initial teacher education course (Greene & Magliaro, 2003; Watzke, 2002; Mahlios, 2002; Minor et al., 2001; Joram & Gabriele, 1998; Von Wright, 1997; Morine-Dershimer, 1993; Carter et al., 1993; Powell, 1991). Additionally, there were those which investigated how initial teacher education could best approach teacher candidates’ prior beliefs to align them more closely to those of the institution or researcher (Raths, 2001; Aldridge & Bobis, 2001; Henson, 2001; Morales, 2000; Bullough, 1997; Joram & Gabriele, 1998; Freppon & MacGillivray, 1996; Tatto, 1995; Anderson et al., 1995; Bird et al., 1993; Wubbels, 1992; Hollingsworth, 1989). Finally, some studies explored the issues of why initial teacher education needs to address teacher candidates’ prior beliefs (Raths, 2001; Henson, 2001; Holt-Reynolds, 2000; Frippon & MacGillivray, 1996; Bird, Anderson, Sullivan & Swidler, 1993; Calderhead, 1991; Brousseau, Book & Byers, 1988; Britzman, 1986).
Similarly, there is a body of research into the effects of pre-service teaching practicum experiences (Schulz, 2005; Moore, 2003; Pittard, 2003; Fung & Chow, 2002; Volante & Earl, 2002; Al-Musawi, 2001; Bray, 1995; Hawkey, 1995; McDermott et al., 1995; Dobbins, 1994; Weinstein, 1990; Goodman, 1988; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981) on student teachers. It has been reported that the beliefs that they entered their programs with about how they saw themselves as the teacher were either reinforced or changed by this experience. Knowles (1992) acknowledged that while some pre-service teachers have sophisticated notions of what it meant to be a teacher others did not, but student teaching was the arena in which whatever teacher role identity held was put to the test. Bray (1995) reported that the student teaching experience represented not only the preliminary step for the developing teacher but also was a critical component in any teacher education program. Dobbins (1994) reported on four third-year undergraduate student teachers and their reflective journey through their final teaching practicum. While the foci of her study were student teachers in disadvantaged schools in South Australia, she detailed their experiences and the impact of these experiences on both the student teacher and mentoring teacher. As shown, this research has tended to focus on either the student teacher socialisation process or the homogenising influence of student teaching on student teachers and not on the pre-service teachers’ beliefs.

In a critique of teacher education programs, Wubbels (1992) acknowledged that pre-service teachers enter education programs with knowledge, attitudes and beliefs based on prior educational experiences. Most importantly for the present study, the critique highlighted research into pre-service teachers’ preconceptions and beliefs as an emerging field of research along with the importance of teacher training institutions knowing more about these student teacher beliefs. However, Wubbels’ primary focus was on how teacher education programs could modify these beliefs once student teachers had entered their respective education programs. Wubbels may have affirmed the importance of teacher educators better understanding the beliefs that
pre-service teachers bring with them. Brookhart and Freeman (1992), as will be shown in the following section, critically examined this issue.

1.2 Critique of research into teacher attributes

Focusing on what knowledge, skills and beliefs entry-level student teachers already possessed was the principal aim of Brookhart and Freeman’s (1992) examination of education research studies. Brookhart and Freeman conducted an ERIC (Educational Resources Information Centre) and journal-by-journal search for all empirical studies in this area. The study aimed to both synthesize and critique the existing body of work on teacher candidate characteristics: knowledge; skills; and most importantly for the present study their beliefs at the earliest stage of professional development, entry into teacher education programs.

Forty-four research studies were identified and located by Brookhart and Freeman that met their study’s two search field criteria: the sample was clearly defined as entering teacher candidates and the variables investigated were not academic subject specific. The studies were summarized citing promising findings, tentative generalizations, subgroup comparisons and contradictory findings, as appropriate.

Four major shortcomings were identified throughout these forty-four studies: an over emphasis on survey methodologies; a single institution design; an inadequate distinction among sub-populations; and an absence of theoretical or historical contexts. Upon conclusion of the analysis, one of the possible questions raised for future research study was: *How do entering teacher candidates’ orientations and beliefs influence their actions as teachers in the classroom settings?* (p. 56). What has changed in the years since this research question was first raised? The most important variables they identified in light of the present study were: the perception of the roles and responsibilities of teachers; how teacher candidates see teaching; and beliefs about teaching.
Since 1992, forty-three studies have been located in the area of teacher cognition dealing with pre-service teachers and their beliefs which have met the same two criteria used by Brookhart and Freeman (1992) (the sample identified as employing entering teacher candidates and variables are academic subject independent). These have been summarised in Table 1, Appendix A, p. 4.

1.2.1 Synthesis studies similar to Brookhart and Freeman (1992)

Three of these forty-three studies Kagan (1992b); Jensen (1998) and White (2000) were synthesis studies. These studies like Brookhart and Freeman (1992) sought to explore the existing data meeting specified research study parameters and then reported generalities and trends across the range of included studies.

Kagan’s (1992b) emphasis was primarily on the evolution of teaching skills in pre-service and novice teachers as they reconstructed and modified their personal images of self-as-teacher. The study focused solely on forty learning-to-teach studies published or presented from 1987 to 1991 whose principal objectives included the description of professional growth manifested over time. Of the forty studies reviewed only twenty-seven dealt with pre-service teachers, the remaining thirteen incorporated first-year or beginning teachers. Kagan’s findings centred on confirming the absence of a coherent knowledge base underlying classroom practice and the lack of connection with university course work. Kagan provided a detailed summary of the common themes throughout the studies reviewed relating their significance to current bodies of research. She then employed these findings to infer a new model of professional development for novice teachers based on Fuller’s and Berliner’s models (Fuller & Brown, 1975; Berliner, 1988) of teacher concerns and teacher development, respectively.

Similarly Jensen’s (1998) main focus was to delineate the implications for better teacher education practices of educational institutions. However, there were three limiting factors:
1. the search for relevant published studies used only the four-year period 1992 to 1996;
2. the search utilised only five education journals; and
3. the search excluded studies only presented at meetings.

This resulted in only sixteen studies being included. Findings were grouped into five themes focused on general orientation to teaching and education, perspectives on diversity and multicultural education, primary to secondary comparisons, gender contrast and contrasts between those participants she defined as traditional or non-traditional student teachers. Within each theme a brief synopsis of the relevant studies were presented. In two of the themes, gender contrast and traditional to non-traditional contrasts, only one study was presented for analysis. Finally, while general implications were drawn from these themes to provide teacher educators with some patterns in pre-service teacher conceptions; Jensen stated:

Although some patterns emerge within each theme, teacher educators must exercise caution in generalising these findings to all teacher candidates. Within some studies reported here, preservice teachers’ conceptions of teaching and learning vary considerably (pp. 4-5).

Jensen concluded that teacher educators tend to approach teacher education from one of three viewpoints: a challenge providing candidates with feedback about beliefs to confront dysfunctional views; a redirection of candidates’ beliefs rather than a direct challenge; and awareness-raising because pre-service teacher’s beliefs are so deeply ingrained. However, whatever approach was taken the implications were the same: teacher educators needed to attend to both the meanings pre-service teachers made of course content material and how this affected what they were learning.

The research findings cited in White’s (2000) study were only to establish a foundation in the usage of beliefs in education and then progress into pre-service teachers’ beliefs about teaching, learning, learners, and content in problematic classroom situations. All studies were used solely to support and defend the researcher’s theory that epistemology provided the primary explanatory framework for pre-service teachers’ beliefs. Her study provided
the supporting evidence needed from the literature for her espoused theory. These limitations were recognised explicitly in three instances: *This paper is not a finished product* (p. 2); *it is my intention to make a case for that link* (the association between epistemology and beliefs has not been established empirically) *in this paper* (p. 3); and White then concluded her study by offering it: *as a way to begin a conversation not as a formula for ‘fixing’ the beliefs of pre-service teachers* (p.21). This ‘conversation’ concluded that pre-service teachers needed help in moving closer to rational beliefs about teaching and being the teacher. This ‘help’ she believed needed to be a three-pronged approach of epistemology, argumentation and metacognition.

White’s study like Kagan’s (1992b) and Jensen’s (1998) provided thoughtful and insightful reviews of research; however, they were limited by their respective research study inclusion criteria. Brookhart and Freeman provided a thorough and well-researched synthesis of all locatable studies relating to pre-service teachers’ attributes at the entry stage to their teacher education course up to 1992. These researchers established what had been done in this area, examined significant findings and provided an analysis of common and limiting research flaws. After detailing what had been done, their synthesis then set out potentially rewarding research areas to be considered by future researchers interested in this area.

1.3 Research shift from quantitative to qualitative methodology

As stated, one of the four major limitations in research reviewed by Brookhart and Freeman (1992) was the need for a shift in research methodologies. There has been a growing trend in research away from quantitative observations of the classroom and into the qualitative life experiences of both students and teachers. One area of this research into prior schooling experience has resulted in a broadened exploration of pre-service teachers and their beliefs. Pre-service teachers are not just simply formed or socialised by their lifetime of experiences; they are active participants in interpreting these experiences. As such the focus of this field of research
has shifted from what is going on in the classroom to what went on in the classroom from the point of view of the participants. What do pre-service teachers remember about their prior schooling experiences? Why do they remember these specific events or people? Do their interpretations of those prior experiences inform their impending role as a teacher?

Pre-service teachers enter teacher education programs with powerful and significant preconceptions that have developed out of their own personal histories (Finnie, 2004; Doecke, 2002; Richardson, 1996; Carter, 1994; Pajares, 1992; Knowles & Holt-Reynolds, 1991; Britzman, 1986; Buckmann & Schwille, 1983). It is these personal histories and prior experiences that have moulded their educational thinking (Knowles & Holt-Reynolds, 1991, p. 89), and that pre-service teachers use directly to predict their own future teaching practice. Pre-service teachers enter teacher education programs with more than their desire to teach. They also bring with them their implicit institutional biographies, those cumulative experiences of school lives (Britzman, 1986, p. 443). Through the interpretations of these prior experiences, prospective teachers enter their education programs with images as to the type of teacher they do and do not want to become (Connelly & Clandinin, 1994).

Lortie (1975) recognized that teachers are in part the result of their life experiences in the classroom. Since then various articles and papers have been written to acknowledge, account for and describe these experiences. These articles and papers tend to focus on those experiences that were influenced by: personal history; reflective thinking; or prior careers.

1.3.1 Studies focused on Personal History

A person’s life experiences have been described using a variety of terms, such as: biographies, life story, life history, and personal narratives. All these descriptive terms look at how one’s own past has influenced one’s own present actions, opinions and beliefs.
Britzman (1989), Knowles (1992) and Flores (2001) described numerous examples of teachers having institutional biographies by citing examples of previous and observed models of teaching, which affected their own actions in the classroom. These teaching models were shown not only to assist teachers but also to hinder their development. Britzman (1986) related how two pre-service teachers made sense of the dilemmas they confronted as they combined their own experience in education and their teacher education with their experience as student teachers in the classroom. Knowles (1992) then related how biography played an important role in how both pre-service teachers and beginning teachers approach their experiences in the classroom as the teacher. Knowles focused his five case studies on the importance of gaining access to and recognizing prior experience effects on pre-service and beginning teachers’ understanding of their classroom practice. Flores (2001), while reporting on the motivational factors behind fourteen beginning teachers for choosing teaching as a career, provided supporting conclusions to Knowles’ 1992 study. Her findings made reference to prior experiences as students acting as a powerful influence in shaping beginning teachers practices and attitudes towards teaching.

Work in life stories describe how teachers’ previous life experiences and backgrounds help shape their view of teaching (Palmer, 1998; Connelly & Clandinin, 1994, 1990; Goodson, 1992) based on the belief that life is a story that we live. Palmer summarised this most succinctly with his statement; we teach who we are (p. 2). He then supported Goodson’s (1992) belief that in order to first understand something as personal as teaching it was critical to first understand the person. However, Goodson then went on to state just what the distinction was he felt between life history and life story. For him life story was a personal reconstruction of experience while life history began with the life story and sought to provide a wider inter-textual and inter-contextual analysis by seeking corroborating evidence beyond the storyteller’s account. Connelly and Clandinin (1994) clearly stated that for them as teacher educators: telling, retelling and responding to stories both theirs and of their students is the heart of their work (p. 150). Using students’ own stories as means of informing their own practice; Connelly and Clandinin
describe how this collaborative process while not simplistic or easy is necessary as it leads to awakenings, transformations and changes to the teacher, the teacher educator and the students.

Life histories are a relationship of collaboration between storytellers and researchers that focus on lives in context (Smith, 2001; Vuorikoski, 2001; Measer & Sikes, 1992; Goodman, 1988). This collaboration provides new understandings in the world of schooling. Goodman’s (1988) report on twelve primary student teachers is a good example of the studies conducted and reported prior to the 1990’s. He stated that their past experiences as students along with their course content influences and future expectations created the images they described about how they saw themselves as teachers. It was in the interviews about their views that the students were able to express what their images meant to them. Goodman did not describe his methodology as life history. Instead he asserted that the prolonged study of a few individuals using multiple approaches to gather the data needed uncovered the professional perspective of the student teachers concerned.

It was this need for detailed descriptions that led Measer and Sikes (1992) to compile an argument for the ethics and methodology of life history. Measer and Sikes sought to formalise the collaborative nature of interviews and then address the issues that arose in how to elicit information: who interprets the information; how to present the data and who owns the data. Utilising this previous work, Smith (2001) and Vuorikoski (2001) were able to report on how life history had informed teachers. Smith’s (2001) fifteen teachers described how their own life history helped to explain their beliefs and practice. Vuorikoski (2001) described how Finnish secondary teacher education students developed their self-as-teacher identity and as a result her own teacher educator identity.

Work in personal narrative acknowledges that learning to teach is a process of reconstructing one’s own narrative of experience (Carter & Doyle, 1996, 1995). Carter and Doyle described how teachers’ teaching practice is the living out of their narrative of experiences. They concluded their work by
exploring the implications of the beliefs pre-service teachers held about teaching on those teacher educators trying to guide them. These beliefs could not be ignored nor was there a simple solution to reconciling pre-service teachers’ beliefs with the pedagogy they encountered in teacher education. Carter and Doyle highlighted the lack of research work into personal narratives in their 1995 paper. Then in 1996, Carter and Doyle related how personal stories and life history were both similar and different, drawing on Connelly and Clandinin’s (1994, 1990), Britzman’s (1989) and Goodson’s (1992) work. For Carter and Doyle (1996), life history was grounded in the personal story but at the same time emphasis was placed on social and historical contexts that have influenced beliefs and teaching practices.

Research into personal narratives focuses on what has made us become the person we are, while reflective thinking focuses on what allows us to change who we are based on what has happened and how this affects who we are becoming.

1.3.2 Reflective thinking studies

Just as a person’s own life experiences influence the present, studies have shown that teachers are able to adjust, modify or alter their teaching methods, styles, or manners based on what they learn about individual students (Anderson, 2001; Hargreaves, 1998; Carter, 1994; Wubbels, 1992; Clark, 1988). Clark (1988) commenting on the state of research into teacher thinking at the time reported that, teachers attend to learning outcomes before, during or even after the teaching has occurred. Teachers modify programs and planning to account for their own reflective thought about: what worked; did not work; for whom it worked and for whom it did not work. Wubbels (1992) reported on the strategies that allow pre-service teachers the opportunity to reflect upon and therefore gain access to and then modify the naïve or inappropriate conceptions that they bring with them to their teacher education program. Wubbels described two types of strategies. First, those strategies, such as the use of figurative language, which would highlight the
use of the brain’s ‘right hemisphere’ and then those, such as focusing on one’s emotion, which inhibit the use of the ‘left hemisphere.’

Carter (1994) demonstrated how research studies were able to incorporate just such ‘right hemisphere’ strategies in her study on eight secondary pre-service teachers in their first practicum experience. Carter requested that these student teachers record those events that they were able to provide detailed descriptions of, an analysis of and teaching implications they saw in the event. Carter’s purpose was that these student teachers would be able to tie these events into their evolving conceptions and interpretations of teaching. The eight student teachers reflected weekly on their experiences and the issues relevant to them at the time in their own words; thereby making meaning of the event and how it informed their emerging teacher role.

Similarly, Hargreaves (1998) reported on the importance of ‘left hemisphere’ blocking strategies in focusing on the significance of emotion in teaching. Hargreaves noted that the thirty-two upper primary teachers in his study were able to report on how they modified their classroom practice in response to what they learned about their individual students. These teachers were able to call upon a variety of strategies to reach their students and get them motivated but each strategy was in response to what the teacher had gained from self-reflection of own practice.

Summarising three studies in which the researcher participated and the findings from these studies that also incorporated ‘right hemisphere’ strategies, Anderson (2001) focused on how teacher educators influenced change in pre-service teachers’ teaching. In the first study of nine primary pre-service teachers, cases were utilised with the intention of prompting changes in prior beliefs about possible teacher role. Three students were reported on to highlight how initial conceptions about teaching and the role of the teacher filtered course content. The second study on eight secondary student teachers described how the teacher educator was able to exert influence on prior beliefs by targeting the beliefs she expected the students to
bring with them. Three students were profiled as they offered interesting contrasts to the effects of the course content. The third study dealt with teacher educators’ influence on five primary student teachers who were specialising in Science Education. This study commented on how these student teachers’ changed their prevailing conceptions of teaching as they tried new ideas; noting these changes tended to swing from one extreme to the other.

Clark (1988) commented on the fact that teachers reflect in their practice as they go about their planning and programming. Wubbles (1992) acknowledged that pre-service teachers have preconceptions about teaching and their role as the teacher as they enter teacher education. He then offered strategies that could enable teacher educators to better influence change in their student teachers whose preconceptions were seen as naïve or inappropriate. Carter (1994), Hargreaves (1998) and Anderson (2001) reported on studies that utilised Wubbels’ strategies and the extent to which they did or did not influence pre-service teacher beliefs.

1.3.3 Studies into prior career affects

Teachers coming into teaching from other careers draw upon skills previously acquired to assist them in this new career (Novak & Knowles, 1992). Novak and Knowles found that both primary and secondary second career teachers had greater understanding of human behaviour. In addition, some were better equipped to deal with the non-teaching administrative components of the profession.

Almost all the research since has dealt with the motivations behind why career changers enter education and not how previous careers benefit them as student teachers or as future teachers (Richardson & Watt, 2005; Finnie 2004; Kyriacou, Kunc, Stephens & Hultgren, 2003; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2001; and Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999). These studies sought to identify the motivations behind why pre-service teachers enter into education. Whether these studies explored just career change student teachers or
comparisons between traditional or non-traditional student teachers, they all expressed themselves in terms of altruistic, intrinsic or extrinsic reasons for seeking to enter into education. One notable variation was Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant’s (2003) study which focused on student teachers who were entering secondary education as career changers. They referred to their candidates’ pulls and pushes (p. 100) that had lead them into teaching. It was these two factors that resulted in them reporting on the six kinds of career changers who participated in their study.

1.3.4 Teachers’ life experiences implications

Teachers have been shown to have been informed by their own life experiences. It follows then that pre-service teachers entering teacher education programs have been similarly affected. In order to be able to acknowledge, account for and describe life experiences, researchers have seen the requirement for their study participants to be able to speak in their own words. This then underlies the importance of narrative research methodology.

1.4 Narrative research

Researchers have seen the importance of narrative enquiry in educational research, as this approach offers a means of connecting the lives and stories of the individual to wider social phenomena. Hatch and Wisnieski (1995) sought to explore and synthesise how educational research experts in this field reported on the methodologies, rationale and meanings behind their work using life history or narrative enquiry. Out of the 79 surveyed, twenty-two responded.

These respondents, while working with the same research tools, differed in the way they defined life history and narrative and the nature of the relationship between them. There were those like Rob Walker, Michelle Foster and Mary Jean Herzog who felt life history was a type of narrative while others including Andrew Sparkes, Petra Munro and Yvonne Lincoln
who saw life history as individual's experiences to make broader contextual meaning and narratives as making meaning of individual’s experiences.

While there was a difference in what the relationship between the two approaches might be, most of those responding did concur that it was the focus on the individual that set life history and narrative apart from other qualitative approaches. Hatch and Wisnieski (1995) reported that it was this personal nature that required the researcher and participant to work together to understand the participant’s story. Therefore the findings from these approaches have a more practical value than other forms of qualitative work. This personal nature also gives rise to the importance of ethical relationships between researcher and participant along with authorship, ownership and voice of the story. While Hatch and Wisnieski were able to present a list of eighteen criteria for judging the quality of narrative and life history work; they ended their discussion with this acknowledgment:

*In our best judgement, we are at a stage where we need a better balance between the examination of the methodological and personal understanding of life history and narrative procedures and the reporting of studies derived from this approach (p. 131).*

Polkinghorne’s (1995) contribution to Hatch and Wisnieski’s *Life History and Narrative* explained just how and why narrative was able to provide this more practical value for wider populations when compared to the other qualitative approaches. Polkinghorne saw narrative as: the linguistic form uniquely suited for displaying human existence as situated action (p. 5). He limited the use of narrative to a specific story and the configuration that generated the story. Polkinghorne felt that the storied memories retained not only the complexity of the situation in which the event happened but also the emotional and motivational meaning connected with the event.

*Narratives are individual incidents that allow the reader or listener to evoke emotions in response to the story. The reader/listener is given an*
explanation of how and why a person acted and as a result this makes their action understandable. As insight is gain into another’s actions in a specific situation, we are provided with the opportunity to gain insight into our own actions in similar situations, what Polkinghorne referred to as narrative reasoning. This narrative reasoning can not be generalised across stories. As narrative reasoning is accumulated from case to case it provides a basis for understanding new action episodes by means of analogy.

Answering the challenge by the empiricist tradition for explicit methodologies to life history, Dhunpath (2000) set out to legitimise this form of qualitative research with established characteristics and organizing principles drawing heavily on the work of Connelly and Clandinin (1994). Dhunpath coined the term ‘Narradigm’ to emphasise and affirm Polkinghorne’s (1995) assertion that lives are intrinsically narrative as our experiences of the world are represented narratively. Dhunpath acknowledged that this biographical representing was a reconstruction and interpretation of subjectively meaningful features and events. However these biographical representations of events had five general features, they were: narrative, constructive, contextual, interactive and dynamic. These five features provide the framework through which narrative methodology enabled the researcher to establish credibility to the data gathered without constraining the participants’ story. The validity to the data comes from the extent to which it informs the reader (Jacobs, 2006).

Narrative enquiry had been shown by Dhunpath (2002) to have a formalised framework to its methodology; Conle (2001, 2000) sought to further ground the rationale behind this approach. Conle based her theory on Habermas’ Theory of Communicative Action (1984). Narrative enquiry as communicative action allows challenges about its truth, the capacity of truthful representation, and the comprehensibility of the narratives constructed. Conle felt that challenges not only may be issued but also should be issued to improve the quality of enquiry. However, the narrative inquirers or researchers respond mainly through more narrative, giving even more narrative reason and not the argumentative exchanges that would redeem a claim for Habermas. Conle supported Polkinghorne’s (1997)
contention that narratives display the acceptability of a claim rather than argue for it. Thus this allows narrative researchers the ability to address the issues of interpretive, descriptive and theoretical validity often raised by those questioning qualitative research (Bullough & Stokes, 1994), as narrative discourse transforms remembered events into a thematic story with verisimilitude as the discourse develops the quality of being a true story for the teller.

Atkinson (2003) critically addressed the issue of subjectivity in remembered events raised by Dhunpath (2000) in his argument that student teachers used fantasies to help develop consistent and meaningful understanding of their experiences of teaching using the tools and strategies of reflective practice. Atkinson asserted that words were not enough to fully describe a situation or event as something will always be left out, however, meaning was structured through key nodal points or signifiers which articulated the truth of a particular ideological discourse. It was these nodal points that unified the narrative and established its identity.

The construction of this subjectivity and identity was crucial as individuals were interpellated into subject positions through discourses whose structure of meaning was unified by these nodal points. Atkinson believed that these nodal points were the ideological framing that structured the narrative, which in turn revealed the truth for the teller. Therefore these discourses produced their own boundaries, policing mechanisms and normative frameworks. As such these stories were told to represent what happened from their point of view and were not attempts to incorporate every aspect but those aspects that were relevant to them and how they perceived what happened and as such must be taken for truth.

If the stories told by student teachers about their learning experiences of becoming a teacher are to be taken as ‘truth’ then likewise those experiences remembered by entry-level teacher candidates must also be taken as ‘truth.’ The ideological frameworks behind discourse are founded on what is truth for the teller allowing narrative enquiry to be grounded in scholarly history and
post-modern critique. Thus overcoming limitations highlighted by Brookhart and Freeman (1992) for quality and significant research by increasing the use of qualitative methodologies, and investigating the relationships between orientations to teaching, learning to teach and classroom performance.

1.4.1 But is life history or life story more appropriate

Narrative descriptions exhibit human activity as purposeful engagement in the world (Polkinghorne, 1995). A story is a special type of narrative discourse, as events and actions are drawn together in an organized whole by means of a plot, a type of conceptual scheme by which a contextual meaning of independent events can be displayed. Events are causally linked to prior choices or later effects. As such, a story transforms a mere succession of actions and events into a coherent whole in which these happenings gain meaning as contributors to a common purpose (Polkinghorne, 1997). This common purpose may be an extended account of a significant phase of one’s life. This story of one’s life through the additional analysis of the social, historical, political and economic contexts turns it into a life history (Hatch & Wisniewski, 1995). The present study only sought to elicit the participants’ life stories about prior schooling.

1.4.1.1 Life story methodology

Life stories offer an interpretive framework through which the meaning of human experience is revealed in personal accounts (Creswell, 1994; Connelly & Clandinin, 1994, 1990; Goodson, 1992; Jones, 1983). This qualitative approach allows for the documentation of the inner experiences of individuals, such as how they subjectively interpret, understand and define critical episodes of their life (Dhunpath, 2000; Carter, 1994; Tesch, 1990; Faraday & Plummer, 1979). More importantly for the present study, the stories were a way of avoiding the excessive imposition of external theories and constructs of the researcher on the pre-service teachers so as not to stifle the story-telling urge (Fenstermacher, 1994). As such, life stories are peculiarly suited to discovering the confusions, ambiguities and
contradictions of experiences (Bullough et al., 1992; Faraday & Plummer, 1979) as the focus is not on the factual accuracy but on the meaning the experiences had for the individual (Dhunpath, 2000).

Student teachers’ memories are not explicit and literal disclosures of their past as people reconstruct past events in light of knowledge about the outcomes of their lives (Chase, 2005; Galbo & Demetrulias, 1996). This very reconstruction of the past can be more telling even though some people might unconsciously assimilate events of the past, adjust perceptions or simply try to make sense of their present by distorting the past. Each person is a historian of the self creating an internally consistent representation of their own life so that their past, present and future appear to be congruent (Chase, 2005; Freeman et al., 1986). This recollection is interpretive and concerned more with the conceptual evaluation of the subjective structure of one’s life story than with the actuality of experience (Galbo & Demetrulias, 1996). Therefore recollection is facilitating rather than displacing objectivity of recall because it provides a more comprehensive perspective (Galbo & Demetrulias, 1996; Freeman et al., 1986).

Teacher candidates in telling their story establish a verisimilitude through the coherence of meanings. This narrative or truthful fiction (Denzin, 1989, p. 23) despite confusions, ambiguities and contradictions enable consistency of interpretation in meaning (Bullough & Stokes, 1994). Stimulated recall interviews, a technique used to aid a participant’s recall of his or her thought processes at the time (Calderhead, 1981, p. 212), establishes a context which enables the opportunity to elaborate and expound upon any of these confusions, ambiguities or contradictions, to provide a veridical description of their experiences. Stimulated recall interviews use the respondent’s own words to facilitate reflective thought.

Risko, Roskos and Vukelich (2002) in a study on thirty pre-service student teachers and how they reflected on their learning to teach reading reported that there were four stages of reflective thought: factual, prudential, justificatory and critical. Factual thought focused on literal occurrences;
prudential on evaluating experiences and procedures; justificatory on providing rationales for actions; and finally critical reflections on the underlying assumptions of actions. It is this critical reflective thought, specifically for the present study on those beliefs and preconceptions about teaching and learning, which stimulated recall interviews seek to uncover in participants' narratives.

These narratives' validity and adequacy of analysis were assessed by the ability to account for and explain how a participant's definitions were produced (Jacobs, 2006; Silverman, 2005; Daniel & Onwuegbuzie, 2002; Denzin, 1989). As these stories are compositions of constructed meaning and self-representations, they have five general features: narrative, constructive, contextual, interactive and dynamic (Dhunpath, 2000).

The narrative feature refers to the story's subjective, narrative form in which the participants' experiences are presented (Dhunpath, 2000; Lancy, 1993; Connelly & Clandinin, 1990; Denzin, 1989). It is constructive, as one's life story is a collection of construed meanings (Dhunpath, 2000; Lakoff & Johnson, 1999; Tesch, 1990; Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). The story is contextual as this method must be located in a frame of enquiry, for this present study: life, personal history and school. This present study's interpersonal context highlights then explores the powerful positive or negative influences that have shaped the respondents' views about the type of teacher they do or do not want to become (Dhunpath, 2000; Von Wright, 1997; Knowles & Holt-Reynolds, 1991). The story is interactive as human behaviour is shaped and formed as the result of a meaningful interaction with the social and cultural environment and all its participants, specific to this present study: prior schooling and teacher experiences (Dhunpath, 2000; Grant, 1992; Connelly & Clandinin, 1990; Denzin, 1989). Life story is dynamic as it allows the respondents to re-examine and reconstruct their own perceptions of personal experiences (Dhunpath, 2000; Carter & Doyle, 1996; Galbo & Demetrulias, 1996; Bullough, 1994; Connelly & Clandinin, 1994, 1990; Bullough & Stokes, 1994; Freeman et al., 1986).
As it has been shown, life stories are the study of the ways in which humans experience the world (Dhunpath, 2000). They also show the extent to which humanness is learned, and how once learned, can be used expressively to shape and change one’s understanding of the world (Jones, 1983).

1.4.2 Studies into personal histories and life experiences

There have been only a limited number of studies into pre-service teachers’ personal histories of life experiences since 1992. Of the forty-three studies summarised in Table 1 (see Appendix A), only ten were narrative in design: (1) Holt-Reynolds (1992); (2) Bullough and Stokes (1994); (3) Maxson and Mahllos (1994); (4) Sugrue (1996); (5) Kile (1993); (6) Bodycott (1997); (7) Mayer-Smith, Moon and Wideen (1994); (8) Anderson, Smith and Peasley (2000); (9) Gomez, Walker and Paige (2000); and (10) Mueller and Skamp (2003).

Building upon a 1991 study of pre-service teachers’ personal histories, Holt-Reynolds (1992) studied nine secondary pre-service teacher candidates and the personal history-based beliefs they brought with them. The study was designed to look at how these pre-service teachers used their own knowledge gained from prior educational experiences to make decisions while engaged in course work about the value of the ideas advocated by the course instructor. It was not stated whether the participants were entry-level students but only that the study was conducted over the length of an introductory course.

Common to most research in this area, the data was analysed so Holt-Reynolds could reach a better understanding of the teacher education process from the point of view of the teacher educator. This focus was clearly stated:

*the paper is not so much an analysis of the arguments put forward by the nine participants but a more generalized look at the character and content of the beliefs and lay concepts*
Similar to Holt-Reynolds’ (1992) study, Bullough and Stokes (1994) involved only secondary pre-service teachers. Bullough and Stokes also conducted their study over the length of a teacher education course. The students began as entry-level candidates but the emphasis of the study was on tracking how and why metaphors used to describe self-as-teacher, the teacher one imagines one self to be (Frappon & MacGillivary, 1996, p. 31), changed.

The students wrote their own life histories at the beginning of the course. How far into the course and after what course content might have influenced the students’ recount was not addressed by the researchers. The students generated their own initial metaphor for self as teacher but only after Bullough, the senior researcher and the course instructor, shared his own metaphorical choice and related research. Once again how far into the semester was not discussed by the researchers. However, it is not unreasonable to assume that first-year education students might have been unduly influenced in their metaphorical selections, as the senior instructor/researcher first recounted his own choice and reasons even though students were: seeking to capture the themes of their histories and their images of themselves as teachers (p. 203).

An interpretive analysis of twenty students’ drawings to identify images students held of the future teachers they imagined themselves to be was the focus of the Maxson and Mahlios’ (1994) study. In this study all the students were entry-level primary education majors. Before reporting the analysis of the drawings, the researchers themselves identified the most significant limitation of the study: what we saw in the drawings may or may not be entirely representative of what the students meant to convey (p. 4). The researchers went to detailed lengths to identify what they saw as the images the students held for the teachers’ role, the learners’ role, classroom
life and curriculum. However, Maxson and Mahlios were only able to identify those images as the study’s design prevented explorations into how and why those images were depicted. The sample size and diversity in responses were also noted as further limiting factors by the researchers:

*We need more studies to understand if the image descriptors this study identified are indeed stable across population samples. Further studies might indicate other areas of concern to students not identified by this study* (p. 16).

Also involving only primary pre-service teachers was the Sugrue (1996) study. Sugrue interviewed fifteen student teachers focusing on their construction on self-as-teacher. The study’s three foci were on how the student teachers’ own apprenticeship of observation as students, family and friends and the culturally embedded archetypes of Ireland regarding teachers and teaching informed:

1. their self-construction of teacher identity;
2. their metaphor for teaching; and
3. how they saw ‘good’ teaching.

The study compared and contrasted regular student teachers (defined in the study as late adolescent) to mature student teachers (defined as those aged 28 to 42) in regards to the study’s foci. Similar to the Holt-Reynolds’ (1992) study, the main arguments of analysis were from the point of view of the teacher educator and focused on the implications for teacher education.

In a study completed for his doctoral dissertation, Kile (1993) sought to explore and describe the preconceptions about classroom teaching that twenty-two primary and secondary pre-service teachers brought with them to their first teacher education programme at the University of Arizona. While the study employed both qualitative and quantitative methods throughout the study, only the initial qualitative phase of the study, the ‘Most Memorable Teacher’ task, is relevant to the present study as it was conducted during the
first lab session of the course. The rest of the study was conducted over the length of the course of the program and was used to highlight any changes caused by the course content.

The participants were asked to write out descriptions of their most memorable teacher then interviewed another teacher candidate within their cohort about his/her teacher description. The analysis of this data focused on those adjectives that participants used to describe their teachers and any differences between four sub-populations within the sample: primary education majors, secondary education majors, traditional students (defined in the study as those with no break in educational track to become a teacher) and non-traditional students (defined as those who for reasons of different career paths or family reported a break in their education training). The analysis highlighted that prior teachers did have an influence upon the student teachers but Kile did not seek to explore the reasons behind how or why the participants reported this influence.

Like Sugrue’s study, Bodycott (1997) used only primary teacher candidates to explore how prior experience as students has influenced the way they see themselves as potential language teachers in Singapore. The aim of the study was to gain an insight into how personal history shaped the views of the Malay, Chinese and Tamil participating student teacher candidates. Bodycott stated that it was only an exploratory study due to the small number of participants (six Tamil, four Chinese and two Malay) restricting any attempts to isolate patterns of commonality within and between cultures.

Participants were first requested to complete written biographies and metaphors for language teaching and learning. How far into the program was not reported. However, the study implied that the interviews that followed and which were based on the written accounts were held after course work had begun. Bodycott reported that the elicited personal anecdotes and recounts of prior experiences in school were used by these pre-service teachers to inform their view of what the ideal language teacher
should be. Unfortunately, the effects of course content upon these elicitations cannot be discounted.

The Mayer-Smith et al. (1994) study had three foci:

1. prior personal and educational experiences of pre-service teacher candidates;
2. how these experiences shaped their beliefs; and
3. how these beliefs changed as a result of course content.

The study reported on four of the thirty participants who were interviewed. While the researchers addressed the limitations of interview methodology, it was left to the reader to guess as to the reasons why there were thirty participants and why the four being reported were chosen over the others. It was not stated but the biographies of the four reported participants indicated that they were all secondary postgraduate teacher candidates who were entering their teacher training program.

The four participants were described as having had a cumulative set of experiences and contacts with significant others from both primary and secondary school. These participants held fairly fixed ideas about what they considered good teaching and could relate these to both positive and negative examples from their prior schooling. However revealing the data presented might be, like Bodycott’s study, the affects of course content cannot be discounted.

Three studies used either case study or interview methodology to report on how pre-service teachers’ perceptions on teaching changed over the length of the teacher training course (Mueller & Skamp, 2003; Anderson et al., 2000; Gomez et al., 2000). All three studies began at the entry-level to establish a starting point but did not seek to explore where these starting beliefs were formed, how they were form or how they informed the view of self-as-teacher. These studies only sought to report on how course content informed on prior beliefs as a means to better inform teacher educators about teacher education practices.
1.4.3 Reviewed Qualitative Studies Implications

While the Holt-Reynolds’ (1992) study acknowledged that pre-service teachers held preconceptions, most importantly for the present study it did not seek to investigate the type of teacher pre-service teachers did or did not want to be in the classroom. Similarly, Bullough and Stokes (1994) recognised that pre-service teachers enter teacher education programs with life histories and were able to generate metaphors as self-as-teacher, however, the focus was on how these metaphors changed over the length of study and not on how and why these metaphors were selected.

Bodycott’s (1997) study, similar to both Bullough and Stokes’ and Holt-Reynolds’, reported that pre-service teachers were able to report their own metaphor for teaching and were also able to recount personal histories of prior schooling experiences. However, even though only using a small number of participants (twelve primary teacher candidates) it still did not seek to uncover how these images of the ideal language teacher were formed.

Highlighting that the twenty pre-service teachers the study included held clear images as to the type of teacher they wanted to be, the Maxson and Mahlios’ (1994) study accepted that the researchers’ interpretations might not have been what were actually meant by the students. Although Sugrue’s (1996) study sought to investigate the concept of what student teachers’ viewed as ‘good’ teaching, it did not seek to investigate the relationship pre-service teachers held about the type of teacher they do and do not want be in the classroom. Conversely, Mayer-Smith et al. (1994) acknowledged that pre-service teachers in their study used prior teacher experiences to inform the type of teacher they do or do not want to become; but did so only to establish a starting point to show how different program interventions, knowledge acquisitions and teacher preparations changed the pre-service teachers images and not on why they held these views. Kile (1993) highlighted that prior teachers did influence the participants in his study but did not seek to explore the reasons behind how and why these student teachers were influenced.
Of the reviewed qualitative studies, many had their significance limited by research study design as they employed insufficient reporting procedures or methodologies to provide significant insights into relationships between teaching, learning to teach or classroom performance (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992). For example, six of the studies: Jensen, Kauchak and Rowley (2001); Morales (2000); Harrington and Hathaway (1995); Johnson (1992); Bird et al. (1992); and Ross and Smith (1992) were single institution designs. Only Chan’s (1999) study in Hong Kong included two separate institutions. However, all seven studies’ research design precluded any distinction among pre-service teacher sub-populations; as six of the studies focused solely on primary candidates and the Harrington and Hathaway (1995) study focused only on secondary candidates.

All fourteen of the reviewed qualitative studies did have a theoretical or historical context. In fact, most drew heavily upon the same body of work for methodologies and theoretical orientations. It is significant that twelve of these studies felt the need to provide a detailed preamble of the study’s theory and in the case of Bullough and Stokes’ (1994) study also an extensive account of the research’s design for validity. All but Jensen et al. (2001) and Morales (2000) were conducted prior to the establishment of the recognised theoretical framework behind narrative enquiry put forth by Hatch and Wisnieski (1995), Polkinghorne (1997, 1995), and Connelly and Clandinin (1994, 1990), then formalised by Dhunpath (2000), and Conle (2001, 2000). Both Jensen et al. (2001) and Morales (2000) provided only a background to the purpose behind the research being reported and then the methods incorporated without having to include detailed explanations to the studies’ narrative designs and theories.

1.5 Research shift into meaningful questions

Two of the issues Brookhart and Freeman (1992) raised were the need for research to: ask questions that provided deeper understanding of motivations for pursuing careers in teaching, and identify historical trends rather than static profiles of teacher candidates (p. 56). Research into understanding
why teachers do the things they do has seen the emergence in the study of metaphors and the interpretation of the meanings surrounding them. Since Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980), *Metaphors we live by*, metaphors have been seen as a way to allow a verbalisation of tacit knowledge based on prior experiences and the meaning those experiences have. Lakoff and Johnson reasoned that our fundamental ideas are based on a diversity of complex metaphors. These complex metaphors are themselves founded within a set of primary metaphors which have been moulded by our experiences in the world. These primary metaphors derive from our mind, body and the characteristics of the world in which we live, specifically for the present study those experiences of prior schooling. Therefore metaphors are able to help bridge the gap between implicit and explicit knowledge (Martinez, Sauleda & Huber, 2001).

Prawat (1999) grounded metaphors in the Peirce and Dewey abduction learning process of ideas and reached the same conclusions. Like Lakoff and Johnson, Prawat viewed ideas as instruments of knowledge that connect not only the old and new, but also the known and unknown and most significantly to the present study the antecedent and the consequent (p. 60). Similarly for Prawat, these ideas are generated through a metaphoric process.

The use of metaphors and those specific metaphors used by students and teachers provide a tool for the interpretation of the meaning, specifically for the present study of those prior educational experiences. It is through these metaphors that one is able to identify for oneself those things actually experienced (Knowles & Holt-Reynolds, 1994). Metaphorical thinking enhances our own understanding by naming, giving meaning, categorizing and clarifying both how we view the world and think about things (Connelly & Clandinin, 1994; Grant, 1992). These descriptions can act as a window by which we may be able to see into our personal life histories (Carter & Doyle, 1996; Knowles, 1994). They simplify and can, therefore, make explicit the tacit knowledge they represent (Bullough, 1994; Bullough & Stokes, 1994; Ortony, 1993).
Metaphors provide a link between language and images and therefore act as foci for reflection (Tobin & Tippins, 1996). Those specific examples utilised by individuals to make sense of their teaching role have meanings, which are imbued with the experiences associated with the communities in which the person has participated (Levine, 2005). Tobin (1990) expressed this in summarising five years of research into teaching theory. He then went on to state that they are also used to conceptualise the teaching role held by individuals (p. 126). Munby (1986) proffered the idea that while there was sufficient evidence to allow metaphorical figures to be used to comprehend a teacher’s construction of their professional reality, he also limited this by stating: *a teacher might employ different metaphorical figures at different times and under different circumstances* (p. 201).

As such they are not the panacea for qualitative researchers. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) acknowledged that while they provide coherent structure and highlight some things they also hide others. Similarly, Dickmeyer (1989) highlighted that metaphors due to their simplification fail to provide a complete picture. Even if multiple metaphors are reported, each selected metaphor ignored some factor or factors needed. An additional limiting factor is that while they have been referred to as windows into our personal histories (Carter & Doyle, 1996; Knowles, 1994) they have limited value for uncovering the nature of thoughts and prior experiences (Knowles, 1994). Furthermore, metaphors might not go far enough in stimulating new orientations and insights, if in-depth analysis of subjective experiences and collaborative reflection is needed, pre-service teachers will need additional guidance (Martinez et al., 2001). Finally, Tobin and Tippins (1996) reviewing the research between teachers’ metaphors and the teaching and learning of science concluded that there were some teachers who were unable to utilise metaphors. But there is value in using them as frames for theoretical constructs, particularly in terms of personal histories (Knowles, 1994; Provenzo, McCloskey, Kottkamp & Cohn, 1989).
The identifying, exploring and analysing of pre-service teacher metaphors can lead to the identification of critical incidents, those well-remembered events that a student observes in a school situation and for his/her own reasons considers to be especially salient or memorable (Carter, 1994, p. 236). This exploration along with delineating how pre-service teachers construct meaning to express their interpretations will expose those images as to how they see themselves as teachers (Provenzo et al., 1989). In the words of Connelly and Clandinin (1994): *life is a story we live ... a powerful way to imagine who we are, where we have been, and where we are going* (p. 149).

Metaphors have been one of the reasons behind the shift in research from formalistic quantitative approaches to the qualitative study of teacher cognition (Mahlios & Maxson, 1998; Kagan, 1990; Munby, 1987a-b, 1986) as they allow researchers to take into account the participant’s thinking or the ways in which perceptions are influenced by conceptions. This is possible as metaphors are a characterization of a phenomenon in familiar terms (Dickmeyer, 1989). These terms are a part of the fundamental impulse of humans to find meaning in life (Provenzo et al., 1989) and as such are contextual. In relationship to teachers, metaphors provide a tool for interpreting the meaning of what it is to be a teacher. This tool is the ability to allow expression of meanings that can then be subjected to analysis (Bullough, 1991). Martinez et al. (2001) in a study on metaphors as the blueprint for teachers’ thinking about teaching and learning reported that it was a necessary pre-requisite for reflection by the teachers on the metaphorical roots of their thinking. Teachers, therefore also pre-service teachers, not only needed access to their metaphors but also needed a shared system in which to interpret and classify them. This shared system allows the communication of their metaphor and the opportunity to elaborate upon them co-operatively. Metaphors can be used to represent pre-service teachers’ understanding of teaching and their conceptions of themselves as teachers.
1.5.1 Metaphorical Studies

In the past decade and a half since Brookhart and Freedman (1992), seven studies have been conducted using metaphors to explore entry-level pre-service teachers: (1) Bullough and Stokes (1994); (2) Sugrue (1996); (3) Gurney (1995); (4) Von Wright (1997); (5) Mahlios and Maxson (1995); (6) Mahlios and Maxson (1998); and (7) Bodycott (1997).

As previously stated, the Bullough and Stokes’ (1994) study focused on identifying the personal teaching metaphors of beginning secondary teachers and how they changed over their teacher education course. At the beginning of the course and throughout the year at crucial (p. 203) points of the year, the students were asked to reconsider these metaphors and identify and discuss any changes to them. The purpose was for the student teachers themselves to determine whether or not they were on target to becoming the kind of teacher they imagined themselves being.

Also previously stated, the Sugrue (1996) study used student teacher generated metaphors for how they viewed teaching. These metaphors were analysed to indicate the basic pedagogical orientation and the researcher assumed that:

*the more uni-dimensional their chosen metaphor, the more likely they are to resonate with archetypal notions of teaching as telling or teaching as transmission* (p. 163).

The researcher’s reporting of metaphors was then presented to support this idea with a final note that in general her findings supported the archetypes of teaching. Sugrue did acknowledge that not all student teachers held these views but did not present any of the alternative views.

151 Science Education majors from two consecutive years of the same institution were used in the Gurney (1995) study. This study was an exploratory look at pre-service teachers’ metaphors for the perceived teacher and learner role. While the study only considered Science Education majors,
the research question and study design were such that although the sample was academic subject specific the study was not. The metaphors were analysed into generalities of image, mood and theme. These expressions showed that even though participants were entry-level student teachers they were also well-experienced students. While addressing what role pre-service teachers saw themselves as to the teachers they want to be, the study design did not allow exploration as to how and why they saw themselves this way.

The Von Wright (1997) study was a summary of two of the researcher’s previous studies on Swedish pre-service teachers. The focus of the paper was to highlight and compare changes and effects of teacher education programs on the beliefs and metaphorical selection student teachers used to describe student development. The study did draw attention to the contradictions student teachers held about learning and actual teaching practice, but focused on how these changed over the course of their teacher training.

Three of these metaphorical studies employed quantitative methodologies: Mahlios and Maxson’s 1998 and 1995 studies; and Bodycott’s 1997 study. Both of the Mahlios and Maxson studies sought: to examine education students’ root beliefs, those beliefs that influence and shape one’s actions and ideas (1995, p. 192). In the 1995 study, the researchers focus was to identify the conceptual devices 134 primary education majors used to make sense of their world and their lives. Metaphors were used to discern patterns for describing school, life and childhood. In the 1998 study, the researchers broadened their sample population to include both primary and secondary education majors in a similar study design to their 1995 study. This study’s focus was also to examine root metaphors but in an attempt to compare and contrast the two sub-populations within the single teacher educational institution. However, as with the 1995 study, the 1998 study focused on the broader implications of the statistical analysis for teacher educators.

As stated Bodycott’s (1997) study sought to gain an insight into how personal history shapes the views of pre-service teacher using written biographies and
metaphors for teaching and learning. It was these accounts that were used by the researcher to elicit personal anecdotes and prior experiences to investigate how their ideal language teacher identities were formed. The study principally reported on the interview data that was gathered after the course began and therefore limited any significance in relation to entry-level pre-service teachers.

Five studies focused on how metaphors may be used by teacher educators to better assist in the development of teacher candidates: Bullough and Stokes, 1994; Sugrue, 1996; Mahlios and Maxson, 1995, 1998; and Von Wright, 1997. Most significantly, the Bullough and Stokes’ (1992) study established a descriptive, interpretive and theoretical framework for a metaphorical interpretative study. But like Sugrue’s (1996), Mahlios and Maxson’s (1995, 1998) and Von Wright’s (1997) studies, there was no exploration to determine the historical context behind the metaphors or why they were selected. While recognising the initial limitations of only Science Education students, Gurney (1995) did go as far as to say that the students’ views in the researcher’s opinion were shaped by their own prior experience as learners (p. 580). The study, however, did not explore this opinion. Von Wright (1997) only presented the most common generalized results from the participants and acknowledged the limitations and problems of the researcher interpreting participants’ meanings. Bodycott did seek an historical context behind the metaphors reported and how prior experience as students had helped to inform their ideal language teacher but did not report in his methodology which participants were entry-level pre-service teachers.

1.6 Quantitative Research

While there has been a growing trend in the use of qualitative research methodologies, quantitative research studies still account for a significant proportion of studies in education. Of the 43 studies listed in Table 1 (see appendix A), fifteen (34.9%) were quantitative.
A common theme through seven of the studies was the identification of beliefs by some questionnaire or pencil-and-paper test then a generalization to the population: Kyriacou, Kunc, Stephens and Hultgren 2003; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Brookhart and Loadman, 1996; Barry and Lechner, 1995; Mahlios and Maxson, 1998, 1995; and Avery and Walker, 1993. These studies, while providing insights into how these pre-service teachers saw teaching, being the teacher or why they were choosing to be teachers, recognised that discussions of findings were limited to only the participants. Generalizations were limited by the quantitative methodologies employed which prohibited any further exploration of findings.

Like several of the qualitative studies reviewed, six of the quantitative studies reported findings from the point of view of how teacher educators would benefit from better informed practice. The studies of Anderson and Anderson (1995) and Carter et al. (1993) focused on establishing pre-service teachers’ beliefs to track the changes over the course of the education program and into in-service practice. Similarly, Richards and Killen’s (1994) study focused on establishing what beliefs pre-service teachers held about problems facing beginning teachers. Klein (1996) and Mertz and McNeely’s (1992) studies focused on highlighting the contradictions pre-service teachers brought with them into education programs. These contradictions were based around what perceptions pre-service teachers held about learning (typically constructivism) and their own ability to enact these beliefs in practice (typically transmissive). As stated, Gurney’s (1995) study was an exploratory focus on what metaphors pre-service Science education students held about themselves as teachers.

Nettle’s (1994) study drew principally upon a previous study conducted to provide a rationale and justification for the development and usage of the Pedagogical Dimensions Questionnaire (PDQ). The PDQ was designed to provide researchers with a pencil-and-paper alternative to interviewing about beliefs. The study results indicated that the PDQ’s ability to measure student teachers’ beliefs about teaching were essentially similar to those obtained by interview questioning. The PDQ was also reported to detect changes in
student teacher beliefs about teaching that were similar to those obtained by interview questioning.

Johnston, McKeown and McEwen’s (1999) study while including pre-service teachers focused on comparing any gender differences between reasons why teacher candidates had selected primary education. This study, like Bodycott’s (1997) and Mayer-Smith et al. (1994), did not specify how many participants were entry-level, only that 334 primary education majors completed a survey instrument in which they ranked twelve possible factors influencing their career choice decisions. These factors, such as ‘working with children’, ‘salary’, ‘good holidays’ and ‘status’, were generated from a similar population of Bachelor of Education primary education majors at two teacher training colleges. The study concluded that there are significant differences between the views of male and female students who have chosen primary education as a career. These differences focused predominately on the male participants’ views regarding primary teaching as a career: men make a necessary contribution as a behavioural and cultural counter-weight given that the learning and social environment in primary schools is overwhelmingly female (p. 62).

Quantitative research in education has a long history, however, the reporting procedures and study designs of the studies included in this review all contained limitations to the significance of the studies’ results. Of these fifteen studies only the Brookhart and Loadman (1996) and Kyriacou et al. (2003) studies used a cross-institutional design (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992). While it is implied in the Johnston et al. (1999) study this was not reported. Additionally, none of the remaining twelve studies reported results into historical trends of pre-service teachers.

The study design of Mahlios and Maxson (1995); Barry and Lechner (1995); Gurney (1995); and Johnston et al. (1999) prevented any significant sub-population comparisons. Mahlios and Maxson’s, Barry and Lechner’s and Johnston et al.’s studies were limited to only primary education majors. Gurney’s was limited to only secondary Science Education majors.
As these studies were some form of pencil-and-paper instrument, instrument reliability and validity needed to be reported (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2002; Minor et al., 2002; Witcher et al., 2001). Richards and Killen (1994) only addressed the study’s reliability and ignored instrument validity. Nettle (1994) only addressed the study’s validity and implies its reliability in discussing the study’s conclusions. Gurney (1995) stated the study was only an exploration of metaphors and addressed neither reliability nor validity. Kyriacou et al. (2003); Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000); Avery and Walker (1993); and Johnston et al. (1999) were similar in their neglect to address either in their studies. Carter et al. (1993) implied both by using an instrument from a previous study. Only the Mahlios and Maxson (1995, 1998) studies explicitly addressed the issues of reliability and validity.

As with the qualitative studies, these studies were also theoretically driven studies. However, none were able to investigate relationships between orientations to teaching, learning to teach and classroom performance. While not all necessarily produced static profiles of pre-service teachers, the studies were unable to explore the deeper meanings and understandings of motivations for pursuing careers in teaching.

1.7 Combining methodologies

The need for combining research methodologies to best suit the research question to be studied was seen by Bryman (1992) and Brannen (1992). Both pointed out the suitability and limitations each research approach brings to a research study. This idea was further developed by Creswell (1994) in proposing mixed method research designs to provide breath and depth in research.

One of the best accounts into supporting and defining mixed-model studies, those studies that are products of the pragmatist paradigm and that combine the quantitative and qualitative approaches within different phases of the research process (p. 19), was put forward by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998).
Tashakkori and Teddlie first recounted the historical debate between quantitative and qualitative paradigms. This debate began when the monomethod or purist era beginning in the nineteenth century clashed with the emerging mixed method era in the 1960s to 1980s. The final stage of the debate saw the emergence of mixed-model studies in the 1990s. This debate’s resolution within the social and behavioural sciences’ current use of whatever philosophical or methodological approach works best for the particular research problem under study was summarised as matter of course (p. 5). The call for the wider acceptance in use of mixing methods in educational research was again made by Taylor (2000).

In mixed-model studies the decision for multi-method approaches affects not only the measurement stage of the research project but also the formulation of the problem, data analysis and reporting (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell, 1994). But the last ten years has seen only eleven attempts at combinations of methodologies in studies concerning pre-service teachers.

The advantage of combining methodologies is that the study is able to reach a greater depth and breadth in not only research design but also data analysis and reporting. Of the eleven studies conducted over the past ten years that combined methodologies, only Von Wright’s (1997) study of Swedish pre-service teachers achieved this. The remaining ten studies: Graue and Brown (2003); Reid and Thornton (2000); Carrington (2002); Minor et al., (2000); Kyriacou, Hultgren and Stephens (1999); Herbert et al., (1998); Bodycott (1997); McCall, (1995); Mahlios and Maxson (1998); and Sexton (2002) were unable to capitalize on the benefits of a mixed method or mixed-model research study in regards to pre-service teachers.

Von Wright’s (1997) study summarized the results of two previous survey and interview studies she conducted on entry-level Swedish pre-service teachers. These two studies have not been published in English language journals. Von Wright did acknowledge the limitations to any significance of this study: *I restrict myself to interpreting the meaning and consequences of the most common beliefs and expectations, shared by a majority of the*
students (p. 260). The study’s research design would have allowed the researcher to benefit from both quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data in her reporting. However, the study generalized the beliefs that pre-service teachers held at the entry-level to teacher education programs and then traced the changes over the length of the program. Contradictory beliefs were highlighted and the changes in these beliefs were shown as students progressed through the teacher training. As the study’s focus was on tracing the changes over the course of the program, Von Wright did not attempt to uncover the reasons or meanings behind the participants’ beliefs.

Four of the mixed-method studies utilised questionnaire and follow-up interview methodology: Carrington (2002); Reid and Thornton (2000); Kyriacou et al. (1999); and Sexton (2002). The first three of these studies began at the entry-level for the questionnaire phase, but the interview phase was conducted after the course work began. Only Sexton’s study conducted both a questionnaire and an interview phases at the entry-level.

In a study that sought to explore how entry-level post-graduate pre-service teachers saw themselves in the role as the teacher based on prior schooling experiences (Sexton, 2002), sixty-six teacher candidates entering a primary or secondary education program at a single institution were surveyed. From these sixty-six candidates, seventeen were then interviewed about their responses to gain further insight into how they saw themselves as teachers. Carrington’s (2002) study was a national survey of all minority pre-service teachers entering teacher education implying both primary and secondary postgraduate teacher candidates from multiple institutions across the United Kingdom. The focus was on motives for entering teaching and images of the profession by participating minority teacher candidates. Reid and Thornton’s (2000) study was also a national survey in the United Kingdom of both undergraduate and postgraduate but only surveyed primary teacher candidates. Numerous sub-population comparisons were made as to reasons for wanting to become a teacher, choosing primary teaching and their particular course of study. Finally, the Kyriacou et al. (1999) study was a cross-cultural study using postgraduate secondary teaching candidates in
both the United Kingdom and Norway. The study sought to explore reasons influencing pre-service teachers' choice in choosing teaching as a profession then describes differences between the two sub-populations based on cultural differences.

Only the Reid and Thornton and Sexton studies commented on the reliability and validity of their questionnaire. Carrington’s study was further limited in that it focused purposely on only minority teacher candidates. The reported results focused on the teacher candidates' sense of being a role model by examining reasons for teaching and images of teachers. It did not seek to investigate how these teacher candidates saw them in the role of the teacher and why they saw themselves this way. Kyriacou et al.'s study only sought to explore undergraduate views of what factors influenced job choice and to what extent teaching offers these factors as a means to better inform teacher recruitment. While Reid and Thornton’s study did offer considerable sub-population comparisons, it was unable to seek self-as-teacher role identity formation, as they were limited to only the quantitative phase of their studies to address entry-level pre-service teachers. Sexton’s study addressed self-as-teacher role identity formation but utilised only post-graduate candidates from a single institution.

As stated, Bodycott’s (1997) study into how prior experiences as students influenced the way the participating twelve primary language teacher candidates in Singapore saw themselves in the role of teacher was only really limited in the scope of the study. He restricted himself to only twelve participants as a means to make an exploratory study, however, incomplete reporting on his participants cast considerable doubt as to whether some, if any, of the reported results concerned entry-level teacher candidates, twelve, volunteer, pre-service teachers participated in the study (p. 59). No indication was given as to whether the participants were entry-level or if this study was conducted over the course of the program only that they were training to work in primary schools in Singapore. The study was reported using gender-neutral terminology to imply discussions would reflect both male and female language teachers.
Three of the studies utilized open and closed question methodology: Graue and Brown (2003); Herbert et al. (1998); and Mahlios and Maxson (1998). Graue and Brown’s study sought to describe the notions pre-service teachers held about families and schooling. One hundred and thirty primary and secondary teacher candidates at a single institution were surveyed to assess their beliefs, memories and proposed future practices to illuminate the social and cultural understanding they brought with them to teacher education. The researchers sought only to investigate family-school interaction beliefs of these teacher candidates and not their self-as-teacher identity. Herbert et al. focused on highlighting the effect of experience on teacher efficacy. The eighty-three pre-service teachers were used mainly as a comparison to the one hundred and fifty-six experienced teachers, as the researchers’ focus was on the experienced teachers not the pre-service teachers. Of the participating pre-service teachers only fifty-one were listed as first- or second-year students. Mahlios and Maxson broadened their sample population in repeating their 1995 study into root metaphors of entry-level pre-service teachers. The researchers employed a six-part questionnaire instrument that incorporated open-ended responses for participants’ own metaphors of life, childhood and teaching. The participants’ responses were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. However, the primary reporting was of the statistical comparisons of primary to secondary education majors: metaphors for schooling; metaphors of life and childhood; and metaphors of childhood and adjectives selected to describe their ideal student, teacher and school administrator. Like their 1995 study, no further exploration as to where these metaphors originated or why student teachers used these metaphors to describe schooling, students or teacher was addressed.

One study utilized survey and phenomenological analysis of one hundred and thirty-four pre-service teachers; however, only fourteen were entry-level (Minor et al., 2000). The results were then generalized by grouping the participants into one of four educational belief categories for descriptive purposes. Minor et al. (2000) did not delve into where the perceptions originated or why those perceptions were held. The study stated the purpose
of the study and indicated that the study would investigate the factors that may have influenced the responses. This was apparently not done to any degree, as the researchers did not report further on this issue. It can only be implied that the influences were due to the educational beliefs that participants were grouped into.

McCall (1995) was found to be the most limited entry-level teacher candidate study to use combination methodologies. The students were all enrolled on McCall’s course in Social Studies. Of the twenty-one students enrolled, twenty submitted the written journals used in analysis and of these only twelve were interviewed by a research assistant. Sub-population comparisons were limited as it was implied: all were secondary education students; only three were male; and all were enrolled on one course at one institution. This data was then further reduced to just two case study examples. The data was collected over the length of the course and thus greatly reduced any entry-level data gathered about the students’ beliefs on multiculturalism.

1.7.1 Limitations on the reported combined methodology studies

Since 1992 there have been eleven studies to explore pre-service teachers’ beliefs which combined research methodologies. Of these, only the Von Wright (1997); Mayer-Smith et al. (1994); Bodycott (1997); and Sexton (2002) studies focused on what beliefs pre-service teachers brought with them to teacher education programs. Four of the studies (Von Wright, 1997; Minor et al., 2000; Herbert et al., 1998; McCall, 1995) reported effects education programs have on beliefs and Mahlios and Maxson’s (1998) study highlighted the importance of teacher educators knowing what student teachers bring with them to teacher education programmes but only Sexton (2002) attempted to explore where, why or how these beliefs were formed. The Carrington (2002), Kyriacou et al. (1999) and Reid and Thornton (2000) studies all began as entry-level studies in the questionnaire phase but the interview phases were all conducted once the education programs had already begun.
Research papers and studies have encouraged teacher educators to explore and investigate the beliefs entry-level student teachers bring with them to their pre-service courses. Just knowing what these beliefs are is not enough. Teacher educators also need to know how and why these beliefs are formed because teacher candidates are not blank slates when they enter their respective education programs. Their ideas, beliefs, preconceptions and images based on their own prior schooling experiences influence not only what they will learn from their teacher educators but also how they will learn. The was evidenced in my previous study (Sexton, 2002) that concluded those student teachers did remember their prior teachers and were able to describe how their teacher role identity was informed by these experiences.

1.8 Implications of previous study

It was these beliefs and preconceptions about prior schooling experiences that was the focus of my study in 2002. I conducted a study to investigate the beliefs and preconceptions that post-graduate student teachers brought with them to their education program (Sexton, 2002). In that study, all seventeen of the teacher candidates interviewed recalled prior schooling experiences and the teachers associated with those experiences. The differences between the candidates arose in not only how and why those teachers were remembered but also whey they were examined by gender, educational major and age.

Both male and female participants reported similar beliefs and ideas on their survey instruments, however, there were notable differences in how and why these beliefs were held. Male interviewees remembered those teachers who were seen as subject matter experts and able to draw students into the material. There female counterparts recalled those teachers who were caring and considerate and made students feel valued as individuals. Likewise differences arose between primary and secondary candidates. Primary teacher candidates saw teachers as being role models of not only good teaching but also good behaviour. These teachers nurtured their students while providing the protection needed to grow as individuals. The
secondary participants saw good teachers as those who provided their students with meaningful learning experiences and worth emulation. The most reportable differences arose between those student teachers entering teacher education with minimal life experiences outside education and those returning to education after a significant break for a previous career or family matters. The recent undergraduate participants were not clear in what they felt a good teacher was or how they themselves would become good teachers. They saw this as a skill that would be taught in their education program and re-enforced with experience once they entered into their profession. In contrast, the returning adults knew exactly what type of teacher they were not going to be (rigid, denigrator, book slammer) and therefore would change the educational system under which they were taught.

When these teacher candidates were grouped according to both gender and educational major, even larger variations in how and why teachers were remembered arose. While male primary and male secondary participants reported similar responses to their survey instrument, their reasons were not. Male primary candidates saw their role as the teacher as being the role model of behaviour on a holistic level while male secondary candidates saw themselves as subject matter experts. In contrast, female primary and secondary student teachers had reportable differences in both survey instruments and interviews. Female primary candidates were not sure how to be a teacher or how they would become an ideal teacher. Their secondary counterparts knew precisely what they wanted to become, how they were going to do it and the most confident in being able to achieve their goals.

Three teacher candidate groups emerged from the data with notable similarities within the sub-population group and differences from the other groups: male primary, female secondary and non-traditional teacher candidates. These three teacher candidate groups provided the greatest insight into how the participating pre-service teachers saw teaching and their role as the teacher. The study concluded that due to low survey instrument return rate (25%) and limited number of interviews (17 of 66 respondents)
that further research into this area was warranted and needed. In particular were the differences in how and why prior teachers were remembered by the male primary, female secondary and non-traditional student teachers consistent across teacher education programs and between educational institutions. Numerous papers and studies have been presented to explore the issues surrounding these three teacher candidate categories:

(a) possible education program intervention of explicit role model support groups by male primary school teachers to male primary pre-service teachers while in teacher education to help prevent student teacher attrition (Thornton, 1999; Emery, 1997);

(b) do we need more male primary teachers as role models for young male students as this issue may appear to be one generated more by policy makers than student needs and without consultation with practising male primary teachers as to what this perceived role model would be (Baker, 2006; Cushman, 2005; Nelson, 2004; Smith, 2004; Skelton, 2002; Lahelma, 2000; Lahelma et al., 2000; Smith, 1999; Ellenburg, 1975);

(c) perceived stereotypical roles of primary teachers as caring, nurturing and mother figures acting as a hindrance or barrier to males entering and remaining in the profession (Cushman, 2005; Carrington & Skelton, 2003; Skelton, 2003, 2002; Connell, 2002; Carrington, 2002a; Francis & Skelton, 2001; Oyler, Jennings & Lozada, 2001; Roulston & Mills, 2000; Thornton, 1999; Biddulph, 1997; Grumet, 1988);

(d) males choose primary teaching for mainly intrinsic reasons of personal satisfaction out of their career choice even though their career choice involved perceived deterrents of low job status, poor financial returns or non-traditional masculine traits (Cushman, 2005; Stroud, Smith, Ealy & Hurst, 2000; Thornton, 1999; Jennings, 1998);

(e) non-traditional students tend to choose teaching as a career for mainly ‘pulling’ or intrinsic reasons of greater job satisfaction or more personal rewards in making a perceived difference in another human’s life as compared with those who felt the ‘push’ or extrinsic reward of job security was an important motivating factor (Richardson & Watt, 2005; Cushman, 2005; Finnie, 2004; Koeppen & Griffith, 2003; Priyadharshini &
Robinson-Pant, 2003; Senter & Senter, 1998; Eiffer & Potthoff, 1998; Cobbin, 1995; Gilman, 1993; Post & Killian, 1992);

(f) male primary teacher candidate comparisons with other teacher education candidates about teaching to highlight those similarities and differences between student teachers (Fajet, Bello, Leftwich, Mesler & Shaver, 2005; Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher & James, 2002; Brookhart & Loadman, 1996);

(g) comparisons of pre-service teachers’ attitudes towards children and how this changed over the course of their teacher education program (Anderson & Anderson, 1995);

(h) females in economics tend to be marginalised and experience predominately the white male point of view with all other groups relegated to special case sections (Thornton, 1994; Bartlett & Feiner, 1992);

(i) females in science have been hindered from achievements for the past thirty years and educational institutions have been encouraging more women into what has been perceived as a male dominated field of study and career path (Blickenstaff, 2005; Pasztor & Slater, 2000; Adelman, 1998; Reid & Caudwell, 1997; Norby, 1997; Hegarty-Hazel, 1993; Kearney, 1993; Anderson, 1993; Allen, 1993; Lewis, 1993);

(j) females in maths have been discouraged due to gender discriminations in the past from the mathematic field but new directions in education in both secondary and tertiary are encouraging more and more females into this field (Blickenstaff, 2005; Aldridge & Bobis, 2001; Pasztor & Slater, 2000; Allen, 1993; Leder, 1989; Barnes, 1988); and

(k) females in information technology have been analysed and evaluated for the progress they have made in gender equity in this career field as a means to further encourage more females into this career path (Blickenstaff, 2005; Norby, 1997; Clark, 1992, 1990).

This body of research has tended to focus its reporting from the point of view of the teacher educator and the implications for teacher education. But it has
not focused on pre-service teachers’ self-reflections and beliefs about teaching, students and content (Kagan, 1990).

1.9 What research is still missing?

More than a decade after Brookhart and Freeman’s (1992) identification of previous shortcomings and gaps in the research about pre-service teachers, one of the promising research questions for future study still remains: How do entering teacher candidates’ orientations and beliefs influence their actions as teachers in the classroom setting? (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992, p. 56). Having set out ten guidelines to enhance both the quality and significance of future research on the characteristics of entering teacher candidates, the 43 studies conducted in this area since have been shown to be limited by one or more of these standards. Research articles and papers have been written to support the qualitative research work into pre-service teachers’ beliefs as to the type of teacher they see themselves but as yet only one attempt have been made in Australasia (Sexton, 2002) to explore this field. As stated, this was a single institution study focusing on only postgraduate teacher candidates and failed to adequately address the research agenda raised by Brookhart and Freeman.

A special edition of the Teacher Education Quarterly devoted to the use of personal histories in teacher education was edited by Knowles and Holt-Reynolds (1994). This issue compiled the ideas and thoughts of those researchers (Bullough, Connelly & Clandinin, Knowles and Holt-Reynolds) predominantly working in the field of teacher narratives. The issue contained articles and case studies supporting the importance and relevance of narrative enquiry. There is a need for an increase in the use of qualitative methodologies but not at the exclusion of quantitative methods. Similarly there is the need for combining research methodologies to best approach each research question being studied. This combination of methods would allow future research designs to better meet the guidelines proposed by Brookhart and Freeman.
But where do pre-service teachers’ preconceptions, specifically those of male primary, female secondary and non-traditional student teachers, come from? How do they get them? And why do they have them? How do these three groups of entry-level pre-service teachers interpret prior teaching experiences as to the type of teacher they do and do not want to become? This question has not been fully addressed previously and is the focus for this present study. The next chapter addresses the reasons why a mixed-model research design is most appropriate to address these research questions.
2 Methodology rationale

The present study’s research question, *How do pre-service teacher candidates interpret prior teacher experiences as to the type of teacher they do and do not want to become?*, required an exploration of remembered student-teacher and teacher-student interactions. As previously discussed, it was those schooling experiences that have helped inform pre-service teachers’ own ideas of what a teacher was and did. Additionally, these interactions were their own ideas and images of what they believe they would be in the classroom. Therefore it was the unpacking and analysis of these preconceptions and beliefs that have been formed out of pre-service teachers’ prior experiences that were the focus of this study.

This chapter first examines the reasons why a mixed-model study design was most appropriate to address the research questions. Second, an analysis of the 2004 pilot study is followed by the study conducted in 2005. Finally conclusions are drawn about the study’s methodology.

As stated, a mixed-model research design that combined the quantitative and qualitative methodologies within different phases of the research process best explored the present study’s research question. This mixed-model design provided the breadth and depth that was needed to employ the interpretive paradigm. Bryman (1992) highlighted this when explaining those research methodologies strongly associated with quantitative and qualitative research. The techniques of self-administered questionnaires and semi- or unstructured interviewing were traditionally associated with opposing research paradigms. However, a combination of both of these research approaches utilising their strengths allowed the present study to overcome each approach’s limitations (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell, 1994). Specifically, the identification of referents, those beliefs that act as a guide to the actions of an individual (Tobin & Tippins, 1996, p. 716), that appear to
underlie pre-service teachers’ reported metaphors provided the basis for rewarding narratives about prior teacher experiences.

2.1 Introduction

The need for a mixed-model research design was based on the fact that both quantitative and qualitative methodologies had been used separately for this research topic. Mahlios and Maxson (1998, 1995) used the questionnaire *What Was School Like?* on two sample populations of pre-service teachers enrolled in university teacher education programs, analysed the data for emerging relationships among the variables and provided statistical data as to pre-service teachers’ interpretations of prior schooling experiences. These studies sought to establish relationships between variables that could then be inferred to the population (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996; Brannen, 1992; Bryman, 1992). For example in Mahlios and Maxson’s 1995 study: for both levels of schooling, students preferred images that were of a positive, social phenomenon (p. 196). Their 1998 study revealed that some perspectives of pre-service teachers were predictable (p. 238) as primary teachers are seen as nurturant and secondary teachers as discipline focused; while other perspectives were not since primary teacher candidates showed no interest in the intellectual quality of their perceived school administrators while secondary teacher candidates preferred this quality (Mahlios & Maxson, 1998, p. 238). However, quantitative research looks deductively at a specified set of variables and would be ineffective in exploring how pre-service teachers interpreted those experiences.

The qualitative methodologies of case study, interview, written analysis and phenomenological analysis have also been applied to this research topic as a means of tracking changes in pre-service teachers’ interpretations (Von Wright, 1997; Bullough & Stokes, 1994). Qualitative research can help explain the underlying factors of relationships and is usually driven by the research participants’ concerns observing phenomena as a total and in a complete context rather than dividing into parts to examine and analyse selected variables to determine the inter-relationships (Taylor, 2000;
Brannen, 1992; Bryman, 1992). The qualitative approach of life histories gathers the data necessary to establish the broad relationships and then further explores them (Richardson, 1996; Lancy, 1993). However, this method typically involves studying a small number of participants through extensive and prolonged engagements (Creswell, 1994) using semi- and unstructured interviews. Most importantly, this study was concerned with prior teacher experiences and how they were interpreted and not necessarily the participants’ whole life histories. As stated, life stories allowed me to limit the scope of interviews to those remembered experiences of prior schooling. It was only those recollections, experiences that were less the reproduction of the past than its synoptic understanding from the vantage point of the present (Freeman, Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1986, p. 168), that were directly related to prior school experiences which were sought and elicited in the interviews.

In addition, how pre-service teachers interpreted prior teacher experiences necessitated a view of the human condition that was far too complex to be regulated to just one approach (Taylor, 2000; Jones, 1983). After considering both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies, I decided that a research design of mixed-models (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) was needed. The mixed-model design facilitated selecting the most appropriate method for each phase of the research process. Through careful and purposeful combination of different research methods, breadth and depth would be added to the study (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Dhunpath, 2000; Bell, 1999; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell, 1994; Fielding & Fielding, 1986).

To better explore this study’s research question, mixed-model research utilised data collection that included close-ended items with numerical responses in conjunction with open-ended items on the same survey instrument. In addition, qualitative data was also able to be converted into numbers through quantitizing techniques (see Miles & Huberman, 1994) for quantitative analysis. Similarly, the study’s data analysis was able to incorporate both factor analysis of Likert scaled items and the use of the
constant comparative method to analyse narrative responses to open-ended questions theoretically linked to the Likert scales. This mixed-model research study mixed the quantitative and qualitative approaches throughout the planning of the research design, the data collection, data analysis and inferences processes (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

To gain the maximum benefit of the mixed-model research design, the data analysis of the present study made use of the sequential mixed-methodological analysis techniques as proposed by Witcher, Onwuegbuzie and Minor (2001). This analysis required that the results from one data-analytical method inform the use of the other method. For this study, the sequential mixed-methodological analysis began with a quantitative summary of the survey instrument. This was used to inform the qualitative analysis of the open-ended questions and reasons for reporting prior schooling experiences with selected metaphors. This qualitative analysis was then used to inform the quantitative analysis of the qualitative survey instrument analysis data. Finally, the qualitative analysis of the interviews built upon the results of the first three data-analytic methods, see Figure 1, below:
2.2 Research Design

The present study sought different levels of enquiry and the ability to explore different aspects of the same problem (Brannen, 1992). First, phase 1 used quantitative and qualitative analysis of the self-administered questionnaire *What Was School Like?* (see Appendix B, pp. 12-16). Second, phase 2 used a qualitative analysis of life story accounts gathered in semi- and unstructured interviews (see Appendix C, pp. 17-20 for interview protocol) to explore how pre-service teachers interpreted prior teacher experiences. Finally, phase 3 re-interviewed the participating teacher candidates from phase 2 about their preconceptions and beliefs after reflecting upon their first student teaching experience (see Appendix D, pp. 21-23 for interview protocol).

2.3 Participants

2.3.1 Phase 1

The sample for Phase 1 consisted of all university students who successfully applied for enrolment into the 2005 teacher education programs at: The University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia; and The University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand, see Table 2, p. 58.

By approaching teacher candidates from both Australia and New Zealand, the present study aimed to gain a deeper insight into teacher candidate beliefs and preconceptions from the Australasian teacher population by allowing for cross-cultural (Spooney, 2003) comparisons among the sample population. The University of Sydney, Faculty of Education attracts a significant self-identified Asian student population, 17.9% in 2004 (Miller, 2004) and 17.7% in 2005 (Ledger, 2005) with the majority of students (70.7%) self-identified as Australian. The remaining 11.6% comprised of those from Europe (4.4%), Africa (2.1%), North America (1.8%), Indian sub-continent (1.7%), Middle East (.8%) and South America (.8%). In 2005 The University of Auckland, Faculty of Education was comprised of 15% New
Zealand Maori and 16% Pacific Islander student populations (Edmonds, 2005) with the majority self-identified as European/Pakeha (60.1%). The remaining 8.9% were almost equally from North America, Europe and Indian sub-continent.

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<td>• Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Education (Teaching)</td>
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<td>• Bachelor of Education (Secondary Humanities and Social Science)/Bachelor of Arts</td>
<td>• Bachelor of Education (Teaching)/Bachelor of Science</td>
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<td>• Bachelor of Education (Secondary Science)/Bachelor of Science</td>
<td>• Bachelor of Music Education</td>
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<td>• Bachelor of Education (Secondary Mathematics)/Bachelor of Science</td>
<td>• Bachelor of Education (Secondary Design and Technology)</td>
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Table 2: Participating Teacher Education Programs

All prospective degree program students were invited to complete the questionnaire (see Appendix B) after their acceptance into the program by their respective university. All candidates, defined as those students who
successfully enrolled into a teacher education program, were given the opportunity to participate in the study. Candidates included those individuals who were offered second or third round acceptance into the program in early 2005. In anticipation of the highest possible return rate for phase 1 of the study, the candidates were given the opportunity to complete the questionnaire when they attended their respective course’s registration or orientation. Historically, questionnaire-return rates are low (Cohen et al., 2000) and therefore it was anticipated that questionnaire distributions at the respective orientations and registrations would result in a higher return rate.

The questionnaire’s cover letter encouraged the participants, defined as those candidates who voluntarily agreed to complete the questionnaire, to complete the survey as a means of preparation for their teacher education program (see Appendix E, p. 24). As stated, teacher education programs acknowledge that teacher candidates enter their respective programs with preconceptions about teaching and their role as the teacher. These education programs then employ various practices to encourage teacher candidates to consider these and modify them by incorporating other effective practices.

The questionnaire took approximately fifteen minutes to complete. A return rate of at least 50% was desired (Cohen et al., 2000), as the sample for phase 2 was drawn from phase 1. The participants were requested to return the questionnaire upon its completion at either the course registration or orientation. Prepaid envelopes were made available for those participants unable to complete the questionnaire at this time and return was requested within ten days (Cohen et al., 2000). The response rate determined the scope at which the sample population represented the target population of student teachers. The sample was then analysed for: gender; primary or secondary education program; and age. The participants’ reported age allowed for the student teachers to be classified as either traditional, those students who were either undergraduates or had recently graduated and decided upon teaching as a profession (Powell, 1992, p. 227), or non-traditional, those students who decided upon teaching after having been in
other careers or caring full time for their children for a portion of their lives (Powell, 1992, p. 227). Seven areas phase 1 of the present study sought to gain insight into about were do different pre-service teachers within teacher education interpreted prior experiences differently, to include:

1. Do male and female student teachers interpret prior teacher experiences differently?
2. Do primary and secondary education major teacher candidates interpret prior teacher experiences differently?
3. Do male primary and male secondary teacher candidates interpret prior teacher experiences differently?
4. Do female primary and female secondary student teachers interpret prior teacher experiences differently?
5. Do undergraduate and post-graduate teacher candidates interpret prior teacher experiences differently?
6. Do traditional and non-traditional teacher candidates interpret prior teacher experiences differently? and
7. Do student teachers enrolled into The University of Sydney interpret prior teacher experiences differently than those enrolled into The University of Auckland?

2.3.2 Phase 2

Participants for the phase 2 interviews were selected from the survey respondents in phase 1 who agreed to be interviewed. Weinstein (1989) noted that in ‘teacher education students’ preconception of teaching’ open-ended questions resulted in categories of similar themes. Mahlios and Maxson (1995) using a form of the questionnaire also used for this study, noted that respondents’ selection of metaphors fell into a limited number of preferred metaphor categories. That study reported students remembered their primary experience as being ‘in a family’ (52%) or ‘on a team’ (24%). Students also selected the family (63%) and team (27%) metaphors for how primary school should have been. The two metaphors ‘flower blossoming’ (64%) and ‘bubbling spring’ (14%) accounted for nearly 80% of the responses describing childhood. Mahlios and Maxson’s 1998 study utilised their 1995 research study design for secondary education participants. These results were then compared and contrasted to the 1995 primary education candidates. As insightful as these findings were about how the
participating pre-service teachers saw teaching, the present study’s focus was on why the metaphors were selected and not just which metaphors were selected.

While all teacher candidates enrolling into teacher education programs at the two respective universities were included in phase 1 of the study, only male primary, female secondary and non-traditional teacher candidates were targeted for the remainder of the study. As stated, these three teacher groups emerged from a previous study (Sexton, 2002) with both the most striking similarities within a teacher group and differences that set them apart from the other teacher groups.

Mahlios and Maxson (1998, 1995) and Mahlios (2002) used a form of the questionnaire *What Was School Like?* and conducted statistical analysis using frequency counts, chi-square and analysis of variance. These studies' primary foci were on quantitative analysis of the ideal characteristics and selected metaphors. However, as my study’s focus was on how pre-service teachers interpreted prior experiences, the initial analysis focused on participants’ self-esteem, the belief and confidence in one’s own ability (Brookhart & Freedman, 1992, p. 48). The focus on self-esteem allowed for each participant to be placed into categories for interview selection purposes (see Table 3, p. 62). This provided a sample of as broad a range as possible of the teacher candidates according to gender, educational major, educational career path cross-referenced to self-esteem self-rating. It was this sampling of the student teacher populations that enabled me to address the seven sub-questions of the research question.

This initial quantitative analysis of phase 1 yielded four possible categories of self-esteem into which respondents were placed: very high, high, medium and low for: males and females; primary and secondary education majors; and traditional and non-traditional students (see Table 3, p. 62). Of these twenty-four categories, only the twelve categories relating to male primary, female secondary and non-traditional student teachers were sought for the remainder of the study. Even though these three teacher categories were
targeted for phase 2, this did not exclude those interviewees which could possibly have also been placed into the other twelve non-targeted categories; such as those non-traditional student teachers who were also female primary teacher candidates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very High Self-Esteem</th>
<th>High Self-Esteem</th>
<th>Medium Self-Esteem</th>
<th>Low Self-Esteem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Primary</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Secondary</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Primary</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Secondary</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Students</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Interview Categories

For this study, the maximum self-esteem score was 1.0 while the lowest was 4.0. Very high was defined as the highest ten percent of the range (1.0 – 1.3), high was 1.31 – 1.6, medium was 1.61 – 2.5 and low was greater than 2.51. Four participants per category (two undergraduate and two postgraduate for the primary and secondary categories; two male and two female for the non-traditional student categories) provided a greater depth and breadth in exploring how pre-service teachers interpreted prior experiences by allowing an investigation of responses from a wide range of candidates entering the teacher education programs.

The audio-taped interviews took up to one hour and were conducted on the respective university campus of each respondent in their Faculty of Education Buildings. All phase 2 interviews were conducted prior to the commencement of the 2005 teacher education coursework due to course content potentially altering pre-existing preconceptions and beliefs (Phelan & McLaughlin, 1995; Mahlios & Maxson, 1995; Connelly & Clandinin, 1994; Hollingsworth, 1989; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984).
Unfortunately, as this study was concerned with the preconceptions and beliefs participating teacher candidates brought with them to their educational program, those participants who failed to complete the questionnaire at registration or orientation and chose to return them by the pre-paid envelopes were not all able to be considered for interviews due to program course commencement.

2.3.3 Phase 3

Participants for phase 3 consisted of those participants from phase 2 who voluntarily agreed to be re-interviewed. Phase 3 was designed to allow a revisit to those participants from phase 2 in order to report on how these pre-service teachers saw themselves in the role of teacher after being in the classroom as a student teacher and not a student.

Whether student teachers were entering teacher education as male or females in primary or secondary education and identified as either traditional or non-traditional, they all bring their own personal experiences and perspectives with them. They were all training to become teachers. How their first teaching practicum affected their beliefs and self-as-teacher role identity were the foci of the phase 3 interviews.

2.4 The Instrument

To identify the relationships that existed between how pre-service teachers interpret prior schooling experiences, the questionnaire *What Was School Like?* (see Appendix B) was used. Professor Yamamoto originally designed this questionnaire as a three-part questionnaire using those metaphors commonly used to describe schooling (Hardcastle, Yamamoto, Parkey & Chan, 1985). A further three sections were added by Mahlios and Maxson using those metaphors and constructs to describe childhood, life, teaching and ideal characteristics (Mahlios & Maxson, 1995). This questionnaire also had a research history with cross-cultural populations, established validity and research use in both its original and modified forms (Mahlios, 2002;

As this questionnaire was never published, Professor Mahlios was contacted for permission to use the questionnaire referenced in a 1995 study (Mahlios & Maxson, 1995) about pre-service teachers' beliefs about schooling. He agreed to seek permission on my behalf from the questionnaire’s originator, Professor Yamamoto (Hardcastle et al., 1985). Permission was granted on the condition that Professor Yamamoto was recognised as the original author of the instrument.

Part 1 requested demographic data, such as age, gender and education major. Part 2 asked participants to recall both their primary and secondary school days and then choose from a list of metaphors, or write in their own metaphor, that best described these educational experiences. The participants were then asked to provide written reasons for their choices. As this study’s focus was on why metaphors were selected, the possibility of choosing more than one metaphor on any section of the instrument did not adversely skew the results. On the contrary, it allowed for greater depth of enquiry in phase 2 of the study. Specifically, the metaphorical images selected allowed me to gain a better understanding of how the participating student teachers constructed their meaning about their prior experiences. Part 3 asked participants to describe, using the same metaphor list used in Part 2, what their ideal school environment for both primary and secondary levels should have been like. They were then asked to provide reasons as to why they had made these choices. Part 4 asked participants to describe themselves using a four-point Likert scale inventory of self-esteem adapted from the short form of the Coopersmith (1967) Self-Esteem Inventory. Part 5 asked participants to provide their own metaphor for their ‘sense of Teaching’ and provide the reason for their metaphorical choice. Part 6(a) requested the participants to select any eight characteristics from a list of 62, Part 6(b), to describe their ideal student and ideal teacher.
2.5 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted using teacher candidates entering the 2004 teacher education programs at The University of Sydney and The University of Auckland. As stated, this study used a modified questionnaire that was used in a previous study (Sexton, 2002). This previous study indicated that several sections of the questionnaire should be removed, as they were unrelated to the study and increased the time to complete the questionnaire. The pilot study was conducted in order to verify the validity and reliability of the modified questionnaire and subsequent interview protocol.

The pilot study questionnaire was offered to 180 teacher candidates at The University of Sydney (55.6%) and The University of Auckland (44.4%) at the respective registrations. Due to time constraints in obtaining ethics approval from both participating universities not all entering teacher candidates were approached for inclusion in the pilot study. Those teacher candidates that were approached represented the target population of entering teacher candidates including: male primary undergraduate and postgraduate, female secondary undergraduate and postgraduate and non-traditional undergraduate and postgraduate teacher candidates along with male secondary, female primary and traditional teacher candidates. Sixty-three of the 180 questionnaires were returned (35% return rate) of which thirty-six were from The University of Sydney and twenty-seven from The University of Auckland. The low return rate may be attributed in part to the questionnaire being handed out at registration when many of the candidates could have had other pressing matters to deal with and therefore were reluctant to complete the questionnaire on site. The majority of the sixty-three returned questionnaires (65.1%) were returned on the day while waiting in line and the other 34.9% of the questionnaires taken home were returned using the supplied self-addressed stamped envelopes.

The University of Sydney candidates comprised ten undergraduate and twenty-six postgraduate teacher candidates. Nine were enrolling into primary education and twenty-seven into secondary education programs. Eleven
were male teacher candidates and twenty-five were female teacher candidates. The University of Auckland candidates consisted of twenty-one undergraduate students and six postgraduate students. There were twenty-two primary education and five secondary education majors. Nine were male candidates and eighteen were female.

The quantitative and qualitative analysis of the modified questionnaire resulted in no change to the questionnaire’s ability to allow participants to report on their own prior schooling experiences and how they saw the ideal student or teacher. Participants reported that their overall school experiences were positive, primary school was and should have been like being ‘in a family’; secondary school was and should have been like being ‘on a team.’ Primary school was described as being looked after with fond memories by 54%, while it should have been nurturing and inclusive by 63.4%. Secondary school was described in more diverse terms: not being part of it by 30.1%, being part of it by 19%, fun and friends by 12.7% and competitive by 12.7%. Almost three-quarters of all participants felt that secondary school should have been fun, worthwhile and inclusive. Teaching was seen as something that had profound impact on students by 23.8%; 14.3% saw it as an opportunity to either pass onto or give back to the next generation what they had received; and another 14.3% reported teachers were ‘guides’ to their students’ learning. A summary of the participants’ perceptions of the top eight characteristics of an ideal student and teacher are presented in Table 4, below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Top 8 Ideal Student Characteristics</th>
<th>Out of 63</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Top 8 Ideal Teacher Characteristics</th>
<th>Out of 63</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Curious</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>71.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent Thinking</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive to Others’ Ideas</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considerate</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>Receptive to Others’ Ideas</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>Versatile</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistent</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>Intuitive</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire to Excel</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>Persistent</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Pilot Study Ideal Student and Teacher Characteristics
The first phase analysis of the pilot study indicated that the modified questionnaire was appropriate to the present study’s research question. Participants were able to use the questionnaire to report on their own prior schooling experiences and how they saw teaching, the ideal student and their ideal teacher. It was with this analysis that the interview protocol for phases 2 and 3 was developed.

For phase 2, nineteen of the possible 48 interviews were conducted (see Table 5, below). As noted in the previous study (Sexton, 2002), few teacher candidates rated themselves with very low self-esteem. In the pilot study most teacher candidates (67.9%) fell into the medium range of self-esteem; none rated themselves with low self-esteem; and there was only one male primary candidate rating himself as having very high or high self-esteem. Therefore only twenty-three out of the possible 48 interviews could have been selected for interview; unfortunately out of these twenty-three only nineteen voluntarily agreed to be interviewed (those in bold in Table 5, below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very High Self-Esteem</th>
<th>High Self-Esteem</th>
<th>Medium Self-Esteem</th>
<th>Low Self-Esteem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4292</td>
<td>4349</td>
<td>4304, 4305, 4348, 4351, 4359, 4360</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4202, 4208, 4112, 4066</td>
<td>4102, 4345, 4347</td>
<td>4019, 4046, 4132, 4174, 4226, 4229, 4014, 4038, 4068, 4078, 4147, 4308</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Traditional Students</td>
<td>4161, 4292, 4350, 4352</td>
<td>4023, 4077, 4347, 4349</td>
<td>4022, 4082, 4221, 4223, 4277, 4014, 4016, 4165, 4224, 4239, 4276, 4306, 4346, 4348, 4351, 4353, 4359, 4360</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: 2004 Pilot Study Interviews

The phase 2 interviews verified that the participants were able to use the interview protocol’s guided questions about their responses to the questionnaire to reflect and recollect those prior teacher experiences that they had used to inform their teacher-as-self role identity. There were thirty-
one positive teacher examples that were explicitly remembered by the teacher candidates with one teacher candidate clearly remembering six prior teachers. In contrast there were only eleven negatively remembered teacher examples. Eight of these teacher candidates had no negative memories from their schooling and seven had only one negatively recalled teaching example. Of the nineteen teacher candidates, only two of them were able to recall two negative teachers. No teacher candidate remembered more than two teachers who they felt were examples of bad teaching. In addition to these explicit memories, there were six references to all their teachers in general as being positive and seven references as all teachers being negative. Only one teacher candidate remembered all his/her teachers as negative examples.

From these prior experiences in the classroom, nine of the participating teacher candidates in the pilot study saw their role as the teacher as someone who was needed or required by their students. They were needed/required to provide critical thinking skills to their students to show them that they were able to find out for themselves what the truth/reality was. Eight of the candidates saw their role from the point of view of a classroom manager. If the students were under control and held on task then learning would take place and their job as the teacher would not only be easier but also could be accomplished. Three of the candidates saw the teacher from the point of view of the students that they were. What they liked as a student was what they believed their students would enjoy and engage in as well and in doing so, their students would respond in the same way to teaching as they did with their teachers.

The phase 3 interviews were designed for the participants to re-visit their responses to the survey instrument and phase 2 interviews and then report on how their first teaching practice had affected their original beliefs. The pilot study interviews did not provide any significant insights into how these participating teacher candidates saw themselves as the teacher. Those teacher candidates (73.7%) who had favourable teaching practica reported that their preconceptions and beliefs were accurate and therefore no
changes were reported. These interviews averaged slightly less than ten minutes, as the candidates felt they had nothing more to contribute. Those candidates who had negative teaching experiences (23.4%) still felt that in no way were their beliefs or preconceptions adversely affected. They reported that when they have their ‘own classes’ their beliefs and preconceptions would be confirmed. These interviews averaged just over 15 minutes in length, as the candidates were able to recount specific examples of why the negative teaching experiences were not their fault.

2.5.1 Lessons learned from the pilot study

The pilot study’s phases 1 and 2 supported the suitability of the study’s survey instrument and interview protocol. The modified survey instrument reduced the amount of time required to complete the questionnaire and may help to account for the increased return rate from a previous study’s 25% (Sexton, 2002) to the present study’s 40.2%. However, there were five areas highlighted by the pilot study, of which, only two were addressed prior to the commencement of the present study.

The first area highlighted in the pilot study addressed was the need to increase the number of interviewees. The present study sought to address the greatest range of entering teacher candidates, and needed to account for the different genders and education programs in Table 5 (p. 66). Male primary candidates and female secondary candidates could be either undergraduates or post-graduates. To classify them in only one category would limit the present study’s significance and therefore four candidates were targeted in the present study. Similarly, traditional and non-traditional candidates could be either male or female. Therefore four candidates in each of these categories were also targeted to better represent to sample population.

The second area addressed was the ideal student’s characteristic data. The pilot study’s candidates’ views of their ideal student were only used to help further establish the context of prior schooling experiences in their interviews.
As it was important to establish the schooling context, this portion of the survey instrument was retained in the interview protocol. While the pilot study demonstrated the ideal student’s characteristic were not relevant to addressing the research question, this data was utilised in the actual study. How the participating male primary, female secondary and non-traditional student teachers saw their students was needed for the discussions.

There were three areas highlighted by the pilot study that could not be addressed: phase 3 interview significance; greater ethnic diversity of The University of Auckland; and one researcher attempting to schedule and conduct interviews in two countries simultaneously. The phase 3 interviews did not generate any arguments or reasons as to why these student teachers still held to their beliefs and preconceptions about themselves as teachers. The present study continued with the proposed three-phase research study to examine whether a longer period of time would be needed between phases 2 and 3. It is possible that phase 3 should be conducted after the teacher candidates’ first year of teaching and not their first student teaching experience.

The University of Sydney in 2005 comprised 70.7% students self-described as Australians of European backgrounds and 17.7% who identified themselves as Asian with the remaining 11.6% representing other Western or European countries, such as New Zealand, American and England. While the Asian category comprised of students ranging from Japan, China to Singapore, this difference in ethnic origin did not come out as important to the interviewees in their interviews. This was not the case with those student candidates from The University of Auckland. These students saw their ethnicity and its influence upon their beliefs and attitudes as particularly significant as many were first generation migrants to New Zealand. The New Zealand teaching population reflects this cultural attitude\(^2\) and therefore I made every attempt to accommodate the necessary cultural protocols expected in building a relationship with members of these Pacific Island
communities. For example, these protocols required me to meet with Olivia three times to establish a familiarity prior to her actual interview – this was deemed necessary as she was the only teacher candidate who rated herself with low self-esteem and who was willing to be interviewed.

This led directly to the third highlighted area that could not be addressed. As I was conducting all the interviews, the logistics of travelling between New Zealand and Australia to contact, schedule and then conduct each interview prior to course commencement became increasingly difficult. As the course start dates became impending, those interviewees who cancelled for personal reasons were not always able to be rescheduled or replaced.

2.6 The Study

As mentioned, the present study was conducted in three phases and gathered data from the students entering the teacher education programs at The University of Sydney and The University of Auckland in the first semester of 2005. In phase 1, 880 teacher education students were given the opportunity to voluntarily participate in the study. From these participants, thirty-five were interviewed in phase 2 about their responses to the survey instrument. These same thirty-five student teachers were then interviewed again in late 2005 following their first teaching practicum to explore how their beliefs about teaching and themselves as teacher had been informed by the practical teaching experience. It was anticipated that most of the respondents would be more than willing to answer the questions about their prior experiences as they had volunteered to be interviewed. The interviews were then analysed for trends and differences between the three groups: male primary, female secondary and non-traditional student teachers.

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2 See TeachNZ website for links describing Pacific Island, Maori, other Non-New Zealand trained and New Zealand trained teachers’ experiences and participation in education - www.teachnz.govt.nz
2.6.1 Phase 1

All 880 students enrolling in their 2005 university degree program at The University of Sydney and Auckland leading to a teacher certification were invited to complete the survey. 354 surveys were returned (40.2%) for inclusion in the study. 146 out of 667 (21.9%) were returned from candidates at The University of Sydney and 208 out of 213 (97.7%) were returned from The University of Auckland. It should be noted that The University of Auckland allowed me to address enrolling students as an entire group and provided an hour of their orientation session for completion of the survey instrument. Only five student teachers declined to complete the questionnaire. In contrast, students enrolling at The University of Sydney were addressed individually and asked to complete the questionnaire while waiting in line for registration or orientation. Most (85.3%) declined to complete the questionnaire on the day. Out of the 146 who returned the questionnaire, 98 did so on the day with the remaining returning them via pre-paid envelopes. This makes direct comparisons between the two programs very difficult.

2.6.1.1 Quantitative analysis

As stated, the initial quantitative focused on placing participants into self-esteem categories cross-referenced by demographics for selection of phase 2 interviews. The second quantitative analysis was on reported school experiences. This focus on school experiences explored the study participants’ interpretation of prior experiences. How did each student teacher remember what their school experiences were like and what would they have wanted their experiences to have been like? This enabled a comparison between participant groups within teacher education programs and a tailored interview schedule for each respondent.

Data was initially entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and then loaded into the University of Sydney’s Graduate Computer Laboratory computer to facilitate the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS)
version 10 software (Antoniou, 2003; Miller, Acton, Fullerton & Maltby, 2002; Pavkov, 1999; Bryman & Cramer, 1997; Argyrous, 1996). For negatively worded items in the self-esteem portion of the instrument (see Appendix B, pp. 13-14), the scores were re-coded after entering them into SPSS. For example, SA (coded 1) and A (coded 2) on negatively worded questions were re-coded to SD (coded 4) and D (coded 3), respectively. This allowed for participants to be placed into one of the four categories of self-esteem.

In a similar manner, all variables were quantised for frequency counting purposes. Variables were assigned an arbitrary number which allowed SPSS to determine the total number of respondents who indicated the same response to the survey item. For example, the variable ‘overallpri’ was used to record participants’ selection of how they perceived their overall primary school experience. This variable was coded as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Positive assigned} & = 1 \\
\text{Neutral assigned} & = 2 \\
\text{Negative assigned} & = 3 \\
\text{Mixed assigned} & = 4
\end{align*}
\]

All variables were given a level of measurement of nominal or ordinal for SPSS analysis. Those dichotomous variables such as Undergraduate or Post-graduate and Primary or Secondary were assigned nominal level of measurements as there was a difference between categories but no meaningful order (Miller et al., 2002). While those variables such as Age and Self-Esteem were assigned a level of measurement of ordinal as there was a difference between categories plus a meaningful order such as progressive age or the self-esteem’s 4-point Likert scale (Miller et al., 2002).

The survey instrument requested the respondents to list any eight of the descriptive characteristics for what they saw as their ideal student and ideal teacher (see Appendix B, part 6, pp. 15-16). In order to determine the frequency count of each ideal characteristic the responses were quantized (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 42). For the study, ‘1’ was assigned to each of
the ideal characteristics when selected by a respondent and ‘0’ to all others not selected. In SPSS this was accomplished for each of the 62 ideal student and 62 ideal teacher characteristics using ‘Recode’ procedures (see Appendix G, pp. 210-216 for an explanation of the steps and procedures used to manipulate the survey data for statistical analysis).

The survey instrument data was then ready for quantitative analysis to include frequency counts, chi square and analysis of variance. As noted by Daniel and Onwuegbuzie (2002) and Minor et al. (2001), reliability coefficients should always be reported for the data. Frequency counts allowed for an examination of the data for trends among the responses and to highlight any trends and anomalies that were apparent.

Chi-square ($\chi^2$) is a test to determine whether or not two different samples are different enough in some variable that can be generalised from the sample that the population from which the samples were taken was also different in the characteristic. This is a test of whether or not a null hypothesis of no association should be rejected and does not measure the degree of the relationship (Rozell, 1999). If the observed frequency differs from the expected frequency by more than what can be attributed to chance, the null hypothesis is rejected; meaning a difference does exists between the averages or means of the two groups (Fink, 1995). Therefore the chi-square only ascertains if two or more variables are significantly related. It must be noted that the chi-square indicates that the larger the discrepancy between the actual number observed and the expected number in each category, the more likely the population values were not distributed proportionally. In other words, the larger the discrepancy, the larger the chi-square value will be, and the more likely the null hypothesis is rejected.

Variance is an expression of the dispersion of data around the mean (Burns, 2000). The differences in variance, or variability, may be of interest in their own right as there may be no difference in mean scores. For example, it may be reasonable to suppose that the variability of overall school experience of female primary teachers will be greater than male primary teachers, but that
there will be no difference in their mean scores. If such were the case, then it would be necessary to highlight the differences between the variances.

As stated, the study’s survey instrument had an established history of use in cross-cultural populations, and established reliability and validity. However, reliability and validity are functions of scores and not the instrument itself (Onwuegbuzie & Daniels, 1999). Therefore both needed to be reported for the data being analysed.

Correlation coefficients are used as a primary mode of analysis in which major hypotheses are tested or as part of a secondary analysis providing background information regarding relationships among variables of interest (Onwuegbuzie & Daniels, 1999). In this study, correlation coefficients were used for both reasons. First to help address the seven sub-questions of the research topic and then to add weight to the analysis of narratives generated from the interviews. Even though the study was limited in scope and time, empirical replicability of the coefficients were conducted using the data taken from the pilot study as it was conducted under similar conditions as the research study, thereby conducting an external replication (Huberty & Wisnenbaker, 1992).

It must be noted that five assumptions were required to be met before conducting correlation coefficients (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 1999):

1. each observation of the dependent variable must be independent of every other observation;
2. the dependent variable must be normally distributed;
3. the variability in scores for the dependent variable was approximately the same at all values of the independent variable, i.e. homoscedasticity,
4. all variables were measured without error; and
5. the relationship between the two variables was linear.

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3 For each teacher group there is a corresponding appendix that presents all statistical analysis conducted using SPSS, to include: chi-squares, variance, and reliability coefficients.
To satisfy the first assumption, each participant completed the survey independently from every other participant. This allowed each participant to report his or her own ideas and beliefs. In the Appendixes H through X proffering the statistical analysis for the sample population and sub-groups, histograms with normal plots were displayed to verify normality. Similarly, bivariate scatter plots verified the homoscedasticity. Finally, bivariate scatter plots also verified the linearity of the relationship between variables.

As the study sought to identify if different subpopulations entering their teacher education programs in 2005 interpreted prior teaching experiences differently, the use of frequency counts first highlighted those trends and anomalies that emerged in the reported responses of the participants. Chi-square tests determined if the null hypothesis for each subpopulation could be rejected. Variance analysis allowed for further refined data analysis to uncover those responses that indicated no difference in mean score but did in fact have a much greater variability in reported responses. Reliability coefficients ascertained whether or not there was a correlation between variables (see Appendixes H through X).

2.6.1.2 Qualitative analysis

The six open-ended questions in the instrument were employed in the semi-structured phase of the interview schedule to ‘guide’ (Wetherell, 2003) the respondents in providing clarifying information. There were four questions, which asked respondents to describe the reasons behind what their education experiences were and should have been like for both primary and secondary school. The fifth and sixth questions related to how they described their ‘sense of Teaching’ indicating what they saw as the role of the teacher and reasons why this was their view of teaching.

All survey instruments had open-ended question responses typed into Microsoft Word files to facilitate Glasser and Strauss’ (1967) constant comparative method for analysis. All reported responses for each open-ended question were examined to uncover those common themes that
emerged from the data. This required an initial coding of responses by the
key words as they were reported. After the initial reading, those categories
that were seen to be similar in nature where then combined. Similarly, those
categories that indicated two distinct themes were split to best represent
what was reported by the participants. Three categories describing primary
school for example, ‘lost’, ‘isolated’ and ‘nameless’, were combined because
they described primary school as separate. One category that was split was
respondent’s view of how they saw teaching. It was initially labelled ‘teacher
influence’ until the two distinct themes of ‘having a profound impact’ and
‘passing on or giving back’ necessitated a re-organisation to account for two
different reasons teachers influenced or had an influence on their students. It
was these themes that were used to report on the sample population and
provide the basis for comparisons between the sample population and sub-
populations within the teacher education program.

2.6.1.3 Phase 1 Data Synthesis

Using this initial SPSS analyses, the seven sub-questions to the research
question were addressed (Erickson, 1986). Prior research into teacher
cognition has shown that pre-service teachers in teacher education programs
were not one homogenous group and had reportable differences among the
subpopulations within the group in regards to:

(a) dispositions of pre-service teachers (Maylone, 2002);
(b) reasons for choosing teaching (Richardson & Watt, 2005;
Finnie, 2004; Reif & Warring, 2002; Wadsworth, 2001;
Johnston et al., 1999; Crow, Levine & Nager, 1990);
(c) personal histories of pre-service teachers (Flores, 2001;
Holt-Reynolds, 2000; Novak & Knowles, 1992; Knowles,
1992);
(d) emotional relationships of teachers and students
(Hargreaves, 1998);
(e) educational program effects on prior beliefs (Anderson &
Holt-Reynolds, 1995; Powell, 1992; Feimen-Nemser &
Buchmann, 1989);
(f) pre-service teachers reporting of significant adults (Galbo &
Demetrulias, 1996; Galbo et al., 1989); and
(g) metaphors for teaching (Tobin & Tippins, 1996).
Therefore the present study sought to highlight and address any differences among the subpopulations entering teacher education programs at The University of Sydney and The University of Auckland. The following specific questions were asked of the data:

1. Do male and female pre-service teachers interpret prior experiences differently? (see section 3.4);

2. Do secondary and primary pre-service teachers interpret prior experiences differently? (see section 3.5);

3. Do male primary and male secondary pre-service teachers interpret prior experiences differently? (see section 3.6);

4. Do female primary and female secondary pre-service teachers interpret prior experiences differently? (see section 3.6);

5. Do undergraduate and post-graduate pre-service teachers interpret prior experiences differently? (see section 3.7);

6. Do recent traditional and non-traditional pre-service teachers interpret prior experiences differently? (see section 3.8); and

7. Do teacher candidates at The University of Sydney and The University of Auckland interpret prior experiences differently? (see section 3.9).

After completion of phase 1 analysis, the interview schedule was formulated to best invite each participant to recount his/her own life story for schooling and prior teacher experiences for phase 2.

2.6.2 Phase 2

The data analysis of phase 1 highlighted how pre-service teachers interpreted prior schooling experiences. With this information along with specific questionnaire responses, phase 2 elicited from the interview participants how their prior experiences had specifically influenced the type of teacher they did and did not want to become.
Using the questionnaire to set the context and the respondents’ own words (i.e. stimulated recall interviewing; Calderhead, 1981) allowed an exploration of the thinking of the pre-service teacher candidates in their own language (Munby, 1986). Specifically, it facilitated the opportunity to try and understand how this thinking had influenced their future practice as to the type of teacher they did and did not want to be (Knowles & Holt-Reynolds, 1994, 1991; Bullough, 1994; Knowles, 1994; Connelly & Clandinin, 1994). Due to the polysemy of language, what the participant meant and what the researcher understood it to mean may not always be the same. This limitation was highlighted in the 1997 Von Wright study (see section 1.5.1, p. 46) and the 1994 Maxson and Mahlios study (see section 1.4.1, p. 35).

Phase 2 invited the respondents to expressly state what they meant and then uncover the reasoning behind their meaning.

The initial phase of the interview schedule (see Appendix C) worked through the respondents' reported actual school experiences (factual reflective thought; Risko et al., 2002, p. 151) and what they wished their school experience to have been (prudential reflective thought). Respondents' reported responses to their metaphorical choice for sense of teaching and selected characteristics for ideal student and teacher would further elicit their evaluation of schooling experiences (prudential reflective thought). By further exploration of reasons and meanings (justificatory reflective thought) behind their selections, I elicited from the respondents’ those underlying beliefs as to how they saw themselves as the type of teacher they did and did not want to become (critical reflective thought). Wedman, Martin and Mahlios (1990) reporting on a study of inquiry-oriented student teaching program influences on student teachers’ reflective practices concluded student teachers need time for reflection. The interviews were conducted after the questionnaires had been completed so that the participants had the needed time for reflection and allowed each participant to use critical reflective thought to describe those events in their educational history. The thirty-five interviews generated 250 pages of transcripts (see Appendix F) that I transcribed.
The transcripts were analysed following Polkinghorne’s (1995) analysis of narratives and narrative analysis. In analysis of narratives, the researcher collects stories as data from participants and then analyses them with paradigmatic processes. Then narrative analysis takes descriptions of events and happenings and draws them together to produce a story. As Polkinghorne (1995) summarised: analysis of narratives moves from stories to common elements, and narrative analysis moves from elements to stories (p.12). For the study, analysis of narrative resulted in descriptions of beliefs that held across the stories which then led to narrative analysis that in turn generated stories about those common beliefs.

First using analysis of narratives the transcripts were read and re-read to inductively develop concepts from the data rather than approaching the data with pre-determined expected concepts. As each concept was highlighted within the transcripts other interviews were examined to note whether similar concepts were reported. As this process was recursive and took place both before all the data was collected and then continued after all the data was collected (Smith, 2001), it allowed the concepts to be refined and altered as they were derived from the corpus of data.

The paradigmatic analysis built the categorical definitions by continually testing their power to order the data (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). The concepts developed from the data rather than being imposed by previous theoretically derived concepts. These categories were then revised until they provided the best possible fit of a categorical scheme for the data set seeking to locate common themes or conceptual manifestations among the stories (Polkinghorne, 1995). This paradigmatic analysis provided a method to uncover the commonalities that existed across the stories that made up the study’s database (Guba & Lincoln, 2005) to generate knowledge. The concepts that the student teachers held were then used to develop narratives about trends, similarities and differences among the sample population and the subpopulations within the sample.
As the researcher speaks with the voice of the storyteller, they appear as co-writers affecting and contributing to the unfolding research process. To understand the person, we must grasp the person’s meanings and understandings and therefore the narratives were returned to the participants for authentication after transcription (Habibis, 2006). Munby (1986) highlighted the possibility that a teacher and therefore a teacher candidate also might employ different metaphorical constructs at different times or even under different circumstances. All changes made to the transcriptions by the participants were added. It was with these final transcripts that the process of analysis of narratives began.

2.6.3 Phase 3

The analysis of phase 2 uncovered those reasons underlying how the participating pre-service teachers saw themselves in the role of the teacher. Then after completing their first teaching experience in the role of the teacher, the follow-up interviews sought to gain insight into how these images of self-as-teacher had been affected by actual practical experience.

These interviews (see Appendix D) were conducted under similar circumstances to phase 2. Initial questions focused on the interviewee’s first interview responses as to what they stated were their ‘Ideal Teacher’ and ‘sense of Teaching.’ Then unstructured interviews invited each interviewee to elaborate upon how their reflection upon their first teaching experience had re-enforced or modified their previous beliefs. Similar to phase 2, these transcripts were also returned to the participants for authentication of content and meaning. Then a similar process of paradigmatic analysis was used to generate the categories and themes that occurred across the data.

As stated, every candidate re-interviewed reported similar responses to how they responded to their first teaching experience. Those candidates who reported having a good experience did so because of their own teaching ability in combination with a supportive and experienced mentoring teacher who scaffolded their experience. Similarly, those who reported a negative
teaching experience were able to provide a list of reasons why it was not their fault. These reasons referred to a cooperating teacher who refused to allow the pre-service teacher to try new teaching ideas that did not concur with their own established routines, classroom reward systems the practicum teacher found inappropriate, or teachers who saw the practicum teacher as a reliever and their chance to have classroom release time. As a result, the final transcripts contain only two interviews (Georgia and Jack) with the phase 3 components included.

2.7 Conclusions

Life stories are one means of making meaning from school situations. It is this interpretation of personal stories interwoven with content understanding that is played out in the classrooms (Grant, 1992). Metaphors and their interpretation may be limited by their inherent simplifications, as they don’t present a complete picture (Dickmeyer, 1989), but teachers must strive to learn more about the complexity of their social world and its many interactions. Metaphors used by pre-service teachers provide a tool for interpreting this complexity of meaning as to the type of teacher they do and do not want to become. It is through portraying those important parts of teacher identities that what he/she is and does as a whole will be made enriched and clearer.

This research study hoped to highlight those well-remembered events that show the effects of prior teacher experiences upon student teachers. Teachers actively influence both positively and negatively, those who choose to enter this profession. If any commonality can be delineated between how male primary, female secondary and non-traditional pre-service teachers interpret prior teacher experiences from phases two and three then present in-service teachers may be made explicitly aware of the significance of their own actions. The perspicacious actions by teachers today shape those who may or may not become the teachers of tomorrow.
This chapter has shown the benefits of a mixed-model research design and how it was most appropriate in light of the present study’s research question. In addition, it addressed how a suitable questionnaire was developed, how the present study is placed in the context of current educational research and how the study was conducted. 880 student teachers were approached for inclusion prior to their course commencement to investigate what beliefs about teaching and being the teacher they brought with them to their teacher education program. 354 voluntarily agreed to participate. From these participants thirty-five were interviewed to further explore their responses and how they saw teaching and themselves as the teacher. These participants’ reported responses and beliefs were analysed and are reported in the next three chapters: Chapter 3 for male primary student teachers; Chapter 4 for female secondary teacher candidates; and Chapter 5 for non-traditional participants.
3 RESULTS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the survey instrument and interviews conducted to further explore the survey data. First, the participants’ demographics are presented then the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the sample populations’ questionnaires. The next sections report on the noted differences in the comparisons of the participants based on their gender, major, university program, age and the university into which they were enrolling to that of the sample population. The qualitative analysis of the questionnaire to facilitate addressing the seven sub-questions of the research topic follows. Finally the analysis of the interviews is presented.

3.2 Participants

As stated, participants (see Appendix H, pp. 218-225) were all entry-level teaching candidates (N = 354). Out of the 880 candidates entering their programs in 2005 who were offered the survey instrument, 354 (40.2%) agreed to participate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants’ University</th>
<th>Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>41.2 % University of Sydney</td>
<td>41.8 % Undergraduates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58.8 % University of Auckland</td>
<td>58.2 % Post-graduates</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Program</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>46.3 % Primary Education</td>
<td>24.9 % Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.7% Secondary Education</td>
<td>75.1% Females</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Primary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39.5% &lt; 23 (Traditional Students)</td>
<td>17.1% Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.9% 23 – 30*</td>
<td>82.9% Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.9% 31 – 45*</td>
<td>Secondary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7% &gt; 45*</td>
<td>31.6% Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Non-Traditional Students</td>
<td>68.4% Female</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Demographics of Sample Population
in the present study. These participants demonstrated a cross-section of the diverse range of student teachers entering the education programs at both The University of Sydney and University of Auckland (see Table 6, p. 85). As stated, The University of Auckland provided time during student registration for inclusion in the study while The University of Sydney’s participants were approached for inclusion individually while waiting in line for registration or orientation and this may account for the difference in participation rates.

3.3 Sample (N = 354) Population Findings

A summary of the statistical findings for the sample population’s responses to the questionnaire is presented in Table 7, p. 87. An alpha coefficient of .7493; with an F-test of 33.2797 (p< 0.0000) indicates a strong correlation; see Appendix H, pp. 222-225 for a complete summary of chi-square, variance and reliability analysis. Overall, nearly two-thirds of the participants remembered their primary schooling as ‘positive’ while just under half of the respondents reported a similar experience for secondary school.

Primary school was most commonly remembered as being like ‘in a family’ while secondary school was associated with being ‘on a team.’ Similarly, the participants’ reported that primary school should have been more like ‘in a family’ and secondary should have been more like ‘on a team.’ Most participants saw themselves as having average self-esteem. Only 1 out of 6 teacher candidates rated him or herself with having very high self-esteem compared to 1 out of 26 with low self-esteem. Choosing from a list of sixty-two characteristics (see Appendix X, pp. 357-360) in Part 6 of the questionnaire, Table 8, p. 88 presents the participants’ top eight characteristics for their ideal teacher.

A teacher with a Sense of Humour was described as someone who is able to make the class fun and enjoyable. This teacher is not here to entertain the students but is able to keep the students’ attention: it helps you the most overall because students don’t want to be taught by someone who is boring
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Instrument Reported Responses</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary school experience was: positive</td>
<td>65.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mixed</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school was like being: in a family</td>
<td>35.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on a team</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a crowd</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multiple&lt;sup&gt;4&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a garden</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary should have been: in a family</td>
<td>55.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on a team</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multiple&lt;sup&gt;5&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>11.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a garden</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school experience was: positive</td>
<td>48.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mixed</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school was like being: on a team</td>
<td>29.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a family</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a crowd</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multiple&lt;sup&gt;6&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>11.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a prison</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a factory</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary should have been like: on a team</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a family</td>
<td>22.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multiple&lt;sup&gt;7&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem rating: very high</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>average</td>
<td>59.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chi-square&lt;sup&gt;8&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reliability coefficient $\alpha$</td>
<td>.7483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$</td>
<td>33.2797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\rho &lt;$</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Sample populations statistics summary

<sup>4</sup> 17 out of 34 (50%) contained both ‘in a family’ and ‘on a team’.
<sup>5</sup> 39 out of 39 (100%) contained both ‘in a family’ and ‘on a team’.
<sup>6</sup> 30 out of 39 (76.9%) contained both ‘in a family’ and ‘on a team’.
<sup>7</sup> 50 out of 56 (89.3%) contained both ‘in a family’ and ‘on a team’.
as they will just be bored (Georgia - 057, p. 176). The Sincere teacher is more than a teacher the students can trust. This teacher is someone the students know who actually wants to be there and more importantly wants them to be there: it’s important for the students to feel that they teacher cares what they are doing and that they genuinely want to help to impart knowledge and help the students’ develop ideas (Emily - 128, p. 167).

Teachers who are Receptive to Others’ Ideas listen to other teachers, non-teaching staff members as well as their students:

If you are talking about students who are capable in certain areas, I mean receptive in that sense, that these students have a mind and they have different ways of seeing things or interpreting things and being receptive to their original thoughts or opinions on particular subjects (Joshua -197, p. 188).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ideal Characteristic</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>70.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>55.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive to Other’s Ideas</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>49.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>47.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>44.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>34.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considerate</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>33.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Sample Population Top 8 Ideal Teacher Characteristics

Showing their students that they are willing to work, want to be there and can keep the students interested are the Determined and Energetic teachers; as Benjamin phrased it: their personality is just going to be electric and the kids are just going to be drawn to the teacher and really interested in what they are going to be doing next (130, p. 134). A Visionary teacher is more than

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8 See Appendix H, p. 223 for all chi-square values, degrees of freedom, and significance for the sample population.
9 All names are pseudonyms; the three digit number indicates the tape counter location of the quote in Appendix F on the page referenced.
someone who sees only what is limited by the curriculum or lesson plan. This teacher is willing to take what is offered by their students and still achieve their planned program learning objectives. Olivia explained what visionary teachers are able to do: *teachers that are prepared to look outside the box and when they get a response from a child and instead of just looking to a narrow criteria and the little that happens they ought to expand on that* (096, p. 144).

Teachers who are not only able to stand in front of the room as the teacher but also have a depth of knowledge that allows them to overcome obstacles that may arise in classroom lessons were categorised as Self-Confident. These teachers know what they are doing, let their students know what they are going to do, and can take whatever resource materials they do or do not have and still make the lesson work. Lachlan commented: *this lets the kids know you know what you are talking about, and if you don’t have all the resources then you are able to provide them or come up with something* (141, p. 139). And finally, the ‘Considerate’ teacher is a teacher who sees the big picture. This teacher is aware of any outside influence or personality characteristic that may be having an impact on the way a student is learning or behaving and is able to deal sensitively with that student. As explained by Sophie: (the teacher) *needs to have consideration for people and for individual styles and maybe circumstances that may impact how they learn and how quickly they learn* (249, p. 151).

These results were similar to the pilot study findings (see Appendix I, pp. 227-233) with only a few notable deviations, defined as at least a five percent difference, highlighted and then addressed, see Table 9, p. 90. The pilot study reported an alpha coefficient of .8329 with an F-test of 9.6901 ($\rho < 0.0000$) indicating a strong correlation, see Appendix I, pp. 230-233 for a complete summary of the reliability analysis. As stated, the pilot study was conducted under similar conditions as the research study to facilitate external replications. The pilot study results are reported here for comparison purposes.
There was an almost equal representation of undergraduates and post-graduates. Sixty-three out of the possible one hundred and eighty (35%) enrolling teacher candidates approached agreed to participate in the pilot study. Other than demographic differences, the pilot study teacher candidates reported more multiple metaphors to describe what their school experiences were. Fewer pilot study participants’ rated themselves with high self-esteem and more with average self-esteem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reported Differences</th>
<th>Pilot Study</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education: Undergraduate</td>
<td>49.2%</td>
<td>41.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
<td>58.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender: Female</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>75.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>24.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age: 22-30</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-45</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary was like being: on a team</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multiple</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary was like being: multiple</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>11.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem self-rating: high</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>average</td>
<td>66.6%</td>
<td>59.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chi-square *</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reliability coefficient α</td>
<td>.8329</td>
<td>.7483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>9.6901</td>
<td>33.2797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ρ&lt;</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Pilot Study to Sample Population Comparisons

Five of the eight ideal teacher characteristics were the same, see Table 10, p. 91. The pilot study participants selected Versatile, Persistent and Courageous as more ideal teacher characteristics than the sample populations Self-Confident, Determined and Considerate.

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10 See Appendix I, p. 231 for all chi-square values, degrees of freedom, and significance for the pilot study.


3.4 Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative analysis focused on the five open-ended questions of the questionnaire. These opportunities allowed the participants to elaborate their reasons or meanings behind how and why they remembered their school experiences; what they felt their school experiences should have been; and how they saw their role as the teacher. In most cases the participants used this opportunity to elaborate on what their reported metaphor meant to them. For example, in the question about what their primary school experience was like, most were those like Carmen (pseudonym) who selected ‘on a team’ then explained why her school experience was remembered that way: much of the focus was on working together.

There were those participants whose description or explanation of chosen metaphor indicated a different idea. Mary (pseudonym) was one such example as she felt secondary school should have been like ‘on a team’ but her explanation: teachers have a responsibility to create a safe environment where a child is safe and free to express themselves, indicated a primary concern for safety not teamwork. In the qualitative analysis Mary’s response was placed in the ‘safe’ category and not under ‘team’. It was these types of responses which created new categories under which participants’ responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pilot Study</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>55.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>47.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>47.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive to Others’ Ideas</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courageous</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Versatile</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistent</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Pilot Study Ideal Teacher Characteristics
were placed that highlighted most of the differences between the sub-populations.

To facilitate addressing the seven sub-questions to the research topic, the corpus of data was analysed for each question individually. This required an examination of the data initially as a whole for the sample population then going back each time to view the data by the categories necessary to address each sub-question, i.e. participants who were: male/female, primary/secondary, male primary/male secondary, female primary/female secondary, traditional/non-traditional, undergraduate/post-graduate, at the University of Sydney/University of Auckland.

3.4.1 Sample populations’ reasons on reporting how primary school was remembered

Using one or more of the positive metaphors: family, team or garden (see Table 11, p. 93) was 68.8% of the participants to report on their primary school experience while 28.0% selected one or more of the negative metaphors: circus, stage, prison, zoo, stage, factory or crowd. There were 3.3% of the respondents who declined to make any additional comments.

Primary school was seen like being in a family by 35.9% of the respondents. These respondents remembered primary school was fun and had loving memories as it was a time of love and support. There was an element of wide-eyed wonder about school and even though there were bad days these respondents reported that they tended to remember mostly that it was safe with caring teachers. This sense of safety was due to being surrounded by friends, teachers who knew who you were and siblings having attended or attending the same school. The school experience was an extension of the community that they lived in as many went to school with friends from their own street or neighbourhood and often walked to school like one large family. Overall these respondents felt their primary school teachers made an effort to
actively engage with each student enabling strong social connection to be established over the years enabling this sense of a family environment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Family</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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<td>17.8</td>
<td>53.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Garden</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>60.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Circus</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prison</td>
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<td>2.0</td>
<td>68.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zoo</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>70.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>73.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Crowd</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>83.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factory</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>87.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Own</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>90.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Multiple</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>354</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: Overall Primary School Experience

A sense of belonging on a team was reported by 17.8% of the respondents. This was due to students feeling like they were part of the group as they felt included in the school community. This inclusion was attributed largely to the variety of games played and opportunities for student to participate in these games. These respondents primarily remembered playing with friends in games and sports as well as working together with friends in the classroom. This working together allowed for competition between groups both on the sporting field and in the classroom.

School was compared to being in a garden by 7.1% of the respondents. Students felt they had the opportunity to grow as a person in a safe and friendly environment free from the restrictions of adult life.

9.6% reported primary school was a combination of metaphors. Half of these combinations were positive using both being in a family and on a team and the other half were selections of the negative metaphors. Those who selected family and team metaphors did so to show the extent of how
positively they perceived their experience. These respondents reported these experiences while attending well-run small community schools or close-knit boarding schools. Those who reported combinations of negative metaphors did so to reflect how the school system in which they were educated failed to provide them with what they perceived as an adequate education, suppressed their individuality and freedom, or to describe how they were just a number in a crowd to be pushed from one grade level to the next.

Just over one in ten remembered primary school as like being in a crowd (10.2%). These respondents felt like one of many who where lost in the faceless mass of students. These respondents felt that they were just another student there to do the work, learn the material and then move up to the next year to do it all again. This was seen in hindsight as the result of poor funding or understaffing of their school. These respondents also felt the sheer size of the school resulted in them as young children being overwhelmed by the huge buildings and large student numbers surrounding them.

Those who compared primary school as being in a zoo, prison, factory, circus, or on a stage had clear and distinct explanations as to explain why they reported it that way. A ‘zoo’ was used to indicate that these respondents’ imagination was systematically destroyed or they were surrounded by other kids making them feel as if they were caged. The ‘prison’ image was used because of teacher and/or peer bullying resulting in these respondents feeling intimidated and hating their entire primary school experience. The ‘factory’ was due to either poor teaching or a lack of enthusiasm by both students and teachers or what was seen as an assembly line for academic results. The ‘circus’ was seen as both good and bad as there were a multitude of personalities that it made it fun. It could also be seen as pointless. These respondents reported there were many clowns in their classroom making everything fun but also being silly and making it confusing. The ‘stage’ was reported by those respondents who felt they were on display for everyone to see. These respondents felt that being ‘on display’
made them feel uncomfortable or made them feel like they constantly had to seek out praise and attention.

### 3.4.2 Explanations behind sample populations’ reporting on their secondary school experience

65.8% felt that their secondary school experience was best reported in one or more of the positive metaphors family, team, garden and stage (see Table 12, below) while 29.1% choose one or more negative metaphors of circus, prison, zoo, factory and crowd. There were 5.1% who declined to provide any further comments on their secondary school experience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>47.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garden</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circus</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prison</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zoo</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>61.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>66.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crowd</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>78.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factory</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>89.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 12: Overall Secondary School Experience**

Those respondents (29.9%) who felt that secondary school was like being on a team saw students working together. In secondary school more group activities were focused with one group of friends being competitive against other groups of friends both academically and socially. This team effort was reported not only because students were working together but also teachers and students working together to achieve goals. Secondary school offered students more opportunities to participate in extra-curricular activities with friends further fostering this sense of working in a team.
17.2% reported that secondary school was like being in a family. This sense of family had now grown to include mostly friends as siblings and parents took a smaller role in students’ lives. Friends became a close-knit circle around these students as they felt their friends understood them better as they were experiencing similar events. These close friends were now able to be relied upon as they were now seen to be like one big family.

Only one in every twenty-two felt that secondary school was like being on a stage. This stage was a chance for students to display their skills and talents and be seen. This did make them feel like they were under pressure to perform or get marks but provided an atmosphere that was more real, encouraging and positive and not stifling or artificial. Like primary school, similar reasons were reported by one out of every 125 for secondary being like in a garden due to a sense of freedom at being outside and able to grow into an adult at their own rate.

The survey instrument did not limit participants to selecting only one metaphor and as such 11.0% reported secondary school with a combination of listed metaphors. These combinations fell into two separate categories. Three-quarters of these combinations selected both being in a family and on a team to best capture the positive benefits of their school experience. These respondents reported that their secondary schools were extensions of their primary school where almost everyone knew each other along with older students or siblings looking after younger students and helping them. The one-fourth who reported secondary with combinations of negative metaphors did so to highlight the degree with which they felt the school system was lacking. These respondents reported school systems focused on strict discipline, exerted pressure on students to perform or were just so large that students were lost in the masses.

Almost one in eight reported that secondary school was like being in a crowd. This crowd metaphor was described in two different manners. Two-thirds of these respondents felt like they were just a person in a big crowd of people
due to the size of the school making it easy to get lost or overlooked as others held teachers attention. The other third felt this crowd was a less personal arena for education as you where made to feel like a number amongst the many. This facelessness was seen as a suppression of individuality as students had no voice, there was no variety and uniforms only reinforced this blandness.

6.8% felt secondary was like being in a prison and another 6.8% compared it to a factory. Those respondents who felt secondary was like a prison reported that they felt a sense of hopelessness in that they had no freedom and no where to go. These students had authoritarian teachers who only cared about assessment results and demanded maximum study while providing minimum personal contact. These respondents reported that they hoped no other student would ever have to suffer the way they did while in school. There were two reasons why this schooling experience was seen as a factory: assembly line production of grades and bad teaching. Half of these respondents felt school was all about learning information so that it could be churned right back out for examiners. This system was only to benefit the school’s standing within the community and did nothing to cater for the needs of the students. The other half felt their educational experience was worthless and a ‘waste of time.’ They went from one class to the next just having different teachers tell them what to do to get through the next lesson. These teachers were characterised as tired, old, boring and miserable providing only mundane and mindless work to be completed.

There were similar vivid explanations behind why respondents reported secondary school as being like in a circus (4%) and in a zoo (2.8%). These participants expounded upon the idea of class being wild, rough and tough and too much going on at the same time and therefore struggling to juggle all their commitments. Those who felt that school was like a zoo did so because they saw school as either in chaos or they felt like a caged animal. Half the respondents felt school was a high stress struggle to survive as students were going their own direction and did not care about each other or what their actions resulted in. The other half felt the school was very restrictive
and fostered an artificial reality that only catered to a select few prize students that were shown off and the rest left to manage as best they could.

### 3.4.3 How participants felt primary school should have been

Almost 90% felt primary school should have been like one or more of three positive metaphors: a family, team and garden (see Table 13, below). It should be noted that 4.2% reported that primary school whether it was a positive or negative experience was their experience and therefore was what it should have been. 5.9% choose not the further elaborate on this question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Family</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>73.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garden</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>80.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circus</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zoo</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>83.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>84.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crowd</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>84.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factory</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>89.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: Primary School Should Have Been

Some student teachers commented that primary school should have been like being in a family (55.6%) for many of the same reasons that were used in reporting why it was like in a family. Primary school should be a nurturing and encouraging experience which helps student to expand their learning ability. This environment will make students feel safe, secure and comfortable like it was their second home. Students will feel welcomed, wanted and accepted by both friends and teachers. These respondents felt that this is what school should be like. Their home life did not actually reflect this kind of loving environment and students should be able to expect this in their schooling life (Doll, Zucker & Brehm, 2004; Cabello & Terrell, 1994).
Similarly, many of the teacher candidates felt primary school should have been like being part of a team (17.6%) for many of the reasons used to report how their primary school experience actually was like being on a team. School should be a team working together with greater participation allowing strengths to be displayed and weaknesses worked on. This team work would then allow each student to grow into a member of a cooperative society. School is the place where we learn to interact with others as most people will not work alone but become some part of a group whether their future lies in sports, clubs or other friendship based circles (Statistics New Zealand, 2006; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2004; Calder & Grieve, 2004; Woods & Weasmer, 2004).

Almost one in fourteen reported that primary school should have been like being in a garden. This garden environment would allow students the opportunity to relax and enjoy the classroom both indoors and outdoors. This dual atmosphere would allow students to grow at their own rate and to learn by observing and exploring the world around them.

As with reporting on what their school experience was actually like, 11% reported primary school should have been a combination of listed or participant supplied metaphors. These combinations included either both being in a family and on a team or these two metaphors plus other metaphors selected or written in by the respondent. These respondents felt that primary school should have been an ideal combination of the love, support and nurturing provided by the family and the collaboration and participation of being on a team.

3.4.4 Reported reasons to how secondary school should have been

91.2% respondents felt that secondary school should have been like one or more of the positive metaphors: family, team or garden (see Table 14, p. 100). Similar to their primary school experience, 4.8% reported that even though their school experience was negative it was their experience and this
is only what it could have been. 4.0% declined to make any additional comments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>22.6</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>50.8</td>
<td>73.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>8</td>
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<td>2.3</td>
<td>75.7</td>
</tr>
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<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>76.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zoo</td>
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<td>0.6</td>
<td>77.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crowd</td>
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<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
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<td>Factory</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: Secondary School Experience Should Have Been

Over half the participants (50.8%) reported that secondary school should have been like being on a team. This team was conceptualized more than just students working together but also student and teachers working together. Students should see that they are working towards a goal with the support of all those around them. This teamwork is not only needed while in school but also prepares students for the future as social skills are very important as work place problems are solved by groups of people working together. These social skills develop out of collaborating students and teachers who have mutual respect for each other and who are proud of each other's success.

Just under a quarter (22.6%) felt that secondary should have been more like a family. This family should still be nurturing like it should have been in primary school but now moving more to supportive in nature. This family like atmosphere would provide students with the opportunities to feel safe, comfortable and loved even though there were all these changes going on inside them and around them; they knew that there would still be people there for them no matter what they did. This close-knit group of friends
acting like a family would act like a support network of people sharing similar experiences.

There were 15.8% of the participants who felt that more than one metaphor was needed to describe what secondary school should have been like. 90% of those who used multiple metaphors used both family and team to combine what they perceived as the best aspects of both metaphors. These respondents felt that it was really important to have the close connections of friends who would become extended family members. This time of life is filled with changes and being able to venture out and explore the world with the safety net of those around you is critical to self-esteem and personal development.

The remaining 6.8% used every other metaphor with the exception of being like in a prison to describe what they felt secondary school have been like. Being on a stage was a chance for students to perform and stand out from the crowds. This gave students the opportunity to excel at those areas they felt most comfortable in while pulling back into the scenery in those areas they felt less comfortable. Students in a garden would be allowed the chance to grow and flourish in their own space within the restrictions placed upon them by curriculum and/or society. Being in a crowd gives students the chance to be apart of a larger group without having to stand in the spotlight. This crowd allows those students who want to the chance to hide. While being in a zoo or circus gives students the opportunity to have fun and experience different personalities and cultures. Even those who reported it like being in a factory stated that this was what they experienced and therefore what secondary school could only have been.

3.4.5 How the participants reported how they saw teaching

The survey instrument asked respondents to describe how they saw the role of the teacher and their meaning behind this response. The responses fell into one of five teaching style categories (see Table 15, p. 102). The teacher
was seen as the: expert; role model; facilitator; delegator; or the respondent’s ideas were seen as naïve, simplistic or no response was reported.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Style</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Expert</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is passing on information</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Role Model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is profound impact</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is nurturing/inspiring/encouraging</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is guiding/helping students</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a passion</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Facilitator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is learning/growing with students</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a holistic approach to students’ lives</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is fun</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Delegator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is being creative</td>
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<td>8.8%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher as Naïve</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Left Blank – no responses</td>
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<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is communicating with students</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is something I will be good at it</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is simple to do</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15: Teaching Is/How Participants see teaching

### 3.4.5.1 Teacher as the Expert

Teacher as expert sees the teacher as an authority figure and tends toward a teacher-centred classroom approach. The expert teacher possesses the information which is presented to the students who receive the knowledge. This passing on of information is important as it makes a difference to the next generation. 10.2% of respondents reported that teaching was a way to give back what the world had given to them as they gained a lot through their own education and wished to see this cycle continue with their own students.

### 3.4.5.2 Teacher as Role Model

Teacher as role model sees the teacher set the example for the students to follow and also tends towards a teacher-centred approach to learning by modelling and demonstrating. The role model teacher encourages students
to observe processes as well as content. As a role model, 15.3% of respondents saw teaching as having a profound impact upon the lives of their students. This impact is not just while the students are at school but affects the rest of their lives as well. Thus teaching is one of the most noble and essential of professions that incurs a lot of responsibility as teachers teach not only the subjects of the curriculum but also an understanding of students themselves, the world around them and other people within their world. Respondents were able to acknowledge that this impact may not always be in the best interest of the students as some of their own personal experiences were negative.

Within this role model category, 9.6% of all respondents saw teaching as nurturing, inspiring and/or encouraging. This teaching style is about bringing out the essence of students and allowing students to bring out the best within themselves. This type of teacher does this by accessing students' talents, opinions, inclinations and beliefs in a way that still makes each child feel comfortable with themselves and society. These respondents felt that this type of teaching would not only inspire their students as they were inspired by their teachers but also allow students to look up to their teachers and one day might even aspire to be like them.

Another 8.6% saw this role model teaching style as a way to guide or help their students. These teachers would help and guide students to achieve the most for themselves and not for extrinsic but intrinsic worth as everyone deserves the best from within themselves. These respondents felt that teaching was a way to show their students the difference between right and wrong and helping to choose the right way by showing them what it is to choose the right path with their own lives as examples. Thus teachers using their own lives as examples, students would be able to learn to reach their potential and achieve things that they never thought possible.

The fourth group of respondents (10.5%) were placed in the role model style as their comments reflected a passion for teaching to be demonstrated to the students. This was not only expressed as passion for the subject but also for
the students in the class. These teachers are enthusiastic about their teaching and show this eagerness and excitement to their students. This passion for teaching will allow these respondents to obtain a greater sense of satisfaction than they might in other professions as they feel they will be in the position to share experiences with their students and watch their progression as they grow and learn.

### 3.4.5.3 Teacher as Facilitator

The teacher as facilitator designs student-centred activities, social interactions, or problem-solving situations that allow students to practice the processes for applying course content. This model emphasizes the personal nature of teacher-student interactions. These teachers guide and direct students by asking questions, exploring options, suggesting alternatives, and encouraging them to develop criteria to make informed choices. 14.4% respondents felt that teaching was learning and growing with students. These respondents reported that even as teachers they will never stop learning themselves and that they will learn as much if not more from their students as their students will from them. As they continue to grow and learn and help their students to do the same, they will become a better person.

7.1% respondents felt that this style of teaching would allow them to take a holistic approach to teaching. These respondents reported this teaching would allow them to inspire, encourage, listen, empathise, understand, communicate, guide and see to the heart of the matter as they would be sensitive to the needs of all their students. This holistic approach incorporated values and how we should live as well as involving communicating curriculum knowledge and expertise to students. Therefore these respondents felt they would be able to show dedication, energy and motivation, provide inspiration and understanding while be worthy of respect from peers and students.

In teacher as facilitator there were 4.2% respondents who felt that teaching should be fun. These respondents remembered those teachers and classes
in which they had the most fun and reported that if teaching was not fun then no one would listen or be interested. These respondents wanted to provide a learning environment that mirrored the best of their own experiences and wanted to ensure their students do as well as they had. These respondents felt that students know which teachers want to be there and enjoy being there and therefore want to be in those classes, just as they did as students.

3.4.5.4 Teacher as Delegator

The delegator places much of the learning burden on the students. This teaching style has teachers provide their students with complex tasks that require student initiative and often involves group work. Concerned with developing students' capacity to function in an autonomous fashion their students work independently on projects or as part of teams. The teacher is available at the request of students as a resource person. 8.8% respondents felt that creative teaching was important to ensure the class and material was new and imaginative. They felt this creativity also existed within everyone and that to stifle this natural voice of self-expression would destroy the very essence of what it means to be human. These respondents reported that this teaching style would allow their students to make choices for themselves about where they are going and what they would do after school.

3.4.5.5 Naïve Teacher Views

There were those respondents who were unable to provide an answer to how they saw teaching (6.8%) or demonstrated only a simplistic understanding of what teaching meant to them (4.5%). As previous sections of the survey instrument provided a list of possible metaphorical choices, this section might have proved more difficult for those respondents who found metaphors an inappropriate means of expression possibly accounting for those who left this blank. Those respondents who did report teaching: as a means of communicating with students; something that they have not done but feel they will be good at; or as one respondent reported something that is just
simple to do provided no clarifying explanations as to why or how this was their view of teaching.

### 3.5 Male to Female Participant Comparisons

Male (see Appendix J, pp. 235-242) to female (see Appendix K, pp. 244-251) participant comparison differences are presented in Table 16, below. As highlighted, demographics accounted for all quantitative differences except how secondary school experience was reported. Male candidates’ secondary school experience was remembered more than three times as negative as that of the female candidates.

As there was little difference in how male and female participants’ reported their responses to the survey instrument, there was also little difference in variance, with acceptable chi-squares and alpha coefficients, see Table 16, p. 103. See Appendix J, pp. 239-241 and Appendix K, pp. 248-251 for a complete summary of reliability analysis for male and female participants, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reported Differences</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary Education</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
<td>51.1%</td>
<td>46.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education</td>
<td>68.2%</td>
<td>48.9%</td>
<td>53.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
<td>45.1%</td>
<td>46.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>68.2%</td>
<td>54.9%</td>
<td>53.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age: Below 22</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>43.6%</td>
<td>39.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-30</td>
<td>43.2%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary was overall a negative</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chi-square***</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reliability coefficient α</td>
<td>.7079</td>
<td>.7605</td>
<td>.7483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>12.8419</td>
<td>21.0980</td>
<td>33.2797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ρ&lt;</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16: Male to Female Participant Comparisons

---

11 See Appendix J, p. 240 for male primary candidates and Appendix K, p. 249 for female student teachers for all chi-square values, degrees of freedom, and significance.
Female candidates selected the same eight ideal teacher characteristics as the sample population but male candidates selected Thorough replacing Determined, see Table 17, p. 107.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>Visionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive to Others’ Ideas</td>
<td>Sincere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>Energetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>Receptive to Others’ Ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
<td><strong>Thorough</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considerate</td>
<td>Considerate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17: Male to Female Ideal Teacher Characteristics

While the participating male and female student teachers reported similar responses on their survey instruments, the reasons behind their responses were more revealing. The male teacher candidates remembered their schooling experiences from a self-as-student point of view and far more practical in how they saw teaching. In particular secondary school, they felt secondary schooling should have prepared them more for life beyond school. The female participants were more emotive in their descriptions of prior schooling and how they saw teaching. These emotive descriptions were seen whether their experiences were reported as positive or negative. For example, I loved my time in school (Linda), closer and more trusting relationships were formed (Paula) and kids were always fighting and bullying others, I hated it (Chris).

Both male and female teacher groups had about one-third reporting that primary school was like being in a family. However, half of the males who felt this did so as it was remembered as fun while nearly every single female felt it was in a family due to the nurturing or caring atmosphere. Absence of fun
was the most often stated reason behind why males used being in a crowd to describe primary school while their female counterparts used being ‘lost in the masses’ or ‘just one of many’ in the class.

These differences were again seen in how secondary school was remembered. Those males who compared it to being in a prison or factory did so as they remembered it as a constant never changing routine that was dull, no fun and held them there while they only waited to escape or get out. Almost two-thirds of the females (twelve of the fifteen) who reported this sense of being in a prison did so due to being bullied at school. Only one male reported having been bullied in school.

Female participants further demonstrated this emotive connection to school and schooling as 13.5% of them reported primary school and 6.8% for secondary was what it should have been. These females then went on to state that they were happy with the experiences they had. No male candidates made similar comments. Similarly the males again expressed their self-centred views in that 14.8% of the males commented that secondary should have prepared them for entering the world after school while no female made this type of comment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Style</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Expert</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is passing on information</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Role Model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is profound impact</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is nurturing/inspiring/encouraging</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is guiding/helping students</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a passion</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Facilitator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is learning/growing with students</td>
<td>19.3%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a holistic approach to students’ lives</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is fun</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Delegator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is being creative</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as Naive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Left Blank – no responses</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is communicating with students</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is something I will be good at it</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is simple to do</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 88  266
Table 18: How Male and Female Participants saw teaching

There was only one male candidate who was unable or unwilling to provide an answer to how he saw teaching while twenty-three (8.6%) of the females left this blank, see Table 18, see above. The participating males’ practical view of teaching saw almost three times as many of them report that teaching should be fun; almost twice as many believed passion for teaching was required; and fifty percent more saw teaching as either passing on the knowledge they held to their students or learning and growing with their students. Similarly, the females’ emotive views saw nearly four times as many of them reporting that teaching was creative; three times as many saw teaching as requiring a holistic approach; and fifty percent more saw nurturing important to their teaching.

3.6 Primary to Secondary Education Major Comparisons

The comparisons of primary (see Appendix L, pp. 253-260) to secondary (see Appendix M, pp. 262-268) education candidates that differ from the sample population (see Table 7, p. 87) are presented in Table 19, below. For both primary and secondary sub-populations, their chi-squares and alpha coefficients were at acceptable values; see Appendix L, pp. 257-260 and Appendix M, pp. 266-268 for a complete analysis of reliability.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reported Differences</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender: Female</td>
<td>82.9%</td>
<td>68.4%</td>
<td>75.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male 17.1%</td>
<td>47.4%</td>
<td>24.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary was like being: on a team</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary overall experience was: positive</td>
<td>42.7%</td>
<td>54.7%</td>
<td>48.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>24.4%</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

chi-square acceptable

reliability coefficient α

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>12.5063</td>
<td>23.1258</td>
<td>33.2797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p&lt;</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12 See Appendix L for primary p. 258 and Appendix M for secondary pp. 266-267 for all chi-square values, degrees of freedom, and significance.
Table 19: Primary to Secondary Education Major Comparisons

As the reported differences illustrate, there were only a few deviations from the sample population. Demographically, female participants made up a larger percentage of the primary teacher candidates and male participants were a larger portion of secondary. Nearly twice the number of primary candidates reported primary school as being more like on a team than secondary. More than half the secondary candidates reported a positive secondary school experience while almost a fourth of the primary candidates were neutral. There was a noted anomaly in variance for the secondary candidates’ reporting on what they felt primary school should have been. Nearly 60% used the family metaphor resulting in an asymmetrical distribution (skewness = 2.706 with a standard error of skewness = .176, see Appendix M, p. 266) that clustered the data more than normal observations would expect (kurtosis = 2.706 with standard error of kurtosis = .351, see Appendix M, p. 266). With this notable exception of variance, both groups had acceptable values for chi-square, variance and alpha coefficients, see Table 19, p. 109.

Both primary and secondary candidates reported seven of the eight ideal teacher characteristics the same as the sample population, see Table 20, below. Primary participants saw Versatile as a characteristic more ideal than that of Considerate, while secondary participants also reported Versatile as a more ideal characteristic but more so than ‘Determined’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>Sincere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive to others’ ideas</td>
<td>Receptive to others’ ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>Visionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>Energetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is interesting to highlight that the primary teacher candidate participants in this study reported notably different responses to the primary participants in both Mahlios and Maxson’s 1995 and 1998 studies.

Mahlios and Maxson’s studies reported a tighter grouping of responses in how primary school was remembered and how it should have been by their primary candidates: 57% felt primary school was in a family and 24% on a team; and 63% believed primary should have been in a family and 27% on a team. Secondary school was remembered as in a family by 25%, on a team 23% and in a crowd by 18% while 59% reported it should have been on team and 43% in a family, resulting in 102% for how secondary should have been. However, Mahlios and Maxson’s study consisted of nearly 95% female candidates, of which 85.6% were under the age of 22, entering an undergraduate degree program at a single educational institution. The demographic differences between studies’ participants may account for the reported differences.

Qualitatively the primary teacher candidates saw teaching as caring for students, learning and growing with them while having fun, see Table 21, p. 112. Secondary student teachers saw teaching as having an impact on their students or being creative in their teaching style. Both of these views were reflected in the few instances where these two teacher groups differed in explaining their metaphorical choices.

Nearly a third of the secondary candidates felt secondary school was like being on a team while only a quarter of the primary’s reported this. Sixteen (8.4%) of the secondary student teachers remembered being bullied in secondary school. There were no primary candidates who remembered being bullied and only two (1.2%) who felt secondary school was what it should have been as compared to the sixteen (8.4%) secondary students.
The greatest differences arose in fourteen (8.5%) of the primary candidates who felt secondary should have been more worthwhile. These candidates wanted an educational experience that would have helped them to grow as a person with teachers that cared about them as students. There were no secondary majors who reported this opinion. However, there were fourteen (7.4%) of the secondary student teachers who felt secondary should have prepared them better for the world after schooling. These student teachers wanted an experience that would have impacted on their lives while no primary candidates held this view.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Style</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Expert</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is passing on information</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Role Model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is profound impact</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is nurturing/inspiring/encouraging</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is guiding/helping students</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a passion</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Facilitator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is learning/growing with students</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a holistic approach to students' lives</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is fun</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Delegator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is being creative</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as Naïve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Left Blank – no responses</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is communicating with students</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is something I will be good at it</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is simple to do</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21: Primary and Secondary Participants view of teaching

Interestingly, while more secondary students found it difficult to provide a response to how they saw teaching than their primary cohorts, this was the reverse for those who reported naïve or simplistic responses. It would appear that these secondary students either clearly knew how to describe their view of teaching or were unable to provide any response. Likewise it would appear that one of every eight primary candidates surveyed had little or no real idea of what teaching meant to them.
3.7 Male and Female to Primary and Secondary Comparisons

The most notable differences in the quantitative comparisons were seen between male primary (see Appendix N, pp. 270-276), male secondary (see Appendix O, pp. 278-284), female primary (see Appendix P, pp. 286-292) and female secondary (see Appendix Q, pp. 294-301); see Table 22, p. 114. Of these differences, male primary candidates varied the most often and by the greatest percentage in two-thirds of the reported differences. There were only four incidents in which male primary candidates were not significantly different from the sample population or the other sub-populations.

Male primary candidates comprised the smallest percentage of Sydney University teacher candidates but the greatest percentage at The University of Auckland. They had the highest concentration of teacher candidates in the age group twenty-two to thirty and the only sub-population not represented in the age group over forty-five. These candidates reported the highest percentage in describing their primary school experience as positive and the highest percentage describing primary school as like being in a family as well as should have been in a family. This is a dramatic contrast to how they reported on their secondary school experiences. They were the second lowest percentage in reporting it as positive and the second highest in reporting it as a negative experience; having the highest percentages selecting ‘like being in a crowd or factory.’ They were also the highest percentage in reflecting back upon secondary school and reporting that it should have been like being on a team. Primary males had the lowest representation of very high self-esteem category but the highest in both high self-esteem and average self-esteem categories. They were also the only sub-population with no self-rating of the low self-esteem.

Standing out from the sample population as they comprised the highest percentage of undergraduates in teacher education programs but the lowest
in post-graduate programs were the female primary student teachers. They reported the highest percentage describing that both primary school was and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reported Differences</th>
<th>Male Primary</th>
<th>Male Secondary</th>
<th>Female Primary</th>
<th>Female Secondary</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University: Sydney</td>
<td>35.0%</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>39.0%</td>
<td>45.45</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auckland</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
<td>61.0%</td>
<td>54.6%</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Program: Undergraduate</td>
<td>53.6%</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>57.4%</td>
<td>32.3%</td>
<td>41.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>46.4%</td>
<td>78.3%</td>
<td>42.6%</td>
<td>67.7%</td>
<td>58.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age: Below 22</td>
<td>32.1%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>39.7%</td>
<td>47.7%</td>
<td>39.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-30</td>
<td>46.4%</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
<td>33.1%</td>
<td>28.5%</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-45</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>28.3%</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over 45</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school experience was: positive</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>58.3%</td>
<td>69.1%</td>
<td>63.1%</td>
<td>65.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school was like being: in a family</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
<td>28.3%</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
<td>35.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>team</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crowd</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>8.1%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>garden</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school should have been: in a family</td>
<td>67.9%</td>
<td>55.0%</td>
<td>48.5%</td>
<td>60.8%</td>
<td>55.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>team</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school experience was: positive</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
<td>53.3%</td>
<td>41.9%</td>
<td>54.6%</td>
<td>48.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>25.7%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mixed</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school was like being: in a family</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>team</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>33.8%</td>
<td>29.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crowd</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>factory</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school should have been: in a family</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>28.3%</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
<td>22.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>team</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
<td>48.3%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem rating: very high</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>19.9%</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medium</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
<td>58.4%</td>
<td>56.7%</td>
<td>61.6%</td>
<td>59.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chi-square13</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reliability coefficient α</td>
<td>.7492</td>
<td>.6640</td>
<td>.7511</td>
<td>.7741</td>
<td>.7483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>6.7195</td>
<td>6.9184</td>
<td>7.2694</td>
<td>16.4407</td>
<td>33.2797</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See Appendix N, p. 274 for male primary; Appendix O, p. 282 for male secondary; Appendix P, p. 290 for female primary; and Appendix Q, pp. 298-299 for female secondary for all chi-square values, degrees of freedom, and significance.
should have been like being on a team as well as the lowest percentage reporting that primary should have been like in a family. These candidates reported the lowest percentage of those who felt secondary school was a positive experience and the highest who felt neutral about it.

It should be noted that the anomaly reported in secondary student teachers in regard to variance (see section 3.6, p. 109) was also reflected in both the male and female secondary teacher candidates. For both these sub-populations, the asymmetrical distribution was due to a large positive skewness (2.043 with a standard deviation of skewness of .309 for males, 2.056 with a standard deviation of skewness of .212 for females). Similarly there was a cluster greater than normal expectations due to the large positive kurtosis (2.941 with a standard deviation of .608 for males, 2.712 with a standard deviation of .422 for females). For a complete analysis of variance see Appendix O, pp. 281-282 for the secondary male participants and Appendix Q, pp. 298-299 for the female secondary respondents. With the exception of how primary should have been for secondary students, all other values for chi-square, variance and alpha coefficients were acceptable, see Table 22, p. 114.

Male secondary candidates also differed from the sample population like their primary counterparts but only half as often. These teacher candidates represented the smallest percentage in the undergraduate programs but the highest percentage in post-graduate programs. They also comprised the highest percentage in the age group thirty-one to forty-five. These teacher candidates were the least likely to describe primary school as positive or like being in a family. They were also the least likely to be neutral about their secondary school experience as they reported the highest percentage as having a negative experience. Male secondary candidates were the most
likely sub-population to report that secondary school should have been like in a family.

Being most similar to the sample population, the female secondary candidates only deviated from the sample in four areas. These teacher candidates comprised the largest subgroup under the age of twenty-two and the smallest in the twenty-two to thirty age group. They were the least likely to report that primary school was like being in a crowd and the most likely subgroup to report that secondary school was a positive experience.

The ideal teacher characteristic comparisons are presented in Table 23, below. Similar to the previously reported differences, the female secondary candidates were the most similar to the sample population as they selected the same eight ideal characteristics. Both the male primary and female primary respondents selected Versatile as a more ideal characteristic; however, male primary candidates do so over Receptive to Others’ Ideas and female candidates over Considerate. Male secondary also selected Versatile as a more ideal characteristic but also selected Persistent to replace Determined and Considerate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>Sincere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Versatile</td>
<td>Receptive to Other’s Ideas</td>
<td>Receptive to Other’s Ideas</td>
<td>Receptive to Other’s Ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>Energetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>Visionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determined</td>
<td><strong>Persistent</strong></td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>Determined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considerate</td>
<td><strong>Versatile</strong></td>
<td><strong>Versatile</strong></td>
<td>Considerate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 23: Male and Female to Primary and Secondary Ideal Teacher Characteristics

All four of these teacher groups commented on how their primary school experience was positive and like being in a family and that it should have been likened to being in a family. While these student teachers also felt secondary was generally positive and like being on a team and should have
been on a team; there were some notable differences. Four out of ten male primary candidates reported a negative secondary school experience while only 15% of their male counterparts made these comments, as did 6.6% of the female primary and only 2.3% of the female secondary participants. For both the male and female primary candidates secondary school was a negative experience due to being ‘lost in the crowd.’ However, for the male primary candidates this was because they were told what to do with little personal choice while the females just saw secondary as a ‘waste of time’ when it should have been more worthwhile. The male secondary candidates’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Style</th>
<th>Male Primary</th>
<th>Male Secondary</th>
<th>Female Primary</th>
<th>Female Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Expert</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is passing on</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>8.1%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Role Model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is profound impact</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is nurturing</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inspired/encouraging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is guiding/helping</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>students</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a passion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Facilitator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is learning/growing with students</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a holistic approach to students’ lives</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is fun</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Delegator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is being creative</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>17.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as Naïve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Left Blank – no responses</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is communicating with students</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is something I will be good at it</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is simple to do</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 24: Male/Female to Primary/Secondary Participants view of teaching

negative experiences were due to a perceived waste of time while being at school when it should have prepared them for life beyond their senior year. The female secondary student teachers’ negative experiences resulted from the bullying they encountered.
The male primary student teachers saw teaching as requiring more versatility than being open to others’ comments or suggestions. Their preferred teaching models would result in them having an impact on their students’ lives or they would be learning and growing with them, see Table 24, p. 117. In addition this group of teachers was the only group which did not report anyone with low self-esteem; they would appear to hold a higher regard for their own abilities.

The male secondary candidates saw teaching needed more persistence and versatility than determination or consideration. Their preferred teaching styles of having a passion about the subject or being able to learn and grow with their students reflected these views. They wanted to reach their students by engaging them in the subject matter in various ways and help instil a love of learning.

Female primary student teachers had the highest representation for both categories of very high and low self-esteem. As primary teachers they wanted to be Versatile rather than Considerate as their preferred teaching styles were: caring about students; learning and growing with students; and having fun. They felt like they had been members of a school family and wanted to ensure that their students also received this same type of experience. These participants appeared to have the highest self-confidence in their own abilities.

While the female secondary participants saw teachers having the same characteristics as the sample population this was necessary to facilitate their preferred teaching styles of: having an impact on students’ lives; being holistic; or creative. These candidates had the most positive secondary school experience of all teacher groups and saw themselves as giving back this same experience to their students in their subjects.

Remarkably, while the male secondary candidates were the least likely not to provide an idea of how they saw teaching their female counterparts were the most likely as more then one in ten failed to respond to this question.
Similarly, no male respondents reported any naïve or simplistic views about teaching while almost one in twenty of the females did.

### 3.8 Undergraduate to Post-graduate Comparisons

As highlighted in the reported differences of undergraduates (see Appendix R, pp. 303-310) to post-graduates (see Appendix S, pp. 312-319) comparisons, see Table 25, below. The University of Sydney teacher candidates accounted for a significantly larger portion of the undergraduates who enrolled into a primary education program. The University of Auckland teacher candidates were predominately post-graduates in a secondary education degree. As a large number of undergraduates enter their teacher education program after completion of secondary school, it was not

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reported Differences</th>
<th>Under-graduates</th>
<th>Post-graduates</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University: Sydney</td>
<td>67.6%</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auckland</td>
<td>32.4%</td>
<td>77.7%</td>
<td>58.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education major: Primary</td>
<td>62.8%</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
<td>46.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>37.2%</td>
<td>65.5%</td>
<td>53.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age: Below 22</td>
<td>66.2%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>39.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-30</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-45</td>
<td>14.9%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school should have been: multiple</td>
<td>16.2%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>11.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school was like being: on a team</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>29.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a crowd</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multiple</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>11.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school should have been: in a family</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>18.9%</td>
<td>22.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on a team</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
<td>57.8%</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multiple</td>
<td>23.0%</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chi-square **</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>Acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reliability coefficient α</td>
<td>.7889</td>
<td>.7007</td>
<td>.7483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>4.4507</td>
<td>36.603</td>
<td>33.2797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p&lt;</td>
<td>0.0043</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 25: Undergraduate to Post-graduate Comparisons

---

14 See Appendix R, p. 308 for undergraduate candidates and Appendix S, p. 317 for post-graduate teachers for all chi-square values, degrees of freedom, and significance.
unexpected that they would comprise the larger portion of the under twenty-
two age group. Similarly, as post-graduates have already completed an
undergraduate degree, it was not surprising that they comprised the larger
portion of those student teachers over the age of 23. It was interesting to
note one in seven undergraduates was between the age of thirty-one and
forty-five signalling a significant break in formal education between
secondary school and this choice of career.

As the post-graduate teacher sub-group population was nearly two-thirds
secondary education majors the anomaly in variance reported in section 3.6,
p. 106 was also seen. Similarly, the asymmetrical distribution was evidenced
by the large positive skewness (2.284 with a standard deviation of .169) and
the cluster of observations was greater than normal as highlighted by the
large positive kurtosis (3.781 with standard deviation of .337). See Appendix
S, p. 316 for a complete description of analysis of variance for the post-
graduate teacher participants. All other values of chi-square, variance and
alpha coefficients were acceptable; see Table 25, p. 119.

Undergraduates were far more likely than post-graduates to use multiple
metaphors to describe what their school experiences were or should have
been. They also felt that secondary school was more like being on a team
and less in a crowd than their post-graduate counterparts. Interestingly, they
felt secondary school should have been more like a family and less like on a
team than post-graduates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Undergraduates</th>
<th>Post-graduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>Sincere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive to Others’ Ideas</td>
<td>Receptive to Others’ Ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>Visionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>Energetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Persistent</strong></td>
<td><strong>Thorough</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
<td>Considerate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 26: Undergraduate to Post-graduate
Undergraduates and post-graduates selected the same six ideal characteristics; see Table 26, p. 120. Undergraduates saw Persistent as a more desirable teacher characteristic than Considerate while their post-graduate counterparts selected Thorough to replace Determined.

Both undergraduates and post-graduates felt primary school was generally a positive school experience of being in a family and that it should have been like this. For 14.3% of the undergraduates, this positive experience was due to their neighbourhood friends being with them both in and out of school. Some post-graduates (20%), while generally reporting a positive experience, commented on primary school being too crowded, factory like or in a prison. Similar ideas were expressed about secondary school. Both groups felt being on a team was generally a positive experience and that this was appropriate. While nearly 10% of the undergraduate participants stated they were happy with their experience, nearly three times as many post-graduates felt it was a negative experience due to bullying (5.1%), feeling like they were in a prison (7.9%) or feeling too crowded (15.4%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Style</th>
<th>Undergraduates</th>
<th>Post-Gradients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Expert</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is passing on information</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Role Model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is profound impact</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is nurturing/inspiring/encouraging</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is guiding/helping students</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a passion</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Facilitator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is learning/growing with students</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a holistic approach to students’ lives</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is fun</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Delegator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is being creative</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as Naïve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Left Blank – no responses</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is communicating with students</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is something I will be good at it</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is simple to do</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The participating undergraduates saw the teacher characteristic of Persistent more applicable to them than Considerate. Their teaching styles of having an impact on students’ lives or guiding and helping their students through the curriculum reflected their views of their own schooling experiences and how they saw themselves in the classroom. Primary teaching should feel as though the students were in an extension of their own family while secondary should incorporate students and teachers into a team-like atmosphere see Table 27, p 121.

While the post-graduates saw teachers utilising Thorough in their approach to teaching over being Determined. This was needed to accomplish their perceived teaching styles of being nurturing or creative. Specifically, those teachers entering primary education saw themselves as being nurturing while those going into secondary education saw creativity as a key to teaching.

Undergraduate and post-graduate participants were almost equally represented by those respondents who were unable or unwilling to provide a response to how they saw teaching. However, post-graduates were slightly more likely to express naïve or simplistic ideas about the nature of teaching.

3.9 Traditional to Non-traditional Teacher Candidate Comparisons

140 participants listed their age as less than twenty-three years old (see Appendix T, pp. 321-327) indicating no formal break in their education path, while 214 participants’ selected more than twenty-three years old (see Appendix U, pp. 338-345) which indicated adults who were returning to education. The comparison of traditional to non-traditional teacher candidates is presented in Table 28, p. 123 and reports that both teacher groups had acceptable values for chi-square, variance and alpha coefficients. See Appendix T, pp. 324-327 and Appendix U, pp. 333-336 for complete analyses of reliability.
Traditional respondents reported their schooling experiences as being notably more positive than their non-traditional cohorts. They were less likely to report having both mixed feelings about their experiences or negative connotations associated with schooling. Traditional teacher candidates were twice as likely to remember secondary school as being in a family and almost twice as likely to report it should have been in a family while non-traditional teacher candidates felt it should have been more like on a team.

Traditional students reported the same eight ideal teacher characteristics as the sample population. The non-traditional candidates reported seven of the same eight ideal characteristics. Non-traditional candidates felt the ideal teacher should be Versatile instead of Determined, see Table 29, p. 124.

---

15 See Appendix J, p. 240 for male primary candidates and Appendix K, p. 249 for female student teachers for all chi-square values, degrees of freedom, and significance.
Table 29: Traditional to Non-traditional Ideal Teacher Comparisons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional</th>
<th>Non-traditional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>Sincere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive to Other’s Ideas</td>
<td>Receptive to Other’s Ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>Energetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>Visionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determined</td>
<td><strong>Versatile</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considerate</td>
<td>Considerate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The traditional student teachers in the study generally had very positive experiences for both primary and secondary schooling reporting primary was and should have been like being in a family while secondary was and should have been part of a team. They saw teaching needing the same characteristics as the sample population which would enable them to be the type of teachers who guided their students through school while making it fun, see Table 30, below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Style</th>
<th>Traditional</th>
<th>Non-Traditional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Expert</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is passing on information</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Role Model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is profound impact</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is nurturer/inspiring/encouraging</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is guiding/helping students</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a passion</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Facilitator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is learning/growing with students</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a holistic approach to students’ lives</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is fun</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Delegator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is being creative</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as Naïve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Left Blank – no responses</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is communicating with students</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is something I will be good at it</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is simple to do</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Unlike their non-traditional counterparts, who had a much wider range of comments on their survey instruments, these participants also remembered both schooling experiences as generally positive. Nearly 20% commented, however, that primary schools were too crowded, felt like a factory or a prison. One in three felt their secondary schools were too crowded (15%), prisons (8.4%), wastes of time (7%) or places of being bullied (5.1%). These student teachers felt teachers needed to be more Versatile than Determined. Those going into primary education saw themselves as being nurturing and holistic teachers. Those undertaking secondary teacher educations felt as teachers they would demonstrate: a passion for the subject; being creative in their approach; or learn and grow with their students.

Of all the teacher groups, the traditional (4.2%) and non-traditional student teachers (4.0%) were the most similar for those reporting naïve or simplistic responses to how they saw teaching. There were more traditional student leaving this question blank than their non-traditional colleagues.

### 3.10 Student Teachers enrolled in The University of Sydney to Student Teachers enrolled in The University of Auckland Comparisons

As noted, due to the dramatic differences between questionnaire return rates between The University of Sydney (21.9%) and The University of Auckland (97.7%) comparisons between participating universities are limited.

Teacher candidates entering The University of Sydney (see Appendix V) who agreed to participate in the present study were largely undergraduates who had experienced no break in their formal education, see Table 31, p. 126. The University of Auckland participants (see Appendix W) comprised mostly of post-graduates. The University of Sydney’s teacher candidates held more positive memories of their schooling experiences, while the University of
Auckland’s teacher candidates were more than twice as likely to report secondary was like being in a crowd; they were also more likely to report that it should have been like being on a team. Both groups had acceptable values for chi-squares, variance and alpha coefficients, see Table 31, below. See Appendix V, pp. 342-345 and Appendix W, pp. 351-354 for complete analyses of reliability.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reported Differences</th>
<th>University of Sydney</th>
<th>University of Auckland</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education program: Undergraduate</td>
<td>68.5%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>41.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>31.5%</td>
<td>76.9%</td>
<td>58.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age: Below 22</td>
<td>63.7%</td>
<td>27.6%</td>
<td>39.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-30</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>46.6%</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-45</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
<td>27.4%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary experience was overall: positive</td>
<td>70.5%</td>
<td>61.5%</td>
<td>65.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary experience was overall: positive</td>
<td>56.2%</td>
<td>43.3%</td>
<td>48.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school was like being: in a family</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary should have been like: on a team</td>
<td>44.5%</td>
<td>55.3%</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chi-square&lt;sup&gt;16&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reliability coefficient α</td>
<td>.8064</td>
<td>.6929</td>
<td>.7483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>11.9402</td>
<td>21.3381</td>
<td>33.2797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ρ&lt;</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 31: University of Sydney to University of Auckland Comparisons

The University of Auckland candidates reported the same eight ideal teacher characteristics as the sample population; see Table 32, p. 127. Interestingly, The University of Sydney student teachers had the greatest deviation from ideal characteristics of any sub-population. These respondents reported Versatile, Thorough and Persistent as more ideal characteristics than Self-Confident, Determined or Considerate.

For those student teachers enrolling into The University of Sydney, primary school was a positive experience of like being in a family but this was mainly

<sup>16</sup> See Appendix V, p. 343 for University of Sydney candidates and Appendix W, p. 352 for University of Auckland student teachers for all chi-square values, degrees of freedom, and significance.
due to their friends being there with them making it more fun. Secondary school was also positive and like being on a team but once again this was due in large part to their friends being in school with them. These

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University of Sydney</th>
<th>University of Auckland</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive to Other’s Ideas</td>
<td>Sincere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>Energetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>Receptive to Other’s Ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>Visionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Versatile</td>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thorough</td>
<td>Determined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistent</td>
<td>Considerate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 32: University of Sydney to University of Auckland Ideal Teacher Characteristics

participants saw teachers with versatility, thoroughness and persistence as more ideal than those who were self-confident, determined or considerate. It was these traits that then help them to become the type of teacher that was nurturing in primary school and holistic in secondary school, see Table 33, below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Style</th>
<th>University of Sydney</th>
<th>University of Auckland</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Expert</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is passing on information</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Role Model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is profound impact</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is nurturing/inspiring/encouraging</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is guiding/helping students</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a passion</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Facilitator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is learning/growing with students</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is a holistic approach to students’ lives</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is fun</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as the Delegator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is being creative</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as Naive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Left Blank – no responses</td>
<td>11.0%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is communicating with students</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is something I will be good at it</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching is simple to do</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 146 208

Table 33: University of Sydney and University of Auckland view of teaching
The University of Auckland participants also remembered primary school as generally positive and like being in a family but also as crowded and prison like. This was again reflected in secondary school as being generally positive and like being on a team, however, there were those who remembered it as being too crowded (16.3%), a waste of time (10.1%), in a factory (7.7%) or in a prison (7.7%) when it should have been more worthwhile (6.7%). These student teachers selected the same eight ideal characteristics as the sample population to help them achieve being the caring primary school teacher that has an impact on their students or the secondary school teacher who demonstrates a sense of passion for the subject and learns and grows with their students.

The low return rate by The University of Sydney participants would not appear to account for one out of every nine not being able to provide a response to the question on how they saw teaching. Only the female secondary participants (54.6% of whom were enrolling at The University of Auckland) were found to have a higher percentage of blank responses (11.5%).

3.11 Do teachers interpret prior experiences differently?

As stated, seven specific questions were asked of the data in regards to the research question concerning the different teacher groups within the sample population. It would appear that within the sample population there were teacher groups who interpreted prior experiences differently. It should be noted that most of these differences were highlighted by the qualitative analysis of the open-ended survey questions and are therefore limited by the researcher’s interpretation.

However, when the study’s sample population was broken into male primary, female primary, male secondary and female secondary there were notable differences both quantitatively and qualitatively. These male primary
candidates were more likely to have had a negative secondary school experience and saw teaching as having an impact on students’ lives and fun. Their secondary counterparts wanted more relevance in their education and saw teaching as a passion for the subject to be demonstrated creatively. The female primary candidates were more likely to have had a positive primary experience but saw secondary as a waste of time. Their view of teaching was one of caring about students. Their secondary counterparts may have been bullied at school but still saw teaching as being able to have an impact on students’ lives.

Similarly, the undergraduate student teachers saw teaching from the point of view of themselves still as a student. What worked for them as a student must therefore work for them as a teacher. They wanted to guide their students through the curriculum in order to make an impact on their lives. The post-graduates saw teaching as a means to change the system and make it more relevant. This change would give both them as the teacher and their students a greater sense of satisfaction with the educational system. Their view of teaching focused mostly on being nurturing/encouraging/inspiring or creative.

### 3.12 Analysis of Interviews

The analysis of the interviews focused first on how the participants saw themselves in the role of the teacher and second, their positive or negative examples of prior teachers. The third focus was how those prior teacher examples influenced their selection of ideal teacher characteristics. Finally, common trends that emerged from the interview analysis were identified.

As previously stated, the interview phases of the present study focused on three non-archetypical teacher candidates: male primary; female secondary; and both male and female non-traditional pre-service teacher education students. Out of the sixty-four interview categories, there were only fifty-three possible interviews that could have been scheduled, see Table 34, p. 130, as no male primary candidates rated themselves with low self-esteem;
only two rated themselves with very high self-esteem; only two non-traditional male candidates rated themselves with low self-esteem; and there was only one undergraduate female secondary candidate who rated herself with low self-esteem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible interview candidates</th>
<th>Very High</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Primary: Undergraduate</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Secondary: Undergraduate</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional: Male Undergraduate</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional: Female Undergraduate</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 34: Number of Participants’ Self-Esteem Self-Rating

Out of these possible fifty-three interviews, only thirty-five were able to be scheduled and then conducted. Unfortunately, only one of the thirteen participants who rated themselves with low self-esteem was willing to be interviewed. In addition, twenty-one other potential interviewees cancelled before their interview could be conducted or declined to carry out their scheduled interview. Most of those who cancelled did so just prior to the interview citing work and or family commitments taking a higher priority. Therefore as a result in ten cases no interview was able to be scheduled before respective courses commenced, see Table 35, p. 131.

The interviews were all conducted by the researcher and ranged from thirteen minutes to one hour in length with an average time of thirty-two minutes. These candidates saw their role as the teacher in one of five ways: role model; facilitator; expert; delegator or those who were seen to hold naïve, simplistic or no response reported. Interestingly, 48% of these candidates reported that being a teacher meant being some form of a role model for their student. Another 26.5% felt that they would be a facilitator that learns and grows with their students. 90% of these student teachers had clear ideas as to what their role of the teacher was.
## Table 35: Teacher candidate interviewees, all names are pseudonyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Candidate Interviews</th>
<th>Very High</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Primary: Undergraduate</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>William</td>
<td>James</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>Joshua</td>
<td>Ethan</td>
<td>Rily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thomas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Benjamin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Secondary: Undergraduate</td>
<td>Jessica</td>
<td>Ella</td>
<td>Sarah</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>Emily</td>
<td>Lily</td>
<td>Emma</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charlotte</td>
<td>Isabella</td>
<td>Grace</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional: Male Undergraduate</td>
<td>Samuel</td>
<td>Nicholas</td>
<td>Lachlan</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>Daniel</td>
<td>Ryan</td>
<td>Luke</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Matthew</td>
<td>Liam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional: Female Undergraduate</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>Chloe</td>
<td>Zoë</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>Mia</td>
<td>Jasmine</td>
<td>Sophie</td>
<td>Olivia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hannah</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ruby</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relating their ideal teacher characteristics to prior teacher examples, ninety-two explicit teachers were remembered. One interviewee, Thomas, was able to recall seven prior teachers and two interviewees, Benjamin and Zoë, were only able to recall vague and general memories with no explicit prior teacher examples. Out of these ninety-two prior teacher examples, sixty-three were seen as positive teacher examples and twenty-nine were seen as negative examples. In addition, six general or vague references were made positively about prior teachers and another eighteen references were made negatively. These general or vague references referred to no one explicit teacher but tended to group all teachers into one category or description: *good teachers make connections, personal connections with their students* (Ella -130, p. 203) and: *then in secondary school, ummm the teachers were more, were more kind of just sitting at their desks and just kind of dull and ummm, ummm, yeah, with the work that they gave, I don’t remember a lot of teaching,* (Liam -128, p. 130).

Nearly all references to positive teachers were emotive. These emotive reasons made the students feel comfortable and encouraged by these
teachers. These teachers were not only able to go above and beyond the classroom and become part of the students’ lives but also showed they wanted to. Joshua expressed these best when he described three of his prior teachers and why they stood out for him as positive examples:

(how did they demonstrate these abilities?), by expression of genuine interests in the students by encouraging extra-curricular activities above and beyond what was expected of them, by (examples?) by organising sort of trips and club activities during school holidays or on the weekend, you know in boarding school often times there are a certain percentage of students who are for whatever reason are not able to go home on the weekend, so they are stuck at school and there is no requirement for them to have any tuition or, or there is no requirement for the school to provide any activities for them but these particular teachers I remember, I remember my Classics master, my English master my History master ummm, were keen to organise extra-curricular activities which were related to our subject but were off the subject to a certain degree, in which certainly encouraged this kind of development [ideal student] in their students, yeah, without question, (285, p. 189).

Those teachers who were seen as negative examples of how to be teachers were remembered for not expressing these emotive characteristics. These teachers were remembered because they were cold, distant, stand-offish or dull. These teachers did not demonstrate those characteristics seen as important in a teacher such as energetic, sincere, versatile and considerate. Georgia explained how one particular teacher stood out in her memory for not demonstrating these emotive characteristics:

Mrs ___, she was crazy [laughs] ummm yeah, she taught us in primary and yeah, she wasn’t energetic or anything, wasn’t sincere and yeah she was just nasty (in what way?) I don’t know she used to lock us up in the cloakroom in the dark (was this primary or secondary?) primary, that was my first year at school and then she died, she wasn’t the most enthusiastic teacher (080, pp. 176-177).
These ninety-two teacher examples resulted in 215 references to these interviewees’ ideal teacher characteristics. Of these, 139 were positive demonstrations of the ideal characteristic. Seventy-six were seen as negative examples of this characteristic or that prior teachers did not have these qualities. In addition to these references, another thirty-six characteristics were remembered with both positive and negative teacher examples. Of the thirty-five interviewees, thirty-two were able to explicitly recall prior teachers. Twelve of these only remembered only positive teachers, of which eight then only referred to negative teachers in general terms. There were three interviewees who were able to recall only negative prior teacher examples.

These interviewees made seventy-two direct references to what they believed was a good teacher from their past. In 38.9% of the cases these good teachers made connections to the students. These teachers were remembered by nineteen of the participating student teachers because of the personal relationship that was built over the year or in same cases years of teaching. Lily stated this simply in describing what makes a good teacher: a teacher needs to be able to connect to their students to communicate their knowledge and to provide a link between the topic and the student (064, p. 56). Benjamin was able to describe how one teacher from his past actually did this:

he was a History teacher and he ummm, could run a classroom from a desk or walking around talking to individuals, there was a real personal connection he made with us and with every student there, I wasn’t just a student in the classroom, it was each student, he knew our middle name our last name, he joked, he laughed, he came and talked to you personally ummm, ummm he could single you out of the whole classroom and you knew that he was just talking to you, just that I ummm reckon he was on a personal level with the students and ummm yeah, the student could come to him and say anything, they wouldn’t be criticised or anything like that, that there would be a solution (148, p. 135).
16.7% of these positive teaching examples were remembered because the teacher was willing to above and beyond their job description. These teachers showed their commitment and demonstrated an enthusiasm that made lasting impressions on their students. Sarah explained how her teachers went the extra mile then explicitly recalled one in particular:

*they really did care and did encourage you and they didn’t really ummm quantify things, which ummm, they really didn’t count the cost, they didn’t mind if you wanted to stay after school and have a discussion, I had the Deputy Principal, the Deputy Principal was my English teacher and he actually only had one class and ummm I did a couple of subjects by correspondence for my final year so I mean we literally spent half the day having a nice chat about the English novel which we were reading and this was someone who had a lot to do, he was always staying behind and working till 5 o’clock, but he was still quite willing to engage with me as a learner (194, p. 71).*

One in every eight of these good teachers believed in what they were teaching and showed this self-confidence and subject knowledge to their students. James related how his prior teachers demonstrated this quality and the affect it had on him:

*they were people who actually cared about you and cared about your learning and its, its seems more than just a you know one hour thing, a nine to three sort of gig I mean, so as I think back I was important to them so as a result you had a lot more respect and more positive experience, … I had a chemistry teacher who was, in that she was very passionate, that she was very passionate about the subject itself and that makes a big difference you know (uh hmmm), it does at secondary school (173, p. 121).*

One out of every nine were teachers who were firm in their classroom discipline and control but consistently fair in how all students were treated. Emma elaborated on how one of her teachers behaved in the classroom:
one of my English teachers who had a great impact on me, I had her in year 9, so it was an impressionable year and we were on of the top English class but we still had a lot of naughty kind of girls in the class and we would always test her and we wanted to know more but we were also quite a difficult class to teach, I think, she was very firm with us and very fair and in a lot of other classes we would muck up but with her we really respected her because her delivery was ummm, quite strict but then she would get this kind of cheeky wide smile after she said something and I used to love her, I used to kind of feel we could respond to her … you wanted to go beyond what was expected of us (147, p. 83).

The remaining 21% of good teacher examples from the interviewees' past fell almost equally into two categories: sincere teachers and teachers who made it fun.

There were thirty-nine references to prior teachers that the interviewees felt were negative examples of what it means to be a teacher. One third of these negative examples of teaching were because the teachers were seen to be either insincere or not caring about and for their students. Daniel described how one of his teachers taught class: he would teach Mathematics with his back to us and just write things on the board (035, pp. 171-172). Matthew explained how some of his teachers were not like his ideal teacher: some teachers that were really aggressive and impatient and ummm, results driven and ummm, [pause] not children people (116, p. 162). Interestingly, most of the interviewees' negative examples were referring to general teaching styles and practices that were experienced in the past, unlike their positive teaching examples which in almost every case had a particular teacher associated with the memory.

The remaining two-thirds of negative teaching examples were divided almost equally between five categories: no passion in their teaching; no relationships were formed; it was just a job; they were cruel; and their teaching style was just chalk and talk. William explained how his bad teaching examples exemplified this: teachers who did not have that sense of passion and did not
have sense of energy they didn’t, they seemed to be going through the motion, … they didn’t seemed to be very excited to be there and there was nothing new or exciting (207, p. 199). Ella expounded on how her prior teachers that were seen as bad did not connect with students personally: just getting in there and teaching the subject and not forming any relationships, yeah, not creating relationships with the students (130, p. 203). Georgia talked about those teachers who were seen as just working a nine-to-five job: a lot of my teachers didn’t have any goals or desire to be there, they just got paid (073, p. 176). Zoë offered a description of how some of her prior teachers demonstrated cruelty:

they were cruel, they did things that would be constitute as cruel now …, like I used to learn the piano and if you played a wrong note you got the strap, so you were terrified to play, like it wasn’t conducive to learning at all (096, p. 112).

And Joshua explained how some of his prior teachers affected him to this day with examples of what he saw as bad teaching:

I remember a Mathematics master in particular and a Geography master in particular, as well, who clearly had opposing views and it was clearly the old-fashioned chalk and talk approach which ummm, perhaps might explain why I have a particular dislike to those subjects in adult life (259, p. 189).

Sixty-three references were made to how they saw teaching. Out of these, 40.1% expressed the belief that as a teacher they would be able to change the future with their actions. Changing the future referred to making the future a better place by offering their students the chance to learn in a safe, comfortable and nurturing environment. Teaching was a way to stop the negative learning experience cycle that they had while growing up.

Just over a fifth of the interviewees (20.5%) wanted to be able give their students the skills needed for self-determination. They want to be able to instil in their students the skills and strategies needed to overcome those
obstacles that might arise in their future. 11.1% of these references referred to prior teachers who have positively influenced their decision to become a teacher. And 11.1% believed teaching is about making relationships with their students. 9.1% believe teaching should be fun. When teaching is fun the students want to be there and will want to learn. There was another 6.8% who believe that teachers are role models and should set the standard with their own actions and behaviour. Interestingly, there was one interviewee, Georgia, who saw teaching as just something to do:

I needed to do something, I wanted to be a teacher and then I didn’t want to be a teacher, mum put me in the car and made me go to the registration, she drives me and drops me off [laughs], I did have an hunger for it when I was little but yeah ummm, she makes me actually get out of the car [laughs], I have the spare time if I don’t go now then I wouldn’t go later [laughs] (147, p. 178).

3.13 Conclusions

354 candidates from those entering a teacher training program in 2005 at The University of Sydney or The University of Auckland were included in phase 1 of the present study. Of these 354 participants, thirty-five were then included in the phase 2 and 3 interviews. Phase 2 interviews were conducted to explore further their responses to the survey instrument and Phase 3 interviews were conducted to determine how their first classroom teaching practice had affected their teacher role identity. This chapter has sought to highlight and identify how the various students within the respective teacher education program interpreted prior teacher experiences as to the type of teacher they did and did not want to become.

There are remarkable similarities and striking differences between these students’ interpretations of prior teacher experiences as to the type of teacher they do and do not want to become. These differences and similarities will be discussed in Chapter 4 for male primary teacher candidates. Chapter 5 discusses the issues for female secondary student teachers and Chapter 6 for non-traditional participants.
4 DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

The results presented in the previous chapter show that the entry-level pre-service teachers included in the present study do provide information about the types of teacher they do and do not want to become, based on their prior teacher experiences. In addition, there are suggestions that student teacher groups, within the respective programs of the participating universities, interpreted those prior experiences differently. As noted by Von Wright (1997) and Mahlios and Maxson (1998, 1995), interpretations of survey instruments are limited to what the researcher believes the respondents meant. It was further information about the contradictions, anomalies, similarities and ambiguities that were highlighted in the analyses of the written data that were sought in the interviews. This chapter discusses how the participating male primary teacher candidates interpreted their prior school experiences with close reference to the participants’ responses and in the context of the current research.

4.2 Male Primary Teacher Candidates

As mentioned, there were thirty-five interviewees (twenty from The University of Sydney, fifteen from The University of Auckland) in the study, composed of seventeen males and eighteen females. Eighteen of the candidates were primary education majors (twelve were male), while seventeen were secondary education majors. Some of the candidates selected undergraduate teacher education degrees, while twenty-two selected post-graduate qualifications at their respective universities. As these interviewees are discussed in detail, concerning their responses and what their experiences meant to them, a brief introduction to each interviewee is presented.
Rily embarked on his post-graduate primary teacher training program after having spent several years in a youth ministry. He reported that he had attended a small private Christian primary school in a good community noted for its caring teachers. This created for him the feeling of ‘being in a family’ and this was heightened further by his mother working at the same school. Rily felt that the level of care and the interest shown in the students went beyond a purely educational experience to a more holistic experience. He found his next school, a secular secondary school, difficult to describe with a single metaphor but felt that being part of a ‘team’ best described the experience as he was in a number of different groups: clubs, family, sports and friends while at the school. Rily saw teaching as the vehicle in which knowledge, experience and character were transported into the next generation.

Matthew spent several years in engineering before entering primary teacher education as a post-graduate. He was interested in a more ‘people based career than a laboratory based’ one. His primary school experience was positive and he described it as being akin to a team, as he was involved in lots of team sports, where he interacted easily with other students. His primary school was very large and focussed on achievements and student participation in a variety of activities was greatly encouraged. Matthew continued this pattern of schooling into his secondary school, which was also remembered as being positive and like being part of a team for the same reasons.

Entering his undergraduate primary teacher training program straight out of secondary school was William. He reported that both his primary and secondary school experiences were positive and exactly what he would have wanted them to be. His primary school was a small rural school comprised of only twenty-two students and where the school acted as the focal point for the entire community. This resulted in what he felt was a very positive family like atmosphere. He then went on to attend a much larger secondary school.

\[17\] All names are pseudonyms
which he felt was like being part of a team. He made a core group of friends but was constantly interacting with new people. As in a team, secondary school required him to take more responsibility for his own actions as others now relied on him and he felt this was a very positive experience.

Jack was entering his post-graduate primary teacher training program after having spent several years on an extended overseas work experience in banking in Europe. Jack reported his primary school years as being mixed and like being on a stage or in a crowd. The only positive memory that he could recall was singing. The ‘stage’ connection resulted from this singing, while the ethos of corporal punishment contributed to the sense of being in a crowd. He explained that at this time and in that place, students did not question their teachers; they sat in class and did what they were told or they were punished accordingly. In his last two years of primary school, his only memories were of being caned or strapped by two teachers in particular. The situation did not improve much at secondary school level which he felt was like being in a factory that had no relevance to him. This ‘factory’ feeling was due to the fact that as he followed his older brothers and sisters through school he was often assigned the same homework or tasks they had had to complete by the same teachers.

Having taught English as a Second Language overseas for several years, Joshua was entering teacher training as a post-graduate primary teacher. He attended boarding schools from the age of five. His primary years were recalled as like being in a family, as the staff in the boarding house fulfilled the roles of surrogate mother and father. These surrogate parents were caring, positive, supportive and sensitive to the individual’s needs. As he continued through boarding schools, his secondary years evolved into a more neutral experience. He recalled that by the second term at secondary school he knew the family focus was gone and was replaced with the idea that the primary objective of the school was to produce the well-rounded young gentlemen, necessary for acceptance into one of the more respectable universities.
James was an undergraduate primary teacher education student straight out of secondary school. He reported that his primary school years were positive as the emphasis was on fun and enjoyment. It was a home away from home for him. His secondary school experience shifted to a neutral stance even though it was remembered as like being in a factory. He felt his teachers were more concerned with grades, achievement and the school’s reputation than with what the students themselves got out of the experience. This was heightened by the principal, whose primary concern was achievement and status thus making learning for him a burden. His friends from school did make it fun and worthwhile and so as a result it was not entirely a negative experience.

Alex was also entering an undergraduate primary teacher training program after just completing secondary school. His primary schooling was mixed as he attended several primary schools, but still, he felt it was like being in a family. He thought his experience growing up moving with every break-up in his mother’s personal life was normal until he moved in with his grandparents and was able to remain in one place for more than a few months. His secondary education was positive and he felt it was like being in a clique. He attended what he described as a very ‘country club’ secondary school, where everyone was conscious of who did what with whom and where materialism was a primary focus. He knew his place in the school’s social hierarchy as did everyone else. He did have friends but only still sees three of them.

First a swimming instructor, Thomas was now entering a post-graduate primary program. His primary school was seen as positive and he felt it was like being part of a family, as well as a team and stage all at the same time. This small private boys’ school was very encouraging and supportive, making even the performance aspect of school a very positive experience. His secondary school was also positive and also an all boys’ school but was a much bigger institution. This schooling was remembered as being like on a team, in a circus and crowd but also in a factory. He felt the primary focus was on producing well-educated students so his teachers were not as
interested in him or the other students neither were they as encouraging of their students’ learning as the primary teachers were.

Benjamin was entering his undergraduate primary program after completing secondary school. Benjamin recalled his primary schooling as being mixed and felt like being on a stage. He acknowledged that at this time he himself was very shy and found it awkward to fit in. His primary school felt like being in a fishbowl with everyone looking in and causing him to feel uncomfortable and insecure. In his first secondary school he was mocked and teased and could only laugh back so reported this experience as very negative. He then was able to transfer schools and in the new school environment he was able to join a group of like minded individuals and was able to fit into a group that was comfortable and team like. As a result his second school was reported as a very positive experience.

Liam, after spending several years in various odd jobs whilst trying to decide what he really wanted to do, was entering a post-graduate primary education program. He remembered his primary school as being positive and like being on a team. He felt his teachers were mostly good and the students responded to them by working together. His secondary experience was neutral and he felt like being in a circus and crowd as the students were now noisier, not well-behaved and there were more classes. This resulted in less one-on-one time with teachers and he felt he was not able to fit in and become a part of school life.

Ethan was an undergraduate primary teacher candidate having recently completed secondary school. He remembered his primary school as positive even though it was like being in a crowd as there was also the aspect of like being on holiday with his friends. For him this ‘crowd’ of friends was fun as there was always something going on. His secondary school was seen as very positive and he felt it was like being in a circus as well as on a stage. He stated that at this level, he became more aware of what was going on around him and what the whole process of schooling was about and decided that parts of it were really just a bit of a joke. The idea of the ‘stage’ resulted
from the performance and social context of schooling and young adult life. He did enjoy it more as often this performance described as ‘just acting crazy.’ 

Having spent a few years attempting to make a career out of provisional rugby, Lachlan was entering his undergraduate primary education training program. He realized that he was not going to be able to make a living out of sports and felt it was time to embark on a career that would set him up for the future. He reported his primary schooling as positive and recalled it as like being on a team from day one. His teachers informed each class that they were going to be a team and would need to help and work with each other. To facilitate this team work students were divided into groups and told to come up with their own team name and throughout each year competed against each other for team points. He also recalled his secondary school experience as being positive and likened it to being on a team. This time, however, the sense of team was due largely to his active participation in a wide range of sports throughout the year.

A summary of the male primary student teachers interviewed is presented in Table 36, p. 146.
Table 36: Summary of Male Primary Interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Primary School was</th>
<th>Secondary School was</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rily</td>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>Non-traditional</td>
<td>Caring Family</td>
<td>‘Team’ was best fit description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Sydney)</td>
<td>(ministry)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matthew</td>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>Non-traditional</td>
<td>Positive - Team</td>
<td>Positive - Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Sydney)</td>
<td>(engineering)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>William</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Positive – Family</td>
<td>Positive - Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Auckland)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>Non-traditional</td>
<td>Mixed - Stage and Crowd</td>
<td>Factory with no relevance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Auckland)</td>
<td>(banking)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joshua</td>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>Non-traditional</td>
<td>Boarding school Family</td>
<td>Boarding school Practical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Auckland)</td>
<td>(ESOL teacher)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Fun Home away from home</td>
<td>Neutral - Factory focused on results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Auckland)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alex</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Mixed - Family</td>
<td>Positive - Clique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Auckland)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thomas</td>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>Non-traditional</td>
<td>Boarding school Family</td>
<td>Boarding school Team, Circus and Crowd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Auckland)</td>
<td>(swimming coach)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benjamin</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Mixed - Stage and Fishbowl</td>
<td>First Ridiculed, Second Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Auckland)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liam</td>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>Non-traditional</td>
<td>Positive - Team</td>
<td>Neutral - Circus and Crowd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Auckland)</td>
<td>(odd jobs)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethan</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Positive - Crowd on a Holiday</td>
<td>Neutral - Circus and Stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Auckland)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lachlan</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>Non-traditional</td>
<td>Positive - Team</td>
<td>Positive - Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Auckland)</td>
<td>(rugby player)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.1 Teacher Candidates’ Recalled Prior Teachers

Of the twelve entry-level teacher candidates interviewed, all twelve were able to recall at least one well-remembered event which they were able to define as an example of either a ‘good’ or ‘bad’ teacher. There was a wide range of prior teacher examples, as Thomas alone was able to explicitly remember seven while Liam and Benjamin remembered only one. The remaining nine interviewees recalled between two and five prior teachers. These examples were also directly related to at least two of their choices for what they
believed to be an ideal teacher characteristic or in the cases of Thomas, Lachlan and William all eight of their ideal characteristics.

These student teachers all had clear and distinct memories (Novak & Knowles, 1992) of specific events and feelings relating to their prior teachers. Rily, Liam, Benjamin, William and Lachlan only referred to prior teachers seen as negative examples in general or vague terms. Those memories were expressed with less clarity and collectively grouped those prior teachers were seen as bad examples. Rily was the only male primary candidate to refer to both positive and negative prior teachers in general or vague terms:

(Did you have teachers who were like this?) Probabley none that were all the above, but some who were energetic, others with a sense of humour, and others thorough, both in Primary and Secondary. (Did you have teachers who were not like this?) Yes, some teachers would have a distinct lack of humour, or energy, or not be particularly thorough, probably more in secondary school, though I had a lot more teachers in secondary than primary school, (Were there any teachers who stood out for either having or not having these characteristics?) I just remember some being good and some being bad, I don’t really have names to go with them just memories that some classes we had more fun in than others (094 - 102, p. 115).

All of the interviewees were able to describe what they interpreted as examples of good and/or bad teachers. James described what he meant by his idea that a good teacher was someone with whom the students could relate and as a consequence they enjoyed being in class. In addition he experienced a teacher who had a passion for what he was doing and thus the students were drawn into the subject as a result:

I had a chemistry teacher in the sixth form and, ummm a history teacher as well, the history teacher I had was someone who, was always, a friend in the sense that she didn’t make herself out to be an authoritarian figure which

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18 Interviewee’s comments in italic, researcher’s comments in plain text, see Appendix F, pp. 28-29 for a complete description of conventions used for interview transcripts.
19 The three digit code indicates the tape counter location of the quote on the page number indicated in Appendix F.
was good in some sense but in terms of the actual curriculum side of things makes them a bit strange but still it was a positive experience so I guess I still enjoyed the subject so as a result I think I enjoyed the content, but then on the other side I had a chemistry teacher who was, in that she was very passionate that she was very passionate about the subject itself and that makes a big difference you know (173, p. 121).

In this description James supported Calderhead and Robson’s (1991) summary of how student teachers report on those traits commonly held about good teachers and teaching. Calderhead and Robson reported that:

1. there were usually one or two good teachers that stood out as role models;
2. these remembered teachers were possibly linked to personality attributes of the person reporting; and
3. the person reporting expressed a desire to become like the stand out teacher.

James, like six of the other male primary candidates, supported all three of these assertions when he described his two teachers. However, five recalled more than two prior positive teachers with Thomas explicitly recalling six.

Mayer-Smith, Moon and Wideen (1994) reported on a study of beginning teachers’ prior personal and educational experiences and how these shaped their beliefs on learning to teach. Mayer-Smith et al. concluded that their participants’ saw good teaching in four ways:

1. first teachers knew their subject well
2. teachers cared about their students
3. teachers were seen as competent and
4. teachers made learning fun and challenging

Mayer-Smith et al. stated that these views were influenced just as importantly from positive examples of teaching as they were by negative examples. James in his description of his prior teachers was also able to provide evidence to support all four postulations. James’ teachers both knew their
subject material and were able to use two different techniques to draw their students into the teaching subjects to make them interesting and enjoyable. One teacher, he recalled, employed a sense of camaraderie while another demonstrated a zeal that made a difference to how he as a student saw the subjects being taught. The four postulations of Mayer-Smith et al. (1994) and three assertions of Calderhead and Robson (1991) were supported in most examples by these student teachers.

Like James, in describing two of his prior teachers in whom he saw positive examples of teaching, Thomas demonstrated a similar interpretation of prior experiences when he described a teacher example he remembered, but rather unfavourably:

Mr ____ my English teacher, he said that ___ (interviewee’s name) needs to read more books, and my mother said he is always reading books, are you talking about the right person, it was apparent that he didn’t really know me from any of the other students that were in his classroom, ummm yeah, and there was no challenging to make you go further, it was just literally churning you out, I, I think that was a key difference (174, p. 193).

In this example, Thomas referred to one explicit prior teacher citing evidence as to why this teacher was remembered as a bad teacher example. This teacher, to Thomas, was unable to see him as an individual and had even confused him with another student. Calderhead and Robson (1991) claimed that bad images of teachers were generally derived from a composite of the worst aspects of several teachers. Six of the twelve male primary candidates supported that assertion as there were only four who recalled explicit prior teachers demonstrating what they saw as bad examples of teachers. These examples were seen as unsympathetic, intolerant, impatient, or as cold and distant. There were two candidates who did not refer to any negative prior teachers whether generally or explicitly. Both James and Alex felt they must have had some teachers who possessed negative traits but did not want to bother with trying to remember them as none stood out as worth remembering.
Most participants supported the Mayer-Smith et al. (1994) conclusion that bad teaching was interpreted as their teachers not making connections with students as well as those teachers lacking one or more of the traits seen in good teachers. Thomas acknowledged this when he described his English teacher as showing that he had not made any personal connection with him or being unable to make the class fun and challenging.

Knowles (1992) acknowledged in his study of four post-graduate secondary teacher education program candidates that participants did have both positive and negative impressions of prior teachers and held images of the teacher they did and did not want to become. The source of this self as teacher was:

1. first childhood experiences;
2. then prior positive role models from their own schooling;
3. significant or important people; and
4. significant prior experiences other than these schooling experiences.

The present study’s male primary participants rearranged the last two of these four sources as all twelve reported having positive childhood experiences. Eleven reported having positive role models in prior teachers. More importantly to this study, seven of these student teachers had primary teachers as role models of good teaching practice. What was also surprising was that both Benjamin and Jack saw primary teaching as the chance to correct what they saw as wrong with their own secondary school experiences, an example is Benjamin’s: *I will never do to my students what was done to me* (212, p. 135). Both of these candidates saw primary teaching as a chance to correct perceived wrongs in the educational system experienced at an earlier age before potential negative learning patterns were formed, as Jack described it: *if we can catch them early as opposed to being the ambulance at the bottom of the cliff, umm and then maybe that, that can break some cycles and maybe start some new ones* (183, p. 183).
Similarly but to a much lesser degree, Thomas, Ethan and Joshua wanted to correct the lack of enthusiasm, passion and enjoyment which they thought was missing in those teachers they remembered as displaying bad examples of teaching practice.

Each of these male primary candidates was able to recall at least one of their prior teachers. These participants were then able to describe how they saw those teachers as examples of what they felt were good or bad teachers.

### 4.2.2 Male Primary Candidates' Sense of Ideal Teacher

As stated in the results, see section 3.3, p. 86, these teacher candidates selected what they saw as those characteristics that made an ideal teacher. Mayer-Smith et al. (1994) in their study asserted that pre-service teachers saw learning from the point of view of the student. Anderson and Holt-Reynolds (1995) reaffirmed this contention when they reported that the emerging image of self-as-teacher was most closely related to that of self-as-student. Holt-Reynolds (2000) then critically addressed this when she reported that the secondary pre-service teachers in her study committed themselves to a future professional role based on their successes as students of a particular subject and their vision of what excellent teachers of that subject did and did not look like. While Holt-Reynolds focused on secondary pre-service teachers, the present study’s male primary participants selected four ideal teacher characteristics (those highlighted in bold) the same as their ideal student, see Table 37, below.

| Male Primary Ideal Teacher (N=28) | Male Primary Ideal Student (N=28) |
As shown, the four common characteristics seen as ideal for both students and teachers were, Sense of Humour, Determined, Considerate and Self-Confident. These participating student teachers felt that their ideal student would be able to have fun in class and see the humour in situations just as they as the teacher would to keep it lively and entertaining. These participants also wanted students who would have their own intrinsic motivation to learn and think for themselves and not just be passive recipients. These traits would go a long way to showing their students that they were teachers who really cared and who were willing to take an interest in their students’ lives. As these student teachers had teachers who had done the same for them when they were students, they wanted to return this positive experience to their future students. This evidenced Mayer-Smith et al. (1994), Anderson and Holt-Reynolds (1995) and Holt-Reynolds (2000) assertion that student teachers saw teaching from the point of view of the student, i.e. what worked for them as students must surely now work for them as teachers.

4.2.3 Teacher Candidates’ Sense of Teacher Role Identity

The interview protocol sought to give each interviewee the opportunity to express for himself what meanings and reasons were behind metaphorical selections, ideal characteristic selections and open-ended question responses. As such, a specified set of criteria was developed which would enable an analysis of the qualitative data limiting interpretations and focusing on what was actually meant by interviewees. The interview protocol was designed to elicit examples of prior teachers and prior teaching experiences
that may have helped to inform those participating student teachers of their own teacher role identity and how they saw themselves in the classroom.

Gomez, Walker and Page (2000) reported on a study that sought to use story-telling as a means to helping secondary teacher candidates reflect on who they were and how their identities impacted on their teaching. Gomez et al. concluded that pre-service teachers telling stories of their own teaching experiences required them to tell a particular kind of story. Their story required the teller to be at the centre of the narrative which must have verisimilitude as they had actually lived the experience. Gomez et al. acknowledged that this then limited the ways in which these storytellers could be interrogated.

For the study this meant that what interviewees actually reported was taken as truth and no attempt was made to challenge or question their beliefs and preconception; however, where possible, interviewees were invited to elaborate their ideas to offer further insights and a deeper understanding of their responses. To analyse the interviews Glasser and Strauss’ (1967) constant comparison method was used. This process required an ongoing and reflective process of analysis. The body of data itself dictated what emerged rather than an attempt to superimpose any pre-existing ideas on to the data analysis. Therefore, the data analysis began with developing categories of similar content. These categories were then further developed with tabulated references to form the narratives into themes. It was these themes that led to initial assertions by the researcher about participating student teachers. Specific instances and excerpts within each theme were taken from the narratives to support, refute, or modify the initial assertions. Throughout this comparison the themes were continually refined as necessary to best represent the body of data. As a result, these teacher candidates were placed into three categories:

1. those with a strong sense of self as teacher;
2. those with a less defined sense of self as teacher; and
3. those with no real sense of self as teacher as their views were naïve or simplistic.
4.2.3.1 Male primary candidates with a strong sense of self-as-teacher

Six male primary interviewees were found to have a strong sense of self-as-teacher and therefore were seen to hold a sense of teacher self-efficacy. Rily, Lachlan, Thomas, William, Alex and Joshua all knew what their ideal teacher characteristics meant to them and were able to explain how these ideal characteristics would enable them to become what they saw as the ideal teacher. They were able to relate which of their prior teachers either positively demonstrated or lacked these traits. And most importantly to the present study, these six candidates were then able to explain how they wanted to see themselves in the classroom and were able to explain why they wanted to see themselves in this way.

As an example, Lachlan went through all eight of his ideal teacher characteristics: Sincere, Self-Sufficient, Thorough, Considerate, Visionary, Self-Confident, Desire to Excel and Energetic and what they meant to him. He was then able to relate sincere, Self-Sufficient, Thorough, Considerate, Self-Confident and a Desire to Excel, to one prior teacher and then Sincere, Self-Sufficient, Visionary and Energetic to a second prior teacher.

He described one of his prior teachers in the following words:

he was great because he was thorough and I mean he knew his stuff, and the way that he knew what he talked about is ummm, is that whilst he was ____ of the school he was doing papers and stuff as well at university and he got degrees and all that and, he …, he walked the talk (198, p. 140).

For Lachlan this teacher not only knew what to say but meant what he said and led by example. He was thorough in his subject matter knowledge and evidenced a desire to excel in his own academic life as an example to his students. Lachlan then provided a further sketch:

at the end of the day during school as kids were leaving, he would be in the driveway and stand there in the car park
Lachlan saw this teacher as demonstrating a sense of consideration while at the same time upholding the standards set by the school. Students were able to approach him in times of need and be confident that he not only would be able to help but also would help. Lachlan then related how this teacher made the effort to form a connection with each student as he would make the effort to know students’ names: *when he was there at school he knew your name … so he was one of the ones who really stood out in my mind in terms of the ideal teacher* (198, p. 140).

Along with the other five candidates, Lachlan was confident that he would grow into the ideal teacher he wanted to be. He was clear and distinct in what he wanted, how he was going to do it and why he wanted to do it his way. He was able to use his reported ideal teacher characteristics as a generative device to build an image of not only the classroom but also how he as a teacher would interact with his students and the established role structure he saw for his class. These student teachers’ narratives supported Crow’s (1991) and Tobin’s (1990) idea that metaphors can illuminate pre-service teachers’ reflections about how they see their own teacher role.

**4.2.3.2 Male primary candidates with a less clarified sense of self-as-teacher**

There were six candidates who held a less clarified sense of teacher role identity. Liam, Ethan, Benjamin, Mathew, Jack, and James were able to describe what characteristics defined their ideal teacher. However, they were then unable to explain how these traits would enable them to become their ideal teacher. Some had general ideas but when prompted for specifics about how these traits would enable them to achieve their goals they were
unable to do so. All six of these candidates had a general idea of what they wanted to become but did not know how they would do it or why. There were those who hoped that their education programs would be able to give them those answers. This group of student teachers were unable to articulate adequately their reflections and provide the researcher with an understanding of how they saw teaching and themselves as the teacher.

Liam demonstrated this lack of clarity as he attempted to explain what the ideal characteristics he has listed meant to him. He stated:

_I think it is important that the children respect and feel comfortable with the teacher, ummm, I mean they shouldn’t go to school thinking oh I’ve got Mr so and so ummm, they need to feel comfortable coming to class and when in the class they want to feel safe and ummm, they don’t want to feel shut down, ummm, and I think the teacher has to sometimes think outside the square in terms of visionary thing and ummm, and has to be confident and self-assertive_ (116, p. 130).

While Liam could articulate that a student needs to feel safe and comfortable in class, he was not very certain about how he would achieve this. He stated he had experienced great teachers in primary school whom he remembered and he believed he must have had experienced the same in secondary school but: _I don’t remember a lot of teaching_ (128, p. 130). His own personal experience in primary school has given him an example of a role model of how a teacher can be. Liam knows how important a good teacher is; however he and the other five student teachers like him, just do not yet know how they will get there.

### 4.2.3.3 Male primary candidates with no real sense of self-as-teacher

All twelve of the male primary student teachers involved in this study were able to express what they were going to do in the classroom or how they saw themselves as the teacher. As shown, six held a strong sense of self-as-
teacher and six a less defined sense. Interviewees who were seen not to hold a view of self-as-teacher were able to list what they saw as the eight ideal teacher characteristics but were unable to explain how these made the ideal teacher or how they would be able to utilise them in becoming like their ideal teacher.

James was the one exception. He was either unable or unwilling to write a response to this question on his survey instrument. When prompted in his interview, he was able to state what his view of teaching was but with less clarity than those seen to hold a strong sense of self-as-teacher. Interviewees in this category held naïve or simplistic views of teaching. And as such these candidates were unable in any adequate manner to articulate their reflections on teaching and how they saw themselves as teacher to the researcher.

4.2.3.4 Personal history impacting on self-as-teacher role identity

Remarkably eleven of the twelve male primary teacher candidates had role models of what they saw as good teaching practice. It was from these examples of prior teachers that they have informed how they saw themselves in the role as the teacher. Out of these eleven, five held no memories of negative prior teaching and informed their teacher role identity based on positive examples. The remaining six used both positive and negative teaching examples. In contrast to these eleven, Jack only recalled what he saw as bad teaching. It was from these examples of negative teaching practice that he formed his teacher role identity based on what he felt a teacher should not be.

4.2.3.4.1 Positive personal histories of prior teacher influences

William and Alex were two of the male primary candidates who informed their teacher role identity base on only positive prior teacher examples. William recalled four prior teachers whom he felt demonstrated positive examples of teaching. He was able to describe all eight of his ideal teacher
characteristics in detail and then related all eight of them directly to one of his four recalled teachers. In his descriptions of his ideal characteristics he was able to describe how each of these characteristics was important to him, for example:

when I say does work on time I think that it is really important, I feel that if I am going to expect that from my students then they should expect that from me as well, and I think that is fair, and, and, ummm I think that helps to create that sense of contact and connectedness, you know, that idea that they actually want to get on a working team, where we are all working together towards a particular purpose ummm, and I want I want to be the person who is emotionally sensitive to students as to what they are bringing into the classroom and that is going to play a role in how they work on the team concept as well (135. p. 198).

He was then able to detail thoroughly how one of his previous teachers who he felt was a good example of teaching demonstrated these ideal teacher characteristics and related why he felt her example was important to how he saw teaching:

my Form 2 teacher was like that (how?) she was incredibly, she was incredibly committed to us, she worked really hard for us, she gave us a lot of homework, but in a way that was really about more than getting us from point a to point b, I mean I learned so much in her class it was phenomenal, she always demanded that we get work in on time and she returned it back as well on time, so that sense, ummm also if there was every any problem or issue she was also incredibly present and umm she offered ideas she gave a lot of feedback, I see that feedback as really important, she also ummm, developed a she used a lot of different structures with us to get us interested in things, like we had time on the computers to do things and she managed to break up the day well, and yeah in that sense there was this real industriousness, she ummm, she also ummm, cultivated I think a relationship with us where she ummm, in addition to be a teacher you could approach her as being a friend as well, there was a kind of, she had a genuine interest in us as a person (152. p. 198).
William related how four of his ideal teacher characteristics, Does Work on Time, Sincere, Industrious and Emotionally Sensitive, were realised through this teacher.

Alex also explicitly recalled three teachers he felt were positive examples of teaching. While he acknowledged he must have had some negative teaching examples he just did not remember any. Alex had vivid and distinct images of prior teachers who he felt provided good examples or role models of what a teacher should be. Alex believed that those teachers he saw as being good were able to set the example on how to guide students through the curriculum not just reciting the information needed to pass the next exam.

He described how one of his teachers did this:

> he knew his stuff and made us think for ourselves, I remember one project where he set up the experiment and we were to discover the inside of a box without opening it, and at the end of the experiment he took the boxes away and never told us whether we were right or wrong, as scientists don't have the advantage of being god and knowing the answer all the time, but did we believe our answers were right and could we defend our answers, it was brilliant, we really had to think about what we did and what our actions resulted in and how it works in science (302, p. 209).

This teacher did not spoon-feed his students and even went as far as to withhold the ‘final’ answer while his students supported and defended their answers. Until proven wrong Alex had to believe he had found the ‘correct’ answer as this teacher was demonstrating to them the investigative nature of science.

Alex knew what he wanted to be like in the classroom and how he wanted to be as a teacher and was able to relate how his prior teachers had informed his teacher role identity. Alex stated he wanted to be like his ideal teacher and would be like them in most regards but experience in the classroom would give him the chance to learn the techniques and styles his example teachers had developed over years of teaching.
Matthew and Rily represent two of the male primary student teachers who informed their teacher role identity based on both positive and negative prior teacher examples. Matthew recalled three prior teachers of whom two were seen as positive examples of teaching. He saw teaching as inspiring students’ curiosity, independence and desire to understand the world around them. He saw himself in this role based on prior teachers. When explaining how his ideal teacher characteristics would make the ideal teacher, he discussed how teachers from his past demonstrated these ideals and why they were important to how he saw himself and teaching:

my chemistry teacher and just very very exciting and energetic and ummm caught my attention I guess, and ummm I had another teacher that I would have to say she was persistent, she knew that I, she would look at things like my exams and know that I got a terrible mark but the things that were application based I had done really well at where all the information that I needed was there but if I needed to have my attention trained she would help me, which helped me as I was just not working it was not that I couldn’t do it, and I think that teachers need to be able to see things like that and sort of pick up where people are and know that there are people you have to catch of course, yeah they were probably the two teachers that changed my way of thinking I guess (101, p. 162).

He used these two examples which he felt had changed him personally for the better to guide his selection of four of his ideal teacher characteristics: Persistent, Receptive to Others’ Ideas, Versatile and Energetic. He was then able to further guide his selections based on a negative teaching example: I had one teacher that was really aggressive and impatient and ummm, results driven and ummm, … not a children person (116, p. 162) as this teacher was not Courteous and inappropriately demonstrated a Desire to Excel.
Rily was also able to explicitly recall two teachers who he felt provided positive examples of teaching and one who demonstrated for him a negative example of teaching. He described each of his ideal teacher characteristics and related six of them back to prior teachers who either displayed or lacked the characteristic. The teachers he felt demonstrated good examples of teaching positively demonstrated his ideal characteristics, while those teachers seen as negative examples lacked those traits. His ideal traits resulted from his own experiences as a student so they would be beneficial to him as a teacher with his students. Rily stated:

*Thorough, a teacher needs to be thorough in preparation, marking and caring for each student, it is rare that a student would put in a great deal more effort than the teacher had displayed, so a benchmark needs to be set with regard to the content, as well as thoroughness being a pre-requisite for a well-run classroom, my high school physics teacher was always well-prepared and thorough in what she did, and it was obvious to the students, sense of humour, this is essential in life in general, and particularly when things might be difficult in a classroom, things should not be made light of, but humour can break down barriers that nothing else will, my Year 6 teacher had a fantastic sense of humour that I and my best friend latched on to very well, and it helped to build strong rapport (119 - 131, p. 116).*

In describing the two ideal characteristics of Thorough and Sense of Humour, he was able to explain why they were important to him, how they would be utilised in his classroom and which teachers from his past demonstrated these traits. While he was beginning his teaching career he had already formed an image of himself in the classroom, of what he would be like as the teacher and with an assessment of his own abilities to achieve his goal of becoming his ideal teacher, he knew what areas he would need to work on:

(Is this how you see yourself as a teacher?) *How I may hope to be, mostly, (In what ways?) I believe I have a good sense of humour, that I am something of a visionary for what can be achieved, academically and personally, I am persistent with things that are important to me, and generally thorough, the others are things that I hope to work on and develop (089 - 091, p. 115).*
4.2.3.4.3  Negative personal histories informing teacher role identity

As stated, Jack was the only male primary teacher who informed his teacher role identity based solely on what he saw as negative teaching examples. Jack was able to recall two strong memories of teachers that he felt were not good examples of teaching. The one positive example was because: *I can always remember her as always smiling, and always had a nice little tone* (160, p. 182), this teacher stood out as she was a mother figure that was missing in his life and not for her teaching style or manner. Jack saw teaching as a bridge that links or makes connection between children’s real life experiences and the school experience. In his case he saw teaching as more a means to correct all the wrongs he had experienced as a student as he planned on teaching in the same low socio-economic environment in which he grew up. His image of teaching evolved more from the point of view that he remembered what he had experienced as a student, and how bad it was for him, so he determined what not to do and that he would therefore go in the opposite direction. His ideal teacher characteristics were a result of an amalgamation of teacher, father, coach and role model. Jack explained this:

> as I start my own career as a teacher, those are the ideal benchmarks I would like to set for myself, ummm and it is those things that I bring across not only as a teacher, or as an adult male but also as a father as you know I have my own children and I have just sort of plucked certain attributes from the those sort of figures, to say hey about being a father that is what I like most, I'll bring that in, being a coach of a rugby team required that sort of thing, I, I like part of coaching so I will bring that in and, and all these different attributes to make my own sort of ideal benchmark that I, I would like to try and aim and strive for as a teacher (110. pp. 181-182).

Jack believed he knew what not to do based on his own prior experience which he described as: *corporal punishment with the cane was rife and my*
only memory of Intermediate (students normally aged 11 to 13) is being strapped or caned by two teachers (148, p. 182). He saw teaching as a means to reach students when they were young enough to make an impact instead of having to deal with young adults after it was too late. However, he did so from the point of view that if he informed his teacher role identity as the exact opposite to what he experienced then he could make a difference. Jack felt he knew how he would not be like in class and why he would not be that way, but did not yet see himself as the teacher he wanted to be; only the type of teacher he did not want to be.

4.2.3.4.4 Personal history influences on teacher role identity

All twelve of the participating male primary candidates used prior experiences with teachers to inform how they saw themselves in the role as the teacher. It would appear that the ability to recall prior teachers does not indicate the degree of teacher role identity formation in male primary teachers. While Thomas was able to recall seven teachers, Lachlan only recalled two and was able to express a similar sense of self-as-teacher. It does appear that the degree to which a male primary candidate can articulate what his ideal teacher characteristics mean to him does indicate the degree of teacher role identity. All six of the candidates who were able to explain their ideal characteristics were seen to hold a strong sense of self-as-teacher. This sense of self-as-teacher was not as strong in those candidates who found explaining their reasons or meaning more difficult.

4.2.4 Male Primary Candidates’ View of Teaching

The respondents to the survey instrument were asked to identify what their ‘sense of Teaching’ was. In doing so, these respondents offered a window into how they saw teaching. The interviewees were then asked to elaborate on how their sense of teaching was teaching for them. As stated, by using the constant comparative method analysis of the interviews (Glasser & Strauss, 1967) the participants were placed into one of the following views of
teaching: expert, role model, facilitator, delegator or naïve/simplistic, see Table 24, p.117.

Overall, half the male primary participants saw teaching as projecting a role model to their students, with most of them seeing this as having an impact on their students’ lives. One-third saw the teacher as being a facilitator who would learn and grow with their students or by making the class fun and enjoyable. Four of these participants (14.3%) saw teaching as passing on or giving back to future generations. No male primary student teacher saw teaching as delegation and James was the only male primary candidate who felt he was unable to list what his sense of teaching was on the questionnaire. When given the opportunity to provide an answer during the interview he felt dynamic (111, p. 155) was his best description. As he was further guided in his response to this idea (123 - 160, pp. 155-156), he began to develop a sense of teaching seen as holistic.

Feiman-Nemser and Remillard (1996) identified commonalities in pre-service teachers in the literature. They reported that pre-service teachers tended to believe that teaching was a process of passing knowledge from teacher to student and that learning involved students absorbing or memorising information and practicing skills. Feiman-Nemser and Remillard then stated that when pre-service teachers saw themselves as the teacher they often did this as the teacher standing in front of a group of students presenting, talking, explaining or showing material. For these pre-service teachers, the teacher held the knowledge and information which the students then received.

In direct opposition to Feiman-Nemser and Remillard’s (1996) assertions, there were studies that indicated that student teachers held a more student-centred focus approach to teaching and teachers (Aagard & Skidmore, 2002; Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher & James, 2002; Witcher, Onwuegbuzie & Minor 2001). These studies sought to explore pre-service teachers’ beliefs and perceptions about effective teachers. Aagard and Skidmore (2002) asked 112 pre-service teachers what were their best and worst teachers and
what attitudes and behaviours made those teachers the best and worst. Student-centeredness was reported by 81% as the reason their prior teachers were seen as their best teachers. Minor et al. (2002) reported that 55.2% of its 134 pre-service teachers supported student-centeredness as required in effective teachers. Witcher et al. (2001) reported that 79.5% of their participants felt student-centeredness was necessary in effective teachers.

Eleven of these twelve participants remembered those teachers from their past who actively sought to form relationships and make connections with them and interpreted these as examples of good teachers. These teachers were seen as being student-centred and provided the participants with the examples of what it was they aspired to be. This supported Aagard and Skidmore’s, Minor et al.’s and Witcher et al.’s conclusions about what pre-service teachers saw as examples of good teaching. However, all twelve of the participants also saw themselves teaching from one of the three teacher-centred views: Role Model, Facilitator or Expert. This supported Feiman-Nemser and Remillard’s assertion that pre-service teachers’ tend to hold a teacher-centred view of teaching.

4.2.4.1 Participants with a strong sense of self-as-teacher

Thomas and Joshua were two of the five male primary interviewees who saw teaching as demonstrating a role model that would have an impact on their students’ lives. Thomas predicted he would utilise a teacher-centred teaching style to accomplish this by modelling the behaviour he wanted to develop in his students: *if I am going to encourage students to be a calculated risk taker then surely I have got to be able to take a risk myself as well* (070, p. 191). He then went on to expressly state that his view of teaching as modelling behaviour should be evident in his classroom practice at all times: *if you are modelling that helps ummm that comes through or that should come through all the time* (079, p. 191). Then just to make sure he was understood in how a teacher-centred view of teaching would accommodate a student-centred approach to teaching; he further explained
how these two ideas would work together in his description of why independent thinking was an ideal teacher characteristic:

*independent thinker, yeah, you don’t follow the curriculum the entire time, you want to be able to interpret what will suit each individual student and only the teacher will be able to know that, and also they know it well enough to say hey this is where I think we are going but be prepare to enter into discussions* (079, p. 191).

Joshua was just as explicit in how he saw teaching and how he was going to achieve his ideal teacher goals. He described his sense of teaching simply as: *that it is positive, student-focused, caring and sensitive* (046, p. 185).

Joshua also stated how he would be able to use these opposing views in his teaching whereby the teacher directs the learning that the students see as being important and worthwhile not just to pass an exam but for life beyond this lesson, the year and schooling:

*the teacher as the primary ahhh mover in the classroom needs to create a state whereby the students feel what they are learning is for their long term benefit, it will encourage them to learn, to ahhh succeed to the best of their ability.* (052, p. 186)

Joshua was not as confident in his own teaching abilities at the start of his training program as Thomas but saw in himself a great deal of what he felt a teacher needed: *I certainly aspire to those ideals and to a large part would hope to certainly say yes* (312, p. 189).

It should be noted that Thomas had spent several years as a swimming instructor and Joshua in overseas language teaching. Their prior experiences in teaching may account for their strong sense of self-as-teacher. Rily and Lachlan also held strong senses of self-as-teacher after having spent time in careers that involved aspects of teaching and learning. Unlike Jack, Matthew and Liam, who worked in industries that were
predominantly centred on the individual, held weaker senses of self-as-teacher.

4.2.4.2 Participants with a weaker sense of self-as-teacher

Ethan and Benjamin, like Thomas and Joshua also saw teaching as having an impact on their students’ lives, but were unable to merge the opposing points of view of being student-centred teachers while teaching in a teacher-centred style. While Thomas and Joshua were able to explain how their views of teaching would impact on their students; Ethan just knew he wanted to have this impact. Ethan saw teaching as an honour and a privilege, he stated:

I do see teaching as an honour it is something that is an amazing privilege to have that relationship with someone, to show them these new things, to give them opportunities really to be able to that and see that happening in front of you and see that your work actually is doing something good in someone’s life, which I think to do something good in someone’s life is the most amazing thing, so I think to be able to do that is choice. (086, pp. 124-125).

Ethan knew he lacked some of the capabilities that Thomas and Joshua already saw themselves as having. But he expected to learn the skills and techniques necessary in his education training program. He saw himself building on those traits he felt he already possessed and gaining the characteristics he was thought he was lacking:

(becoming his ideal teacher) it is how I see myself possibly in the next few years once I get trained and can balance them better, as a teacher now I think I have some of them but they would be a little bit unbalanced, I think because umm like in saxophone I skip a little bit too fast and not thorough enough, when it comes to versatility there are still some sections I do not feel comfortable enough with and I still I think energetic but not so much in the other characteristics, I think I have some but to be honest not all of them. (119, p. 125).
Benjamin stated almost the same expectation about his teacher training program. He also acknowledged lacking some of the traits he saw needed in an ideal teacher. Both he and Ethan were able to provide honest personal self-assessments of how they saw themselves at the beginning of their teacher training. As Benjamin stated:

\[
\text{this is what I see myself eventually growing into (uh hmmm)} \\
\text{ummm I don’t see myself as that a 100% yet ummm, I can see there are attributes that ummm I’ve wrote, written, in being truthful in your survey personally, so I guess some of my personality is coming out in some of these answers, ummm so yeah I guess this is what is want to be as a teacher. (186, p. 135).}
\]

Both Ethan and Benjamin were entering their teacher training programs as traditional student teachers as they had just completed their secondary educations. Their lack of work experience may account for these candidates having a sense of self-as-teacher but no confidence in their abilities. They both recognised they were lacking in some of the characteristics that they felt were needed by teachers. James was similar in his responses and assessments of his own abilities.

However, both William and Alex held strong senses of self-as-teacher even though they were also entering teacher training as traditional students. Both were able to vividly recall those teachers they felt were positive examples of teaching and relate their ideal characteristics back to these teachers. Both of these teacher candidates were openly gay and had already experienced a sense of identity formation in their coming out to family and friends. This ‘coming out’ combined with a decision to enter into a field that has had media attention focused on issues of male contact with small children may account for their strong sense of self-as-teacher (see, for example, Press Association, 2006; AVERT, 2005; Education International, 2004; Greig, 2004).
4.3 Male Primary Candidates in Context of the Current Literature

Male primary teacher candidates have long been featured in educational research. Ellenburg in 1975 summarized the current state of male teachers in America after first tracing the historical changes that have attributed to the decline in the numbers of male primary teachers. Nearly thirty years later, Wiest (2003) summarised the socio-political situation of males entering the primary education field drawing together a wide body of existing research (Skelton, 2003; Carrington, 2002a-b; Oyler et al., 2001; Francis & Skelton, 2001; Roulston & Mills, 2000; and Emery, 1997). She highlighted that those males who did embark on a career path involving young children would face perceptions of:

1. perceived homosexuality;
2. having a lack of masculinity; or
3. possible paedophilia.

In addition, male primary teachers should also expect to be held to a higher standard of propriety than their female counterparts due to their gender.

So it was expected (based on the previous study, Sexton, 2002) and actually reported by the participants that no male primary candidate rated himself with low self-esteem. It was also expected and again reflected by the male interviewees that they generally held a stronger view of themselves in the role of teacher, as they had entered into a profession with these associated preconceived connotations.

Most importantly to this study, Cushman (2005) examined the issues facing male primary school teachers in New Zealand. Cushman compared potential male primary student teacher candidates with in-service male primary school teachers. Cushman found that high school male students had three reservations about entering into primary teacher training which male teachers currently practicing in the profession confirmed:

1. status of teaching as a career;
2. level of pay; and
3. physical contact with young children.

Cushman then commented on a fourth issue of sexual and gender stereotyping by their female colleagues confirming all four of Wiest’s (2003) assertions facing males entering primary education. Cushman concluded that as males progressed through their teaching career they were able to come to terms with these issues, as the altruistic rewards of what they were doing became more and more evident.

The male primary participants concurred with Cushman’s (2005) conclusions as none made any reference to teaching as a less prestigious profession than any other profession. In fact, six of these participants were changing careers along with Liam who had tried several different types of jobs as he searched to find out what he really wanted to do with his life. In addition, none of the male primary interviewees commented on the importance of pay or about any risk of working with young children. These candidates had already aligned themselves to the altruistic reasons of doing something that they saw as socially worthwhile. If these candidates had any of the mentioned reservations or any other reservations about entering into teaching, none felt that they were important enough to bring them up in the interview. Finally while four of these participating male student teachers were homosexuals, none made any reference to this being a detriment or advantage to their decision to teach. Likewise none of the eight heterosexual male candidates commented on whether they would be advantaged or disadvantaged by their sexual orientation.

Cushman in her conclusions commented that it was not just more males that were needed in primary schools but more emphatically, why more males were needed. Cushman asked this question in the aftermath of the Australian controversy raised by the then Education Minister, The Hon. Brendan Nelson in his 2004 attempt to amend the Sex Discrimination Act (SDA) in order to allow for male only scholarships (see, for example, Smith,
2004; Burke, 2004). This amendment was designed to attract 500 more male teachers to primary school, thereby: *Acknowledging the importance of both men and women in teaching in our society and the (Australian) Government’s commitment to encourage more men into the profession* (Nelson, 2004, p. 1). This controversy played out in the media and parliament (ending in a defeat of the amendment) as both supporters and opponents argued the reasons for more males in primary teaching.

This issue of whether more males were needed in primary education was raised by Ellenburg in 1975 and addressed by Lahelma in 2000. Lahelma (2000) highlighted this issue in her study of thirteen and fourteen year-olds. Her participating students did not see the gender of the teacher teaching them as important as long as the teacher was seen as fair, caring, competent and able to teach. Her participating students reflected on the teacher attributes they remembered from their teachers that they felt were good rather than their gender.

Lahelma, Hakala, Hynninen and Lappalainen (2000) critically addressed the issue of whether more male teachers were needed in primary schools. Their findings concluded that the need for more male primary school teachers would appear to be an academic or media issue and not a student generated issue (see for example Nelson, 2004; Greig, 2004 and Burke, 2004). The primary male participants in this study concurred as they recalled almost equally as many female prior teachers (13) as they did males (14) of which half were from primary and half from secondary school. There were two teachers that were referred to in gender neutral terms, such as Matthew’s *my chemistry teacher* (101, p. 162).

This study’s participants also supported Lahelma’s (2000) summary that students do not really see the teacher’s gender as important to good teaching but it was their competence that was important. These students wanted teachers who were good people and good at teaching. It was the personal characteristics of their prior teachers that mattered to them in how they
remembered their good teachers rather than the gender. Ellenburg made these same concluding remarks in 1975:

*The real need in the elementary school is for a better mix of strong, well-integrated human beings, female and male, young and old, black and white, etc., at all levels, from teacher to administrator* (p. 333).

### 4.4 Conclusions

Twenty-eight male primary participants took part in this study. Of these, twelve agreed to be interviewed about their responses to the survey instrument. This study sought to investigate how male primary pre-service teacher candidates interpreted prior teacher experiences as to the type of teacher they did or did not want to become. It would appear that these participating student teachers did use prior teacher experience to inform their teacher role identity.

Eleven interviewees related how they had role models of teachers they wanted to emulate in their own teaching practice. Of these eleven, six recalled only positive examples teaching practice. The other five had mixed experiences of both positive and negative prior teachers, but most used those teachers they saw as good examples to inform their teacher role identity. Jack was the only exception as he had experiences of how not to teach. He saw himself as the teacher who would not do to his students what he experienced as a student. Jack built his teacher role identity out of these negative experiences and his own personal experiences as a father and rugby coach.

There were six interviewees who were seen to hold a strong sense of self as teacher and six who held a more limited sense. No male primary candidate was seen to hold a naïve or simplistic view of teaching. This supported Brookhart and Loadman’s (1996) assessment that males generally hold a more confident assessment of how they see themselves in the role as teacher. While four of the six who were seen to hold a strong sense of self-
as-teacher did have prior experiences themselves in careers that involved teaching, there were also two traditional student teachers who held this strong sense of self-as-teacher. While there were five categories of teaching style, however, no male primary candidate was seen to have a ‘delegator’ teaching style. Of the male primary candidates, half held to a role model style of teaching of this group, half again saw it as a means of impacting on their students’ lives. Prior experiences in some form of teaching proved to be beneficial to half of these entry-level male primary student teachers to how they saw teaching. Even more so, their ability to relate how their ideal teacher characteristics based on their own prior teachers would enable them to develop into the teacher they wanted to be was crucial to their own sense of self-as-teacher.

These twelve male primary student teachers have demonstrated some remarkable similarities and characteristics that distinguish them from their colleagues. They were more likely to have a strong sense of self-as-teacher. They were more likely to have had positive school experiences in primary school. They remembered more teachers from their schooling past as positive examples of teaching. And most importantly, they were more likely to know what they wanted to do in the classroom and how they were going to do this as they based their teacher role identity on what their primary teachers had done.

As will be shown in Chapter 5, the female secondary teacher candidates distinguished themselves in remarkably different ways to those of their male primary counterparts.
5 DISCUSSIONS

5.1 Introduction

As stated, the entry-level pre-service teachers included in the present study used prior teacher experiences to inform the type of teacher they saw themselves as becoming. As well it has been shown the student teacher groups within the study’s participants did interpret their prior experiences differently. This chapter examines how the participating female secondary student teachers interpreted their experiences with close reference to the participants’ responses.

5.2 Teacher Candidates

Of the thirty-five interviewees thirteen were female secondary candidates, four were undergraduates and nine post-graduates. A brief introduction to each interviewee is presented before their similarities, differences, contradictions and anomalies are discussed in detail.

Sarah was entering her undergraduate secondary teacher training program to become a History and English teacher right out of secondary school. She had attended a small primary school that she likened to both a factory and a morgue due to the complete lack of perceived emotion or treatment of students as individuals. Sarah did explain that this lack of motivation was due in part to the teachers’ poor retention and as a result the students responded back in kind. Her secondary schooling years were positive and like being in a garden where the teachers encouraged individual students to explore and find their own path.

After emigrating from Europe and helping her husband establish a business enterprise, Emma was enrolling in a post-graduate teacher training program.

20 All names are pseudonyms
for English and Economics. Her primary school was positive and remembered for teachers actually hugging students and being very family-like in interactions with students and their families both in and out of school. She then attended a private girls’ secondary school that, although run like a business, still maintained a spirit of teamwork. While these teachers were not as friendly as those in primary school, she still felt they cared and wanted her to leave the school well-rounded and able to learn.

Entering a post-graduate degree program to gain formal teaching certification in Creative Arts, Zoë had spent several decades first as a wife and mother while teaching private Art lessons. She found her primary school was like an extension of her family as her seven siblings attended the same school where her father also worked. Her secondary Catholic school was a mixed experience. Her friends and the extra-curricular activities provided were positive and fun; however, she remembered her teachers for their cruelty. The teaching was seen as rote and harsh discipline was a common occurrence creating an environment she felt: wasn’t conducive to learning at all (096, p. 145).

Hannah was enrolling in a post-graduate training program to become an English teacher after having spent the previous fifteen years as a mother. She reported her primary school as positive and like being in a garden. It was very relaxed and she remembered lots of playing with no pressure to perform or compete. Her secondary school was an urban all girls’ school that was positive as it was likened to being on a team. While she was not a ‘sporty’ student, she felt the teachers and the general structure of the school made school feel like being on a big team.

Jessica, who had just completed her own secondary schooling, was entering an undergraduate secondary History teacher training program. Her primary Catholic school was team-like as the boys left the school in year 4 and only girls were left for the final two years. These all girl classes with a female teacher meant not only were classes smaller and cosier but also she believed made it easier for the students to get along and work as a team.
Her secondary school experience changed as she attended a co-educational Catholic school and felt it was more like being in a family. School retreats helped to break down barriers and fostered this sense of ‘family’ between students and teachers.

First having travelled around South-East Asia and then working to save the money needed to finance her teacher education program, Grace was entering a post-graduate education program to become an English as a Second Language teacher. Her primary school was seen as mixed and likened to being in a crowd. As she and her family were new migrants with little English speaking abilities, she just followed the crowd. While she was not happy with this situation she felt she had little choice as she could neither express herself nor her opinions. This changed in secondary school as she learned how to communicate better. She saw her secondary years as positive and in a family as the school was more multi-cultural and accepting. She formed close friendships and felt she was now a part of school.

Isabella was entering a post-graduate secondary French teacher education program after first completing secondary school and her undergraduate degree. She moved from a very small country town and entered school as the ‘new kid.’ Her primary school experience was positive and it was likened to acting on a stage as the students were always trying to out perform each other. Her secondary school was also positive and was seen as more like being in a garden. She attended a boarding school and the first few years were remembered for meeting and getting to know one another. Students were allowed outside for classes and she remembered having many discussions on the grass. She felt she was allowed to grow and mature at her own rate thus her ‘garden’ metaphor.

Entering an undergraduate secondary education program for English as a Second Language, Lily’s primary school experience was mixed. She recalled it felt like being in a factory due to rote learning that was focused almost exclusively on the group with nothing geared to the individual. Not only were activities and assignments given to the whole class but also punishment for
rules broken. To add to this factory feeling assignments and tasks were repeated year after year by the same teachers with no variation. This changed at the secondary level which was remembered as positive and more like being in a family. Although an academic selective school the atmosphere was friendlier and focused on the individual’s development. She felt the teachers were interested in her as a person and her teachers responded to students’ concerns with interest and empathy.

Emily was enrolling into a post-graduate secondary teacher education program to become a Judaic Studies teacher after completion of an undergraduate degree. She attended a Judaic community school that was marketed to the Jewish community as an extension of the family. She felt welcomed and remembered it was a warm environment as everyone knew and cared for each other. She recalled that her teachers treated everyone as an individual. She continued through secondary in this same school. While it had become highly competitive for grades and in performances, she still knew her teachers cared for her and she was able to be a part of it.

After taking time out to raise her own family, Mia was entering her post-graduate secondary Mathematics education program. Her primary schooling was mixed as she felt like she was in both a garden and a crowd. While she had positive memories of primary school playing outside with other students she felt like just a number in the classroom. She had learning difficulties and was academically behind her classmates but she believed the teachers did not give her the attention she felt she needed. Her secondary schooling was positive and was likened to being on a team and stage. She now had a sense of accomplishment; felt listened to and was able to be a leader.

First having taken a year off to travel and then several more years as a Mathematics tutor after completion of her undergraduate degree, Charlotte was now entering a post-graduate secondary program for Mathematics. She described her primary years as mixed mainly due to her own shyness and not wanting to participate in group activities. This attitude changed dramatically in her secondary years as it was a very negative experience for
her. She did not want to attend the private school and was ‘picked on’ by the other students. She did admit that this was most likely due to her own attitude of not wanting to be there.

Sophie, who spent the past two decades raising her own family, was also entering a post-graduate secondary Mathematics teacher education program. Her primary school was remembered as mixed as she felt like she was just ‘one of the many’ with little opportunity for individual expression of identity. This was partly due to her attending a number of primary schools and her own sense of insecurity so that she did not want to be an individual. Her secondary school experience was also mixed and more likened to being in a competition due to grades as students were assessed monthly and given a ranking within the class for each subject.

Ella was entering her undergraduate secondary teacher training program to become a Personal Health and Development/Physical Education teacher with the intention of becoming a school counsellor. Her primary schooling was a positive experience and she felt like it was in a family. The school atmosphere was cosy, had lots of play, there was a lot of success and she felt safe. She recalled having no anxieties of any kind with learning or her teachers. Her secondary experience was different as it started off positive but by the time she got to the final years she felt it had lost its relevance to her so she left in her final year. She felt there were too many rules and regulations with too much responsibility but no rights.

A summary of the thirteen female secondary student teachers is presented in Table 38, p. 180.
### Summary of Female Secondary Interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Program and Degree</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Primary School was</th>
<th>Secondary School was</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sarah</strong> <em>(University of Sydney)</em></td>
<td>Undergraduate (History and English)</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Negative - Factory and Morgue</td>
<td>Positive - Garden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emma</strong> <em>(University of Sydney)</em></td>
<td>Post-graduate (English and Economics)</td>
<td>Non-Traditional (business)</td>
<td>Positive - hugging Family</td>
<td>Teamwork</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Zoë</strong> <em>(University of Sydney)</em></td>
<td>Post-graduate (Creative Arts)</td>
<td>Non-Traditional (artist)</td>
<td>Positive - Family</td>
<td>Mixed - positive for friends but teachers cruel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hannah</strong> <em>(University of Sydney)</em></td>
<td>Post-graduate (English)</td>
<td>Non-traditional (mother)</td>
<td>Positive - Garden</td>
<td>Positive - Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jessica</strong> <em>(University of Sydney)</em></td>
<td>Undergraduate (History)</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Positive - Team</td>
<td>Positive - Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grace</strong> <em>(University of Sydney)</em></td>
<td>Post-graduate (ESOL)</td>
<td>Non-traditional (odd jobs)</td>
<td>Mixed - Crowd</td>
<td>Positive - Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Isabella</strong> <em>(University of Sydney)</em></td>
<td>Post-graduate (French)</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Positive - Stage</td>
<td>Positive - Garden (boarding school)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lily</strong> <em>(University of Sydney)</em></td>
<td>Undergraduate (ESOL)</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Mixed - Factory</td>
<td>Positive - Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emily</strong> <em>(University of Sydney)</em></td>
<td>Post-graduate (Judaic Studies)</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Positive - Family (Y1-12 school)</td>
<td>Positive - Family (Y1-12 school)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mia</strong> <em>(University of Sydney)</em></td>
<td>Post-graduate (Mathematics)</td>
<td>Non-traditional (Mother)</td>
<td>Mixed - Outside of class was Positive, just a number in class</td>
<td>Positive - Team and Stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Charlotte</strong> <em>(University of Sydney)</em></td>
<td>Post-graduate (Mathematics)</td>
<td>Non-traditional (Maths Tutor)</td>
<td>Mixed - Shy and unwilling to participate</td>
<td>Negative - Private School did not want to attend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sophie</strong> <em>(University of Auckland)</em></td>
<td>Post-graduate (Mathematics)</td>
<td>Non-traditional (Mother)</td>
<td>Mixed - One of many</td>
<td>Mixed - Like a Competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ella</strong> <em>(University of Auckland)</em></td>
<td>Undergraduate (PDH/PE)</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Positive - family</td>
<td>Started Positive then ended irrelevant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 38: Summary of Female Secondary Interviewees

### 5.2.1 Teacher Candidates’ Recall of Prior Teachers

Out of the thirteen female secondary teacher candidates interviewed (see Appendix F), twelve were able to recall at least one well-remembered event for which they used to describe an example of either a ‘good’ or ‘bad’ teacher. Jessica was able to explicitly recall seven prior teachers. These teachers were then also directly related to at least one of their selections for
what they believed were ideal teacher characteristics. Grace and Zoë were notable exceptions. Grace was the only female secondary candidate unable to relate any of her ideal teacher characteristics back to her own prior schooling experiences. Similarly, Zoë was the only female secondary student teacher unable to explicitly recall any prior teachers.

Jessica was an example of the twelve participating pre-service teachers able to recall past experiences. She described a good teacher as someone who provided not only a role model in teacher behaviour but also personal behaviour:

> my Year 12 history teacher is a whopping good example of someone who worked extremely hard, ... he also offered History Extension classes in the morning, before school started and he lived practically a half an hour to an hour’s drive from our school, we learnt, through the year how determined and dedicated a person he was, he told us how he spent 3 days, non-stop without sleep on his thesis and that has left a huge imprint upon me because it demonstrated to me how much effort he puts into his work, prior to becoming a teacher (211, p. 75).

Her history teacher demonstrated what Jessica felt was role model behaviour. Jessica was very explicit in how this teacher and the others like him affected her:

> from his example and many of my other teachers I do wish that I could become as dedicated and as hard working as he is, he and my other previous history teacher wrote history books, and they were involved in various other educational things and it inspired our whole class in developing a great love for history and a great appreciation for their hard work, it compelled us to work harder and to continue with this example (211, p. 75).

In these descriptions Jessica, like her male primary counterparts, supported Calderhead and Robson’s (1991) summary of how student teachers report on those traits commonly held about good teachers and teaching. Her History teacher stood out as a vivid example for her to emulate. He
evidenced six of the characteristics she saw in an ideal teacher: Thorough, Industrious, Self-Confident, Receptive to Others’ Ideas, Sincere and Energetic. Jessica then went on to describe five other examples of good teaching which again reflected her belief about what characteristics made an ideal teacher.

Unlike Jessica, eight (61.5%) of the interviewees in the present study supported Calderhead and Robson’s assertion of only one or two prior positive teachers remembered, while three interviewees recalled more than two. Lily and Zoë were unable to recall any positive teachers. Jessica’s History teacher wrote books on history; he was willing to come in before school to offer extension classes; he was dedicated to his students and subject; and he was also able to inspire a love of the subject in his students. Her memories supported all four postulations of Mayer-Smith et al. (1994) on how pre-service teachers saw good teaching.

Just like Jessica in describing one of her prior teachers who she saw as a positive example of teaching, Emma demonstrated a similar interpretation of a less favourable prior experience. She was able to articulate exactly what made this teacher a negative example, as she explained:

one particular teacher she was yeah, she was basically who I was describing when I was describing bad teachers, no feedback on tests, ummm, talk in a monotone voice, had no command of the class, would talk really kind of softly and everyone would just talk and talk and talk and she would say class this and this and no one would pay any attention, it was a waste of time, people would come and go as they please (186, p. 105).

In this example, Emma listed three reasons why this teacher was a bad example of teaching: no feedback, monotone voice, and no classroom management skills. As stated, Calderhead and Robson (1991) claimed that bad images of teachers were generally derived from a composite of the worst aspects of several teachers. Six (46.2%) of the present study’s female secondary interviewees supported that assertion but there were seven like
Emma who explicitly recalled prior teachers demonstrating what they saw as bad examples of teachers. These explicit examples were seen for reasons such as: distant, boring, cruel, ineffective, or insincere.

Sarah and Grace were the only two teacher candidates who did not refer to any negative prior teachers either generally or explicitly. When Sarah was explaining her ideal teacher characteristics, one of the few negative comments she made still acknowledged her teachers were good teachers but just not the right type of teacher for her: *I had teachers who were good teachers but who never had much of an effect on me because they weren’t flexible enough* (152, p. 86).

Seven (53.8%) of the participants in the present study supported the Mayer-Smith et al. (1994) conclusion that bad teaching was seen due to their teachers not making connections with students. These teachers were also seen to be lacking one or more of the traits seen in good teachers. Emma acknowledged that her Science teacher did not make any personal connection with the entire class.

As stated, Knowles (1992) acknowledged that pre-service teachers did have both positive and negative impressions of prior teachers and held images of the teacher they did and did not want to become. This image was primarily influenced by childhood memories of experiences in school and then positive role models from school. These images were also influenced by other non-teaching significant adults in their lives and finally by non-school experiences.

The present study’s female secondary participants, like the participating male primary candidates, only rearranged the last two of these four sources. Twelve of the thirteen (92.3%) reported childhood memories of schooling with six of these commenting on positive teaching role models they experienced as students. However, Grace, Charlotte, Zoë and Emma referred to work experiences after secondary school as providing influences for their beliefs about teaching and being the teacher. Only Emma made comments about significant people outside the school setting when she talked about her and
her husband setting up a business venture before she was able to enter into teacher training.

In contrast, Lily and Zoë were the only participants who referred to prior teachers in general or vague terms. While Lily generalised all her teachers into either positive or negative examples of teaching, Zoë only negatively referred to her prior teachers. Lily demonstrated this collective grouping of teachers in her description of those teachers who evidenced the characteristics she felt an ideal teacher needed, for example:

*I had teachers like this in secondary school who loved their topic and were therefore able to convey the material in an interesting manner, as a result of this they were the most liked teachers and the results of students in these classes were of high calibre* (073, p. 65).

Then she used this same style of generalisation of teachers she remembered as displaying what she believed was bad teaching practice:

*In secondary school I had teachers without any of these characteristics and I hated attending their classes, in these classes we often ignored the teacher, particularly when a student had to correct a mistake he/she had made* (077, pp. 65-66).

Zoë only recalled teachers from her past for the cruelty they demonstrated. She explained she had attended a private school and therefore all her teachers were similar in character and approach to education. As she remembered them: *they were very conformist and they tended to think more so ummm, control and what is the word, discipline* (079, p. 144). When prompted to recall any teachers that stood out in her memory, she described one prior teacher who demonstrated what she believed would now be seen as inappropriate teaching practice. For example:

*Only in the cruel department (that’s fine, why did those stand out?) ummm, because they were cruel, they did things that would be constituted as cruel now a days, like I*
used to learn the piano and if you played a wrong note you got the strap, so you were terrified to play (096, p. 145).

All but one of the thirteen female secondary teacher candidates were able to recall their prior teachers. These participants were then able to describe how they saw those teachers as examples of what they felt were good or bad teachers. Just like the male primary cohort, these female secondary candidates supported Calderhead and Robson (1991) and Mayer-Smith et al. (1994) conclusions as to how pre-service teachers see good and bad teaching.

5.2.1.1 Recall of teachers as significant adults

Galbo and Demetrulias (1996) reported on a study that sought to identify the significant adults that university students were able to recall from their own childhood. Galbo and Demetrulias reported that female students were more likely to report female prior teachers as significant adults from their past and that these teachers would be from their primary school years. This study further refined an earlier study (Galbo et al., 1989) which reported that primary students would recall predominantly primary teachers as significant while their secondary counterparts would cite secondary school teachers as significant adults. These teachers were seen as significant because first and foremost they were personal, caring, sensitive, and felt to be trustworthy adults. Second, they were remembered for their classroom involvement beyond the delivery of the curriculum and more as a role model in behaviour. Finally, they were remembered for involvement both in and out of the classroom whether it was as a sporting coach, in a music event, or other extra-curricular activities.

The participating female secondary student teachers did support the conclusions from the Galbo et al.’s (1989) study but refuted those presented in the Galbo and Demetrulias’ (1996) study. These student teachers remembered nine prior female teachers and fourteen male teachers (there
were another eight teachers referred to gender neutrally). Of these teachers, ten of the male teachers and six of the females were remembered as positive examples of teaching. Strikingly, only Jessica referred to a primary teacher as the other thirty references were to secondary teachers. Even Lily and Zoë who made only general references referred only to their secondary teachers. Sixteen of the thirty recalled teachers were remembered for their teaching abilities and the impact this had on them as students with another nine remembered for their lack of teaching ability. Only six prior teachers were remembered for the reasons put forward by Galbo and Demetrulias (1996): five were remembered because they went beyond the curriculum to bring in what was current or topical at the time; and one as he was caring, sincere and trustworthy.

In addition as noted, the female secondary teacher candidates represented the largest group of student teachers to refer to explicitly remembered prior teachers in gender neutral terms. These teachers were referred to as competent subject teachers, as demonstrated by Hannah: *I had a fabulous History teacher who taught me modern and ancient history* (127, p. 119) and Sarah: *I had a couple of English teachers who just had this really amazing kind of style that, …, they had the most amazing way of asking questions while not penetrative in themselves really got you thinking* (266, p. 89). Eight teachers were remembered because of their teaching capabilities with no reference to gender, of whom seven were recalled for their good teaching practice in support of Lahelma’s (2000) assertion that students remember teachers due to their perceived abilities not their gender.

The participating female secondary teacher candidates not only recalled more secondary teachers but also almost exclusively secondary teachers (30 out of 31, 96.8%). Holt-Reynolds (2000) reported that secondary pre-service teachers in her study committed themselves to a future professional role based on their successes as students of a subject and their vision of what excellent teachers of that subject did and did not look like. Significantly for the present study for twelve of these thirteen participants, it was those
teachers who had impacted on them positively or negatively in terms of teaching who were remembered. These recalled teachers were examples of either how to or how not to teach the subject matter. Of these participants only Ella recalled a teacher for going beyond the curriculum and bringing into the classroom outside topics to suit the needs of the students with no explicit reference to this as a positive teaching practice. It would appear then that for these female secondary student teachers, it was those teaching examples from their own past of subject matter that informed their teacher role identity the most. This was seen as well in their selection of ideal characteristics.

5.2.2 Teacher Candidate’s Ideal Teacher

The present study’s female secondary participants selected four ideal characteristics the same for both teacher and student, see Table 39, below. The common traits were Sense of Humour, Receptive to Others’ Ideas, Determined and Considerate. These student teachers felt that their ideal student would be like they were in school. Ideal students are able to listen to not only the teacher but also other students and then think for themselves. These ideal students would be actively interested in learning like these teacher candidates were and also like them seek life-long learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female Secondary Ideal Teacher (N = 130)</th>
<th>Female Secondary Ideal Student (N = 130)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
<td>Curious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>Independent Thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic</td>
<td>Determined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive to Others’ Ideas</td>
<td>Receptive to Others’ Ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>Sense of Humour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>Desire to Excel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
<td>Considerate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considerate</td>
<td>Courteous</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 39: Female Secondary Participants’ Ideal Teacher and Student Characteristics

These student teachers had teachers who knew what they were doing and made what they were teaching interesting by demonstrating a passion for the
subject. Their teachers may not have had all the answers every time but were still able to lead the class and show their students how to find those answers. This evidenced Mayer-Smith et al.’s (1994), Anderson and Holt-Reynolds’ (1995) and Holt-Reynolds’ (2000) assertion that student teachers saw teaching from the point of view of the student, i.e. what worked for them as students must surely then work for their own students, so how they were taught was how they wished to teach.

This view of teaching from the point of view as a successful student of the subject matter was even more evident in how these student teachers saw their own teacher role identity.

5.2.3 Teacher Candidates’ Sense of Teacher Role Identity

As stated, the interview protocol sought to give each interviewee the opportunity to express for herself what her meanings were and the reasons behind her metaphorical selections, ideal characteristic selections and open-ended question responses. Specifically, the interview protocol was designed to elicit those examples of prior teachers and prior teaching experiences that may have helped to inform these participating female secondary student teachers’ own teacher role identities and how they saw themselves in the classroom.

Similarly to the male primary candidates, what these interviewees actually reported was taken as truth and no attempt was made to challenge or question their beliefs and preconception. However, interviewees were invited to offer further insight and deeper understanding of their responses. And like their male primary counterparts the same constant comparative method (Glasser & Strauss, 1967) of data analysis of the interview data was utilised to place these student teachers into one of three categories for sense of self-as-teacher: strong; less defined; or naïve/simplistic to include those who left this question blank.
Five (38.5%) of the female secondary interviewees were found to have a strong sense of self-as-teacher and therefore seen to hold a sense of teacher self-efficacy. Sarah, Mia, Sophie, Jessica and Emily knew what their ideal teacher characteristics meant to them and were able to explain how these ideal characteristics would enable them to become what they saw as their ideal teacher. They were able to relate which of their prior teachers either positively demonstrated or expressly lacked this trait. And most importantly to the present study, these five candidates were then able to explain how they wanted to see themselves in the classroom and were able to explain why they wanted to see themselves this way. All of these candidates were confident and saw themselves as growing into the ideal teacher they wanted to be as they were clear and distinct in what they wanted, how they were going to achieve that goal and explicit as to why they wanted to do things in their particular way.

Mia demonstrated why these five student teachers were seen to have a strong sense of self-as-teacher. Mia saw teaching as a means of returning the positive learning experience she had as a student to her students. She not only knew what she wanted to do in the classroom but also how and why she wanted to be this type of teacher. Mia recalled explicitly one prior teacher whom she felt changed her life and now acted as her principal role model for teaching. She credited her first teacher in secondary school with turning her life around and as she stated: *as a teacher I hope that I can emulate that kind of empathy that, that ahhh, cares for the student which I think he had* (122, p. 112).

In fact, when she went through her ideal teacher characteristics, this one teacher continued to emerge as the example of how she wanted to see herself. This image was also reflected in how she described her sense of teaching by restating the ways the teacher demonstrated the traits of being her ideal teacher. Mia’s strong sense of self-as-teacher finally emerged when she was asked to explain how she saw herself in the classroom as her
Year 7 teacher. She conceded that a large part of her teacher role identity came from this one teacher but acknowledged that she could not be him. She knew she had to be herself. She described how she had taken ‘bits and pieces’ to form her own identity:

*I would definitely hope I would be like him in a way, be intuitive, and receptive to my students, I mean I accept that my style will be slightly different than his and there are other teachers I sit back and think that was a really good way of doing things or you know, sort of, some teacher I know were really funny and you know, ahhh, you know it was torture going to their class and other teachers who were just so passionate about their, their teaching areas and, and you know, you couldn’t help but become enthusiastic as they were, you know I guess you sort of take bits of a grab bag, you take good things and bad things from different teachers that you have had yourself, and hopefully come up with something that is a combination of all those things that this slightly different as well* (199, p. 114).

These five teacher candidates were able to elaborate upon how they saw teaching, learning and the teacher’s role. This was not the case with the other eight female student teachers.

There were four (30.8%) candidates who held a less clarified sense of teacher role identity. Isabella, Emma, Charlotte and Grace were all able to describe what characteristics made their ideal teacher. However, they were unable to explain how these traits would enable them to become the personification of their ideal teacher. Some had general ideas, but when prompted for specifics about how these traits would enable them to achieve their goals, they were unable to expound. Others were able to explain how they wanted to be in the classroom but unable to express why they wanted to be like this. These four candidates had a general idea of what kind of teacher they wanted to become but did not know how they would do it or why.

Most importantly, it was in their attempts to generate a narrative of how they saw teaching and themselves as teacher that separated these candidates
from the previous five candidates seen as having a strong sense of self-as-
teacher. These student teachers were unable to articulate adequately or 
satisfactorily their reflections and provide an understanding of how they saw 
teaching and themselves as the teacher.

Isabella illustrated this when she talked about her prior teachers. Isabella felt 
she was fortunate enough to have had several teachers from her past who 
were great examples of how to be a teacher. She saw teaching as 
encouraging, giving and learning. She used her prior examples to formulate 
the role she saw herself in as the teacher. However, when prompted to 
explain how and why these teachers were great examples she was less clear 
and articulate on the topic. When asked if she had teachers like her ideal 
teacher she was uncertain and ambiguous referring collectively to all her 
English teachers. Then when further guided to explain how her English 
teachers were like her ideal she became even less certain and felt she was 
almost beginning to contradict herself, she explained:

(Did you have teachers who were like this?) Ummm, 
 ummm, I believe, yeah, ummm, yeah, throughout my English teaching yeah, ummm, not all of them though, but yeah, I would say, as model as a teacher can, yeah, I don't know (How were you English teachers like this?) She, ummm, was just, she had probably been a teacher for thirty or forty years, she was quite old, but you did not, like she just had a very good way of teaching that you just listened and grasped on to every word that she said and ummm I think, I don’t think that this is being contradictory to what I said that you should have independent judgement thing and not challenge everything they said, but she really knew her stuff in teaching English and History and ummm, yeah, yeah (147 - 153, pp. 34-35).

This uncertainty and ambiguity became even more evident when asked if she 
saw herself as her ideal teacher. She replied she would like to as she did 
have an image of herself in the classroom, but did not think she ever would 
evolve into this type of teacher as she was preoccupied mostly with 
classroom management issues. She remembered what it was like when she 
was a student with teachers who were unable to control a classroom or
certain students and as she began her career in teaching this issue of control was her primary concern. She summarised her feelings about teaching and her role as teacher: *to just have a good relationship where they can do things but also ummm, I'm just scared of not being able to keep control* (214, p. 36).

Isabella and the other candidates like her were able to list what they saw as ideal teacher characteristics. However, these teacher candidates were unable to clearly express how they would become like their ideal or why they wanted to be like their ideal teacher. It was this inability to articulate the reasons and meanings behind their choices that separated these four teacher candidates from their previous five colleagues. This inability to express themselves was even more apparent in the final four female candidates.

Four female secondary student teachers were found to hold no real idea of what they were going to do in the classroom or how they saw themselves as a teacher. Zoë, Hannah, Ella and Lily were able to list what they saw as the eight ideal teacher characteristics but all were unable to explain how these made the ideal teacher or how they would be able to utilise them in becoming like their ideal teacher. These four held naïve or simplistic views of teaching. Hannah for example thought teaching was just being able to communicate with students.

Hannah illustrated this inability even though she was able to recall three positive teachers and then relate them back to four of her ideal characteristics. However, she was not able to explain how these were then reflected in her own sense of teaching. She saw teaching from the point of view of what her two sons had experienced and used her sons' experiences to generate a composite of how she thought teaching should occur:

*I have looked at all these different types of education and the different ways of teaching and different approaches that people have … so I guess, I felt it is really important for the teacher to sort of treat the student with the same sense of courtesy that they would expect them to display, but at the same time they, they also, ummm be sort of quite firm with*
them you know, you know for the children to sort of actually respect them and the fact the teacher is still able to communicate with them, for the student to feel they are approachable (099, p. 118).

Hannah held an image of herself in the classroom as the teacher students would be able to approach. She was able to list what she felt made an ideal teacher and expressed her desire to be like this ideal. However, she was unable to express how she would be able to be this ideal teacher. Hannah did explain that her ideal was what she wanted to be but then discredited this ambition by stating: I’d love to, but I don’t think I always succeed (125, p. 119). She did not offer any reason why she was unable to achieve her goal to be her ideal teacher. Hannah had no real image of herself as teacher, she knew what she felt an ideal teacher should be but could not see herself in this role.

Hannah and the three candidates like her were only able to list what characteristics they felt an ideal teacher needed. These student teachers then found expressing how they would incorporate these traits into their own teaching difficult. In addition, they were also unable to explain why these characteristics were important to them as teachers.

5.2.3.1 Personal history behind sense of teacher role identity

It has been shown that these participating female secondary student teachers have been influenced in how they saw themselves in the role of teacher by their own prior teachers. This influence was most evident in two ways: first those teachers who sought critical thinking in their students and second, those teachers who acted as role models of teacher behaviour. Seven of these thirteen student teachers recalled those teachers who expected, demanded or encouraged critical thinking in them as students and now see this as important in their own future students. Similarly, seven also recalled those teachers who were seen as role models of behaviour and how they now wanted to see themselves as the teacher.
5.2.3.1.1 Teachers who sought critical thinking

More than half the female secondary student teachers who agreed to be interviewed (53.8%) had teachers in their past who encouraged, demanded or sought independent thinking in them as students. This was then reflected into how they saw students and teaching. Isabella, Emily, Hannah, Sarah, Jessica, Emma and Mia all commented on students needing independent or critical thinking. It should be noted that four of the five student teachers with a strong sense of self-as-teacher (Sarah, Mia, Jessica and Emily) commented on this critical thinking developed in them as students and that now they saw this as something beneficial to their students.

Jessica highlighted this in her description of her year 11 History teacher. She described how this teacher challenged her to improve upon her own writing by providing critical comments that pushed her to improve what the teacher saw as a weakness in her academic abilities. From this teacher she saw how important it was for her as a teacher to be Thorough. Just as this teacher had done for her, she would look for the ways in which she as a teacher could impact on her students by allowing them the opportunities to reflect upon their work and then provide them with the tools to improve on their mistakes (see 239, p. 76). Mia expressed almost the same ideas when she described how some of her secondary school teachers instilled in her what she was most proud of: I feel I am able to come up with my own ideas and able to express them (058, p. 110). And like Jessica, this was also how Mia would like to see her students in her class; students who know they are able to not only think for themselves but also express their own ideas.

5.2.3.1.2 Teachers who were role models of teaching

Five of the seven student teachers who had personal experience of teachers who sought critical thinking also commented on those teachers whom they felt were role models for good teaching. Sarah, Jessica, Emma, Mia and Emily explained how those teachers influenced their decision to become
teachers along with Charlotte and Sophie. Remarkably it was all five of the female secondary teacher candidates with a strong sense of self-as-teacher who also had role models of teaching while none of those seen with no real sense of teacher had these role models.

Both Jessica and Emily explicitly stated that teachers were role models to their students. Jessica described her teachers as good role models for teaching and supported her descriptions by stating:

we had great role models who taught us that we should give back to community, to use the talents God has given us to help others, to make a difference and to teach them what they themselves had so passionately taught us (292, pp. 77-78).

Emily stated a similar idea as she believed teaching was a privilege as students were looking for role models. However, it was Sarah and Charlotte who explained that it was through witnessing the examples of their prior teachers that gave them the reason to select a career in the teaching profession in their chosen academic subjects. These teachers had influenced not only their decisions to become teachers but also teachers of the same discipline area. It was these examples of teaching that were most evident in their selection of ideal teacher characteristics. Charlotte was entering an education program to become a Mathematics teacher and described one of her teachers that stood out in her memory:

I had one teacher and it is funny because she was my maths teacher and now I am going be you know wanting to be a maths teacher, so she was fantastic and I will always remember her (130, pp. 205-206).

Then when prompted to explain how this teacher was ‘fantastic’, Charlotte detailed how this one teacher was able to incorporate four of her ideal characteristics (see 130, pp. 205-206). Sarah was even more explicit. She attributed her entering teaching to those high school teachers she had who had engaged her as a student: I mean I decided to do teaching because of
the teachers that I had in high school ummm, particularly in my area which is History, Drama, and English which is what I am gonna teach (194, p. 87).

Sarah was perfectly clear in how her teachers of English, History and Drama showed her aspects of themselves that she wished to emulate. These teachers excited her not only about these subjects but also about life-long learning: *I became a teacher because I had teachers who made me love learning* (266, p. 90).

### 5.2.3.1.3 Personal history influences on female secondary candidates

The participating female secondary student teachers have shown themselves to range from those candidates with clear and distinct ideas about themselves in the role of teacher to those with little or no idea. How these teacher candidates saw themselves in the role of teacher; what this role meant for them; and why they wanted to see themselves this way were the reasons that differences arose between these entry-level student teachers.

Out of the thirteen female secondary student teachers, seven saw their future students based on the way they themselves were as a student. There were also seven participants who had role models of teaching behaviour that they wished to emulate in their own teaching practice. Remarkably, it was those student teachers with a strong sense of self-as-teacher who were able to describe these two influences on how they saw teaching and themselves as the teacher. It would appear that those female secondary teacher candidates who were able to express a sense of self-as-teacher did inform their teacher role identity based on their own prior experience as students with those teachers they saw as role models of good teaching practice. Even more remarkable was the fact that it was those teachers who acted as role model teachers of the subject that these student teachers now wanted to emulate.

### 5.2.4 Teacher Candidates' View of Teaching
Overall, the most commonly reported teaching style by one-third of all female secondary student teachers was that teaching should be as a role model, see Table 24, p. 122; in addition like their male primary counterparts, half of these saw this teaching as having an impact on their students’ lives. Also like the male primary candidates, teacher as a facilitator was the second most commonly held view of teaching. However, unlike every other teacher group, one out of every six (17.7%) saw the teacher as a delegator.

Of the thirteen interviewees: Isabella, Grace, Emily, Ella and Charlotte saw teaching as being a facilitator. The teacher as facilitator designs student-centred activities that emphasises the personal nature of student-teacher interactions. Ella expressed this in her description of teaching. For Ella teaching was: *about always seeing the human dimension … getting the idea that recognising what they do affects others … everyone really* (065. p. 267).

Emma, Sophie, Lily and Mia saw teaching as a role model. The role model sets the example for the students to follow and tends towards a teacher-centred approach. Sophie saw this as being able to make a difference in students’ lives. She described how teaching would be empowering others through shared knowledge: *I mean by empowering give them the basics that they can then apply and help them to help themselves* (183, p. 196).

As the expert, the teacher holds the knowledge to be passed on to the receptive students. This teacher is teacher-centred. Jessica and Zoë saw teaching in exactly this manner. As Zoë stated on her survey in describing her sense of teaching: *to transfer my gathered knowledge and to enable other generations to learn from it, to benefit* (043, p. 143).

The female secondary student teachers had the largest percentage of teacher candidates who held a delegator view of teaching. The delegator sets tasks or assignments that the students are required to solve in groups or as individuals. The teacher is a source of reference when needed and when requested. This is a very student-centred approach to teaching. Sarah
explained how as a teacher she would be like this as she saw her role as the teacher as an actor:

> learning in a more cooperative kind of sense, you probably will see the teacher as an actor and as a leader ummm, but someone who is also very open, so I think the metaphor of acting describes teaching well (091, p. 83).

As stated, those student teachers who were unable to provide a sense of teaching or were seen to hold simplistic views were grouped into a category of those who saw teaching from the point of view of naivety. Hannah has already been shown to see teaching as just being able to communicate with students. But how she will be able to do this she was not sure. This ambiguity was again reflected in the fact that the female secondary teacher candidates as a group had the largest representation of all the teacher groups who left this question blank (11.5%).

### 5.3 Female Secondary Teacher Candidates in Context of the Current Research

Unfortunately, unlike their male primary counterparts there is a paucity of studies that focused on females entering their secondary education programs.

**There exists a great body of work on:**

- gender in education (Haynie, 2005; Anderson, 2005; Poiner, 1995; Bulbeck & Ferris, 1990);
- gender in the classroom (Mael, Alonso, Gibson, Rogers & Smith, 2005; McCaughty, 2004);
- female pre-service teachers’ effective learning in the Maths and Sciences (Bullock & Freedman, 2005; Preece, Postlewaite, Skinner & Simpson, 2004; Bauer, 2000);
- female student teachers and their experiences of sexual harassment in the classroom (Schilt, 2003; Miller, 1997); and
• ethnic females in education (Holcomb-McCoy, 2005; Mabokela & Mawila, 2004).

But there is very little that focuses on females in secondary education teacher training. In fact an ERIC (Educational Resources Information Centre) search under this topic in July 2006 revealed 160 citations that included only one research study into females in secondary education teacher training.

Huerta and Flemmer (2005) reported on a study that examined six female secondary student teachers. The focus of the study was to investigate how growing up, learning, living and studying in communities that were overwhelmingly made up of members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints would not prepare these student teachers for diverse student populations other than what they themselves were members of. Huerta and Flemmer reported that those topics that fell outside accepted church beliefs were strongly resisted by these student teachers.

This study offered only limited comparisons. While Lily saw her role as the teacher in a situation similar to how she herself was taught, this was based on academic similarities not religious. How Lily would react to diverse situations or students was, unfortunately, neither addressed nor brought up in either the first or second interviews.

One study of particular interest to the present study was the Australian study conducted by Manuel and Hughes (2006). Manuel and Hughes investigated the motivations of 79 (78% female, 22% male) undergraduate secondary pre-service teachers at the University of Sydney. Their study was conducted in the third year of a five-year teacher education program; however, many of the reported motivations were reflected in these entry-level participants. For example, Manuel and Hughes reported that 70.9% saw personal fulfilment as a factor which influenced their decision to become a teacher, 69.6% enjoyment of the subject and 65.8% working with young people. Similarly, 53.8% of the participating female secondary reported enjoyment of the
subject under a prior teacher they viewed as a role model of how to teach that subject. It was this influence that has given them the ideas to teach the same subject in much the same ways giving them a personal fulfilment, enjoyment of the subject and desire to work with students.

As stated, this study arose out of a previous study (Sexton, 2002; Sexton 2004). In that study one of the most striking results was that thirteen of the seventeen interviewees reported that their prior teachers encouraged, inspired, demanded that they have or learn to develop critical thinking and this in turn they wanted to return to their students. Remarkably thirteen of the seventeen student teachers interviewed in the 2002 study commented on critical thinking. Three of these were three of the six participating female secondary candidates. This was also reflected in those female secondary candidates in 2005 with half remarking on the influence of prior teachers’ emphasis on critical thinking.

Brookhart and Loadman (1996) surveyed 936 student teachers enrolled in their first teacher education course at three universities in the United States to gain a wide sample population of student teachers. While the study’s focus was on identifying characteristics of male primary teachers, it offered comparisons between teacher groups. Brookhart and Loadman reported that male primary candidates were more likely to have decided later in life to become teachers than other teacher groups. The female secondary candidates supported this claim as nine of the thirteen (69.2%) made references to knowing they were going to be teachers while still in secondary school. It was their secondary schooling experiences that positively influenced their decisions to become teachers. Out of the remaining four, Zoë explained she decided to enter into teaching after her children were sufficiently old enough for her to pursue her own career. Sophie, Isabella and Hannah did not address this issue in their narratives.

5.4 Conclusions
While there were some notable similarities and differences among the female secondary student teachers as to how they saw teaching and the teacher, few opportunities exist in the current literature to compare these student teachers to the wider teacher population. While there are many studies that include female secondary student teachers only one was found to focus exclusively on female secondary teacher candidates.

This study investigated the influence prior teachers had on the type of teacher female secondary pre-service teachers do and do not want to become. These teacher candidates in the present study did remember their prior teachers and the associated school experiences. Like their male primary counterparts it was the positive prior experiences which influenced them the most. Unlike the male primary candidates, these female secondary were primarily influenced by those prior teachers who demonstrated the teaching practice they most wanted to see in their own teaching. It was those participating student teachers who could cite prior secondary teachers who not only sought independent thinking in them as students but also acted as role models of subject matter teaching that they wished to emulate. These student teachers as a result remembered those characteristics of secondary teachers who impacted on their lives and most importantly acted as an impetus for them to enter into secondary teaching.

It has been shown the participating female secondary teacher candidates, like their male primary counterparts, have used their own prior experiences in the classroom to formulate the image they held of themselves as the teacher in the classroom. The next chapter will discuss how the participating non-traditional student teachers stood out from their colleagues in interpreting prior schooling experiences.
6 NON-TRADITIONAL PARTICIPANTS

6.1 Introduction

The last two chapters demonstrated that both male primary and female secondary participating teacher candidates interpreted prior experiences differently. Additionally, the results suggested that the non-traditional student teachers in the study had reported differences in how they interpreted their prior schooling experiences. These differences are discussed in this chapter.

6.2 Teacher Candidates

Twenty-four (twelve male, twelve female) of the thirty-five interviewees were non-traditional student teachers. Fourteen have already been introduced: Matthew, Lachlan, Joshua, Liam, Rily, Thomas and Jack (see Chapter 5) and Zoë, Charlotte, Sophie, Emma, Mia, Grace and Hannah (see Chapter 6). A brief introduction of the other ten teacher candidates is presented before their responses are discussed in detail.

Samuel\textsuperscript{21} was enrolling on his post-graduate secondary education program to become a graphic arts teacher after working as a freelance graphic artist previously. He recalled his primary school as being both positive and negative at times but overall he was able to be part of a team-like environment. His secondary school was very similar with the addition of specialisation classes. This academic grouping began to break up the group formed in primary school as students moved closer to those students with similar interests. He felt a very team-like atmosphere prevailed.

After taking time off from his educational studies to enjoy travelling, surfing and relaxing with his friends, Luke was entering his post-graduate secondary program for Mathematics. He stated his primary school years were positive

\textsuperscript{21} All names are pseudonyms
and somewhere between like being in a garden and being on a stage. The ‘garden’ feelings came from the luxurious feeling of lying back in deep grassy lawns and being indulged by one or two teachers. He felt one or two also put him on a stage as a role model to the other students but this let him abuse the system and as he described: *get away with murder* (004, p. 128). He had a completely opposing experience in secondary school. He attended an academically oriented private boys’ school that prided itself on its students’ achievement records. Although he knew and acknowledged that his teachers worked extremely hard, he still felt school was like being in a factory as the students were on an ‘assembly line of rote learning’ to get above a certain mark in the final exams and maintain the school’s standing and reputation.

First, having spent several years in industry as a chemical engineer, Ryan was entering a post-graduate secondary Science teacher education program. He remembered his primary school experience was mixed and that it felt like he was in a crowd. His family moved around quite a bit and he attended several different primary schools. He never got to make any real friends – thus the crowd metaphor. He focused more on school than those around him. This improved somewhat at the secondary level which he saw more like being in a family. He was able to make some friends with those of similar interest that became a pseudo-family as they could talk, help each other out and do things together. The rest of the students were on the ‘outside of his world’ and he and his friends were left to do their own thing.

Ruby was entering a post-graduate primary teacher education program after having raised her own children. Both primary and secondary schooling was remembered similarly: as positive and like being on a team. She was part of a large group of friends that could all play together and she felt she was able to just be included in everything. She and her friends worked together like team-mates and this resulted in group projects and assignments in nearly everything she did.
Jasmine was also enrolling into a post-graduate primary education degree program having spent several years overseas due to her husband’s work. Her schooling experiences were remembered as neutral and likened to being in a vacuum. She admitted that while she was lacking in confidence no one tried to ‘communicate’ with her so even though she was physically at school she was mentally somewhere else. She reported not having any recollections of her time in school and was now disappointed no one tried to engage, encourage, or communicate in any way with her.

Now entering her post-graduate primary teacher education program, Chloe had been teaching part-time for several years in a junior sports program at a local fitness centre. Her primary experience was positive and likened to being on a team as she related and worked well with others. She believed her primary school had taught her how to do this. Her secondary schooling was also positive but Chloe described it as being in a factory due to the way learning was seen only as a way of ‘churning out’ answers for the exams. Even though she was learning to regurgitate answers, the social aspects more than compensated for this aspect of school.

Nicholas was entering an undergraduate secondary program after having spent the past few years working in various jobs trying to decide what he really wanted to do in life. He described two experiences for his view of primary schooling. His first school was only remembered as being fun then he transferred to a private boys’ school in year four. This was fine until the following year when he had a teacher he recalled as a complete bitch (001, p. 49) due to her discrimination of non-popular students. His secondary school was a continuation of this same private school but now he felt fostered a real bond among students.

Changing careers from working in the business world, Daniel was entering his post-graduate secondary education program for Business Studies. He recalled his primary schooling was neutral and likened to being in a crowd as he moved from school to school. His primary years were greatly influenced by the year he spent in hospital with a serious illness and had to attend the
hospital's school with its one teacher. His secondary school experience was far more positive and likened to being on a team as he was able to attend the same school for the entire five years. He was able to meet; get to know; learn to trust; and rely on friends and still maintained close contact with them.

Georgia was entering her undergraduate primary teacher program after taking several years off since completing her secondary schooling. She reported her small rural primary school was a positive experience as everyone knew each other and worked together – thus the team metaphor. This changed in her secondary school as she likened it to being in a prison. She selected this metaphor because she perceived the teachers were no longer working with their students but now against them. She became increasingly uncomfortable with all the imposed boundaries and believed the school had just written her off as never going to be able to succeed or achieve. She did acknowledge that in secondary school she changed from being the achieving and successful student to the ‘nightmare’ student who did not do anything she did not want to do.

Now wanting to do something for herself, Olivia was entering a post-graduate primary education program after having spent the past thirty years as a wife and mother. Her primary school experience was very negative and referred to as like a prison with ‘hateful’ teachers who stunted academic and personal growth. She felt trapped and could not wait to get out as she recalled that typical teaching strategies were public humiliation and physical punishment. This improved slightly at secondary school which was seen as a neutral experience and likened to being in a circus. It was entertaining to watch the disruptive antics of students or the teachers ‘going off’ because of these students. She did make some friends and said she learned enough to go to college but there was only one teacher who was worth remembering as doing anything worthwhile in class.

A summary of these ten non-traditional student teachers is presented in Table 40, p. 207.
Summary of Non-Traditional Interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Prior Career</th>
<th>Primary School was</th>
<th>Secondary School was</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Samuel</td>
<td>Post-graduate Secondary</td>
<td>Freelance Artist</td>
<td>Positive and Negative - Team</td>
<td>Positive and Negative - Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(University of Auckland)</td>
<td>(Graphic Arts)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Luke</td>
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<td>Time off to surf, relax and travel</td>
<td>Positive – Garden and Stage</td>
<td>Negative Factory</td>
</tr>
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<td>(Mathematics)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td>Engineer</td>
<td>Mixed – Crowd</td>
<td>Mixed – family</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Mother</td>
<td>Positive – Team</td>
<td>Positive – Team</td>
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<td>Neutral – Vacuum</td>
<td>Neutral – Vacuum</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chloe</td>
<td>Post-graduate Primary</td>
<td>Sports Coaching</td>
<td>Positive – Team</td>
<td>Positive – Factory</td>
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<td>(University of Sydney)</td>
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<td>First – Fun Second – Negative</td>
<td>Positive – Bonded with friends</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daniel</td>
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<td>Business</td>
<td>Neutral – Crowd</td>
<td>Positive – Team</td>
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Table 40: Summary of Non-traditional Interviewees

6.2.1 Non-Traditional Teacher Candidates’ Recalled Prior Teachers

Like their male primary and female secondary counterparts most (87.5%) of the non-traditional student teachers were able to recall at least one well-remembered event which they used to define an example of either a ‘good’ or ‘bad’ teacher (see Appendix F). Similarly, this example was also directly related to at least one of their selections for what they believed to be ideal teacher characteristics. Half of these participants had clear and distinct memories (Novak & Knowles, 1992) of those specific events and feelings relating to three or more of their prior teachers. Nine were able to remember explicitly only one or two teachers and related events while Ryan, Chloe and Zoë were not able to recall any explicit prior teacher memories. The
memories they did have were recalled with less clarity and generally referred to in vague terms that collectively grouped their prior teachers as either good or bad. Ryan offered the most succinct example of this when he referred to his secondary teachers: *all my secondary school teachers were like this* (146, p. 39) and then his primary teachers: *in primary school, many were non-fussed, apathetic, because they had been teaching for a long time* (151, p. 39).

Twenty-one of the interviewees (87.5%) were able to describe what they interpreted as examples of good and/or bad teachers. Nicholas described what he meant by his idea that a good teacher was someone who provided not only a role model in teacher behaviour but also personal behaviour. He had teachers who demonstrated a sense of caring about students and this in turn he wanted to model in his own teaching. Nicholas related how he saw being the teacher: *care about their students, I don't want to be a teacher who doesn't care about how my students learn or what they feel about learning* (111, p. 48). This sense of caring was reflected in how he described those teachers he remembered from his own schooling: *the teachers made me feel comfortable and many times they comforted me when I was sad or depressed or when I had problems at home* (043, p. 46).

Like the male primary and female secondary candidates, the non-traditional student teachers, as evidenced by Nicholas, also supported Calderhead and Robson’s (1991) summary of how student teachers report on those traits commonly held about good teachers and teaching. In addition, these participants also supported Mayer-Smith et al.’s (1994) assertions of teachers seen as negative examples of teaching having an influence on pre-service teachers’ beliefs on teaching.

Just as Nicholas described the prior teachers he saw as positive example of teaching, Olivia demonstrated a similar interpretation of prior negative experiences when she described a teacher she remembered. When asked to describe how her primary school teachers were not considered as her
ideal of good teachers she began with a general description of all her primary teachers:

*it was basic, basically like stamping out, the stamping out of all individuality the kids had, you learned never to take a risk with your ummm, they were never intuitive to how you were feeling and totally inflexible in their teaching styles and just like chalk and talk the whole time and ummm, and totally insincere* (153, p. 145).

Olivia then explained how one teacher in particular stood out and the reasons why this teacher stood out. Her prior teacher was insincere, not visionary and not intuitive:

*the head teacher would be nice to your parents and if you were bumbling you used to get caned and it was, he was an absolute bastard really [laughs] didn’t have a clue about anything really and had no vision about what he wanted or how he saw the kids and what he wanted the kids to be in the future* (153, p. 145).

Olivia was very explicit about how her teacher demonstrated those characteristics that she felt were the opposite of what she saw as the ideal teacher. While Calderhead and Robson (1991) claimed that bad images of teachers were generally derived from a composite of the worst aspects of several teachers; fifteen (62.58%) of these participants were like Olivia in that they recalled explicit prior teachers demonstrating what they saw as bad examples of teaching. These teachers were seen as unsympathetic, intolerant, impatient, shouters or as distant. Like two of their male primary cohorts, Grace and Jasmine were the only non-traditional teacher candidates who did not refer to any negative prior teachers whether generally or explicitly.

Almost all the non-traditional participants, however, supported Mayer-Smith et al.’s (1994) conclusion that bad teaching was seen due to their teachers not making connections with students as well as those teachers lacking one
or more of the traits seen in good teachers. Olivia acknowledged this when her head teacher showed he would not make any personal connections with her.

As stated, Knowles (1992) reported that there were four sources of influence on self-as-teacher image: childhood experiences, positive role model teachers, significant non-teaching adults and then significant non-schooling experiences. These twenty-four participants, just like their male primary and female secondary cohorts, rearranged the final two sources of influence reported by Knowles (1992). Seventeen (70.8%) reported having positive childhood experiences and half described role model prior teachers. Non-traditional students, by definition (Powell, 1992, p. 227), enter their education programs after some break in their formal education usually for either non-teacher careers or family reasons. These student teachers have experienced a wider range of events than many coming straight from school. They are thus most likely to be influenced by other non-schooling episodes and this impacts on how they see teaching. This is discussed in more detail in section 7.3.2.

6.2.2 Teacher Candidates’ Sense of Ideal Teacher

The participating teacher candidates selected what they saw as those characteristics that made an ideal teacher. The present study’s non-traditional participants selected four ideal teacher characteristics that resonated with their image of an ideal student. Table 41, p. 211 summarises this.

Interestingly, these candidates selected three that were the same as the male primary candidates (Sense of Humour, Determined and Self-Confident) and three the same as the female secondary candidates (Sense of Humour, Receptive to Others’ Ideas and Determined).
The four common traits seen by the participating non-traditional teacher candidates as ideal for both students and teachers were Sense of Humour, Receptive to Others' Ideas, Self-Confident and Determined. These participating student teachers felt that their ideal student would be able to think for themselves and have an interest in learning while at the same time be interested in having fun. These participants also wanted students who would be willing to listen to not only themselves as the teacher but also be willing to listen to each other as well. Just as the teacher would learn from their students so their students would learn from them, was how they saw teaching. These traits would go a long way to showing their students that not only were they teachers that cared but also were willing to take an interest in their students’ lives.

Nearly three-quarters of these student teachers had experience of teachers who provided them with positive memories of schooling and as a result they wanted to facilitate this positive experience to their future students. The other teacher candidates wanted to change the system they were educated under and provide their students with the positive educational experience they did not have. This provides evidence to support Mayer-Smith et al.’s (1994), Anderson and Holt-Reynolds’ (1995) and Holt-Reynolds’ (2000) assertion that student teachers saw teaching from the point of view of the student, i.e. what they had as students was what they wanted to give back to their students or what they had as students was what they wanted to change about the system.
6.2.3 Teacher Candidates’ Sense of Teacher Role Identity

The non-traditional student teachers, like the male primary and female secondary, were interviewed to explore their selections for metaphors and responses to the open-ended questions. Similarly, what was offered by each interviewee was taken as truth and those ambiguities, contradictions, similarities and differences were highlighted for further discussions. The same Glasser and Strauss (1967) constant comparative procedures used in the analysis of the male primaries and female secondaries were followed to highlight those trends that emerged from the data (see section 4.2.3, p. 150). Therefore these candidates were also placed into groups according to how they expressed their sense of self-as-teacher: strong; with less clarity; or no real sense as seen by those who held naïve/simplistic ideas or left this question blank. One notable exception to this was Samuel who seemed to have an inappropriate view of teaching. For purposes of analysis, he was placed into the no real sense of self-as-teacher category; however, he is discussed separately, in section 6.2.3.3.

6.2.3.1 Teacher candidates with a strong sense of self-as-teacher

Seven interviewees were found to have a strong sense of self-as-teacher and were therefore seen to hold a sense of teacher self-efficacy. Olivia, Mia, Sophie, Rily, Lachlan, Thomas and Joshua all knew what their ideal teacher characteristics meant to them and were able to explain how these ideal characteristics would enable them to become what they saw as the ideal teacher. They were able to relate which of their prior teachers either positively demonstrated these traits or lacked these traits. And most importantly to the present study, these seven candidates were then able to describe how they wanted to see themselves in the classroom and explained why they wanted to see themselves this way.

All seven of these candidates were confident and saw themselves as growing into their perception of the ideal teacher as they were clear in what they
wanted, and determined in how they were going to achieve this goal and why they wanted to do things their way. These interviewees used their reported metaphors, as Tobin and Tippins (1996) described as a generative device, to build an image of not only the classroom but also how they as teachers would interact with their students and the established role structure they saw for their classroom practice. This then allowed these student teachers to discuss how they saw teaching, learning and their view of the teacher’s role. Their narratives provided these student teachers with the opportunity to reflect upon what their reported metaphors meant to them thereby gaining a better understanding of how they saw their own teacher role.

Olivia’s sense of teaching was remarkably different from her cohort who were seen to hold a similar strong sense of self-as-teacher. Thomas, Joshua, Sophie, Rily, Mia and Lachlan were all very similar in how they saw teaching and where their beliefs about teaching and teachers were influenced (both Lachlan and Mia have already been discussed as male primary and female secondary candidates, see section 4.2.3.1, pp. 153-155 and 5.2.3, pp. 188-190, respectively). These six student teachers had prior teachers who demonstrated what they saw as the ideal teacher characteristics and all but Rily explicitly stated which teachers they had as role model teachers of the ideal teacher. Olivia was almost the complete opposite. Her schooling experience was very negative and all but one of her prior teachers displayed opposing characteristics that she felt an ideal teacher should have.

Her primary schooling experience was remembered for the ‘knuckle slapping’ and ‘kneeling on dried paint’ which she reported were everyday occurrences. Secondary school improved mainly due to her friends being in the same situation and trying to get through what she thought was nothing more than a circus. Even the one teacher who inspired her did so because she was an absolute dragon (128, p. 145) but at least was able to maintain classroom control in what Olivia remembered as a ‘frenzied atmosphere of general chaos.’ This teacher did demonstrate two of the characteristics Olivia saw as ideal in a teacher, Persistent and Sincere. Her entire primary experience
provided her with teaching examples of how not to teach. She was able to
describe how five of her characteristics were negatively evidenced:

they didn’t have any of these qualities, they were ummm, this might sound ordinary but ummm, it was always
punishment, it was basic, basically like stamping out, the stamping out of all individuality the kids had, you learned
never to take a risk with your ummm, they were never intuitive to how you were feeling and totally inflexible in their
teaching styles and just like chalk and talk the whole time and ummm, and totally insincere (153, p. 145).

However, Olivia was like her six colleagues in that her prior teachers
provided her with what she saw as important to teaching and being the
teacher. Like Thomas, Rily, Mia, Sophie, Joshua and Lachlan, Olivia took
her experiences as a student and built her own sense of self-as-teacher.
These candidates knew what characteristics made their ideal teacher and
which teachers from their own past demonstrated these traits, or in the case
of Olivia those that did not.

6.2.3.2 Teacher candidates with a less clarified sense of self-as-teacher

There were ten candidates who held a less defined sense of teacher role
identity. Liam, Ryan, Mathew, Jack, Daniel, Nicholas, Emma, Grace,
Charlotte and Ruby described what characteristics made their ideal teacher.
However, each of these candidates was unable to explain how these traits
would enable them to become their ideal teacher. These candidates had a
general idea of what they wanted to become but did not know how they
would achieve this goal or why. There were those like Ryan who saw their
education programs as being able to provide them with those answers. Most
importantly, it was in their attempts to generate a narrative of how they saw
teaching and themselves as teacher that separated these candidates from
the previous candidates seen as having a strong sense of self-as-teacher.
These student teachers showed themselves unable to articulate adequately
their reflections and thereby provide the researcher with their understanding of how they saw teaching and themselves as the teacher.

One striking similarity that these candidates had in common was their inability to describe how their ideal teacher characteristics would enable them to become the teacher they saw as being ideal. Eight of these candidates were only able to relate two or three of their ideal characteristics back to prior teachers. Ryan and Grace were the two exceptions.

Ryan related all eight of his ideal characteristics to all of his secondary teachers; however, Ryan was also the only one of these candidates unable to explicitly recall any teacher, for example: *I am lucky that all my secondary school teachers were like this* (146, p. 39). Ryan explained that his desire to enter secondary education as a Science teacher would enable him to provide his students with the same opportunities he had had as a student. Unfortunately, he saw all future secondary students from the point of view of his own schooling experience: *when they enter the secondary school age, their minds are more open, developed, and ready for the mass of learning available to them* (161, p. 39). He knew what he wanted to do and had informed his own sense of teaching based on the examples of his past but held an idealistic view of what he would experience in the classroom. He believed his students would respond in the same manner that he did when he was a student and is not yet prepared for students in any situation other than the same style of elite private institution in which he was educated.

Grace was almost the complete opposite as she was only able to recall one teacher but was unable to explicitly relate any of her ideal characteristics back to this teacher: *In secondary school I had a teacher who was very much like my description* (076, p. 109). Like Ryan she saw secondary school students as more mature and able to adopt the characteristics she felt a student needed. Also like Ryan she saw secondary teaching as an extension of the positive experience she had as a student: *I particularly have chosen secondary education because I had a better time there* (083, p. 109). However, unlike Ryan who expressed a desire to teach, Grace just wanted to
ensure her students enjoyed school and being in her class: (her ideal teacher characteristics) will allow the students to have a greater bond with the teacher and hence this will allow them to enjoy and eventually participate in the class more (064, p. 109).

Ruby was like the other eight participants with a less clarified sense of self-as-teacher. She recalled prior teachers who were seen as either good or bad teacher examples. For her, teaching was interpreted as helping along a child’s personal development as well as the fulfilment of curricular requirements. In this way each child would have a better chance of applying him/herself to the expectations she had as the teacher of what her students should become. She knew what traits she thought an ideal teacher should possess but was not as certain in explaining how or why these traits were important as a teacher. She described what a Versatile teacher was for her: versatile, certainly, I think that ummm, its great to be able to have fun with a child but then also be able to show them a difficult Maths problem or whatever (071, p. 52). Her memories of prior teachers reflected her concern for classroom management and her desire to appear as a Sincere and Considerate teacher. When asked if her ideal teacher was the way she saw herself in the future she replied that she has done drama with playhouses in the past and had been surprised at how she was able to interact with children and: I just seemed able to reach them (109, pp. 52-53) without really knowing how or why just as long as she herself was not bored.

Remarkably it was three (30%) of these teachers who wanted to change the educational system they were educated under: Daniel, Jack and Charlotte. All three expressed sentiments similar to Daniel’s: I am passionate about making a difference as I do not want High School students to go through the same thing I did and miss out on opportunities to learn (080, p. 173). Notably, this lack of a positive educational experience did not seem to be the primary reason for a less defined sense of self-as-teacher as there were six of these participants who reported having role model teachers: Ruby, Charlotte, Emma, Matthew, Ryan and Nicholas.
What eight of these teacher candidates did not have which those with a strong sense of self-as-teacher did was prior experiences in teaching and learning. Charlotte and Ruby changed from previous careers that involved teaching and learning with young children. For Charlotte this was as a tutor and for Ruby as a mother of her own children, however, they like the other eight candidates were unable to express how they saw themselves in the role of teacher or how their ideal characteristics would enable them to achieve their goals.

### 6.2.3.3 Teacher candidates with no real sense of self-as-teacher

Seven (29.2%) of the interviewees were found to hold no real idea of what they were going to do in the classroom or how they saw themselves as the teacher. Zoë, Samuel, Jasmine, Georgia, Jasmine, Chloe and Luke did list what they saw as the eight ideal teacher characteristics but all could not explain how these made the ideal teacher or how they would be able to utilise them in becoming like their notion of the ideal teacher. Samuel was the one notable exception in this category as he was able to explain how he wanted to see himself in the classroom and why, however, he did so with an inappropriate view of teaching. The other six held naïve views of teaching such as Georgia who saw it as something her mother was making her to do now as she knew she would not do it herself later in life. However, all six of these candidates were like Zoë in their inability to articulate their reflections on teaching and how they saw themselves as teacher.

As stated, Samuel was the exception as he was seen to hold an inappropriate view of teaching. He saw teaching as a means of manipulating his students to get what he wanted while letting them think they were getting what they wanted. He reported on his questionnaire that he saw teaching as ‘understanding the other person first’ but it became apparent that this was only as a means to deceive his students. Samuel thoroughly described what he felt his ideal teacher characteristics meant to him and how he would use them as a teacher. He would be a ‘controlling’ teacher and was perfectly clear in how he would achieve this as the teacher:
Ahhh, more controlled, in the sense that ahhh, you allow the other person to open up and feel, perhaps that they have the upper hand and that they are telling you and swinging you to their point of view, but you know your own strengths and you are aware you are opening yourself to them but in the end, I will be the one who is taking a bit from them, their, if it meets with my beliefs, in that sense I am in control and I think it’s a controlled environment in my point of view (106, p. 77).

Samuel stated that what suited him might not suit others and that was ‘fine’ but he then contradicted this openness when describing what his ideal teacher characteristics meant to him:

you are striving for distant goals so that means that each little step will achieve that, and sincere I mean you gotta be truthful to yourself and also with other people within reason, you don’t want to give away all your cards before you got to, you know how much information you can release, because if you give it all away then your ultimate vision will be exposed but then other people may not be open to another person’s views, ummm, and they might go okay no if that is what you are aiming for then I don’t want to be a part of it, which then kills your vision, that’s why sincere is controlled necessarily (158, pp.77-78).

Samuel’s view of teaching and his role as the teacher was derived from the point of view of how he could retain the control and manipulative advantage over his students. In one statement he expressed the opinion that what was good for one person was not always good for another and that was considered fine, but then he countered this statement with expressions that one must be true to oneself and treat others with a certain degree of reticence. He saw no conflict of interest when asked how being Sincere and Emotionally Sensitive would help him achieve this goal of being in control as these were traits also to be controlled.

Luke, Zoë, Hannah, Jasmine, Chloe and Georgia held naïve views of teaching. As stated, Georgia was only entering into her teacher education
program as she was being compelled by her mother. When asked why she was going into teaching, Georgia stated:

\[ I \text{ needed to do something, I wanted to be a teacher and then I didn't want to be a teacher, mum put me in the car and made me go to the registration, she drives me and drops me off [laughs], I did have a hunger for it when I was little but yeah ummm, she makes me actually get out of the car [laughs], I have the spare time if I don't go now then I wouldn't go later [laughs] (147, p. 178). \]

This laissez-faire attitude was again evident when she described six of her ideal teacher characteristics:

\[ \text{sense of humour just because it helps you over all and ummm you don't want to be taught by someone who is bored as you will just be bored and ummm self- confident I think the whole issue about being able to adapt, and strives for distant goals, you don't want someone who is just stuck in a rut and doesn't want to go anywhere with their life and thorough just that the work is done because that should be and sincere you want someone who means what they say, they don't just say things to you, versatile because teaching is [pause] you need to be versatile [laughs], and receptive to others' ideas as you are teaching on a sort of staff so they should help you with what you are doing and what you should be doing, it just helps you get ideas of what to teach and how} (057, p. 176). \]

She then went on to contradict herself when asked if these traits were how she saw herself as a teacher:

\[ \text{yeah, I suppose so, sincere depends on I mean you can say things and not mean them [laughs], I mean I have probably said things to only one or two that I didn’t mean, yeah, I try to be sincere but I find it sometimes a strain, yeah} (115, p. 177). \]

Georgia held no real teacher role identity. She did report on her survey that she saw teaching as 'being in an amusement park of knowledge and learning
where she as the teacher would try to surround her students with learning that was fun, where this learning would occur in a happy environment where they could laugh and repeat exercises to perfect their skills.' However, while she did describe her ideal teacher characteristics, she did so with generalities and interjections of laughter. She then went on to state she was only going into her teacher education program as she had the time and her mother would drive her to college, and that if she didn’t do it now she never would. She described how she recalled why some of her own teachers were bad teaching examples but then expressed the same attitudes about her own perceived role as the teacher.

While there were trends that existed between those student teachers with a strong sense of self-as-teacher and to a lesser degree those with a weaker sense, there was no evidence of a trend with these seven candidates. Samuel was the only candidate with an inappropriate view of teaching. Georgia was laissez-faire about her commitment and reasons for teaching. Zoë saw teaching as transmitting her knowledge to her students who would be willing recipients. Jasmine just wanted school to be inclusive for all students as it had not been like that for her as a student. Hannah just wanted to be able to control her students’ behaviour in class so she could teach. Luke knew his experience as a student was not what he wanted; so he wanted to go back as the teacher and fix the system. Chloe saw primary teaching as something easier to do than secondary teaching and, in addition, would be able to incorporate everything she had ever experienced in her classroom practice.

Three of these candidates (Chloe, Zoë and Ruby) like those with a strong sense of self-as-teacher did have previous experience working with children in teaching and learning environments. However, all seven of these candidates were unable to utilise this prior schooling, work or their life experiences in relating how they would become the teacher they wanted to be.
6.2.3.4 Non-traditional candidates’ personal history

Out of the twenty-four non-traditional candidates interviewed, unlike their male primary and female secondary counterparts, there appeared to be limited trends in personal history informing on these student teachers’ sense of self-as-teacher. All of these candidates were entering into their teacher education program bringing with them life experiences beyond the classroom. Strikingly, only seven capitalised on those experiences.

Notably for this study, Thomas, Joshua, Rily, Mia, Sophie and Olivia took their experiences of working with students and children to help them inform their sense of teacher identity. This sense of teaching was further developed by role model examples of teaching which these candidates related to how they saw teaching. Lachlan was the exception as he was entering education after first attempting to make a career out of rugby. He was able to combine his recalled school experiences likened to being on a team and his own previous career of being on a team and formulated a strong sense of how he saw teaching and being the teacher. Zoë, Charlotte, Hannah, Ruby and Chloe were student teachers with a less defined sense of teaching or no real sense of self-as-teacher who even with prior experience with teaching and learning were unable to express how they would be able to become their view of what made an ideal teacher.

What all these candidates did have in common was a wide range of experiences that they brought with them to their teacher education program. These life experiences ranged from Georgia and Luke taking a few years off from their education without any clear goals to Olivia who spent nearly thirty years raising her family. In between were engineers, sports coaches, tutors, a graphic artist, a professional sportsman, business people and mothers.

6.2.4 Teacher Candidates’ View of Teaching

These student teachers like their male primary and female secondary counterparts were requested to list what their sense of teaching was for them
on their survey instrument. Similarly, these candidates were categorised as to how they saw teaching (see Table 30, p. 128). Over 40% felt teaching should be as projecting a role model with just slightly more seeing this role model view as having an impact on their students’ lives than nurturing or having a passion for teaching. Nearly 30% saw teaching as being a facilitator with half of those who felt as teachers they would learn and grow with their students.

These candidates, like their male primary and female secondary cohorts, also supported Feiman-Nemser and Remillard’s (1996) assertions that pre-service teachers saw teaching from a teacher-centred point of view. 53% of the non-traditional teacher candidates saw teaching as being the expert or role model, i.e. teacher-centred approaches. In contrast, there were over a third (37.4%) who saw teaching as being a facilitator or delegator, i.e. student-centred approaches which supported Aagard and Skidmore’s (2002), Minor et al.’s (2002) and Witcher et al.’s (2001) conclusions of pre-service teachers holding student-centred views of teaching.

Remarkably, six of the seven student teachers who had a strong sense of self-as-teacher saw teaching as being a role model who would positively impact on their students’ lives. These candidates while holding a teacher-centred sense of teaching saw teaching as being student-centred. Rily was the only one of these candidates who described teaching as the transmission of knowledge but was like his other six colleagues when he was able to relate how this would have an impact on his students. This commonality of beliefs about teaching and students was not evident in those student teachers who had a less defined sense of self or those seen to have no real sense of self-as-teacher. And even more remarkable was the fact that none of the teacher candidates who held to both student-centred beliefs of teaching and students was able to express how these would enable them to become the type of teacher they wanted to become.
6.2.4.1 Student teachers able to merge student-centred beliefs about teaching with their teacher-centred view of teaching

All seven of the non-traditional teacher candidates who had a strong sense of self-as-teacher held a teacher-centred view of teaching. Thomas, Sophie, Mia, Olivia, Joshua and Lachlan saw the teacher acting as a role model to their students. As stated, Rily saw the teacher as the expert giving back to the next generation what he himself was given.

Sophie and Mia demonstrated how they as a role model teacher would use this teacher-centred approach to benefit and impact upon their students as student-centred teachers. Sophie stated just exactly what type of teacher she did not want to become: *I don’t want to be a prescriptive ummm, this is how it is full-stop* (183, p. 150). She then further refined this view of herself as the teacher by describing how she wanted to be the teacher:

> *I want to give the students ummm, the method, the basic tool kit that they can then go and apply and use their own creativity and judgement and so on to use it in everyday life* (183, p. 150).

This would then allow her as the teacher to empower her students through sharing knowledge that they would be able to use themselves in life beyond the lesson, i.e. life-long learning.

Mia also expressed similar ideas about herself as a role model teacher. She would share her knowledge with her students by working with them and addressing their needs. She then explicitly stated the student-teacher relationship aspect she wanted to have in her teaching:

*you actually have gotta tailor what your saying to what your students need and what they, you really gotta be, it is not just a sort of one-way thing, it’s a, it’s a student-teacher relationship, in my eyes, you know, information is flowing in two directions, not just, you know teacher passing on information to the students* (106, p. 88).
Both Sophie and Mia were able to describe how their ideal teacher characteristics would allow them to become like those teachers from their past who provided them with role models of teaching. Sophie wanted to be passionate about teaching and her chosen subject like her own teachers. Just as Mia wanted to provide her students with the type of schooling she experienced and stated she hoped to emulate her role model teacher example.

This sense of returning the role model of good teaching was stated by all six of the teacher candidates who saw themselves as a role model teacher. Rily while seeing teaching as transmission of his knowledge was also able to relate how this teacher-centred view of teaching would allow him to be a student-centred teacher. Rily described how he selected those ideal teacher characteristics which would allow him as the ideal teacher to cover all aspects of what he saw as teaching: being the content expert; an effective administrator; builder of student-teacher relationships; and role model of character. He then described how each of these characteristics would help him to achieve his goal to become like this teacher. This led him to reflect upon his own schooling and the impact that his teachers had on him and now he wanted to return to his students: *it has helped me to look back and see the difference that a teacher can make for the better in students’ lives* (160, p. 116).

All seven of the teacher candidates in possession of a strong sense of self-as-teacher, knew what they wanted to do in the classroom and how they were going to do it. Six of the candidates saw teaching as being a role model to return the experience they had as students to their future students by emulating those qualities they saw as good teaching. Rily saw the teacher as the expert who was able to cover all aspects of teaching to better benefit his students just as he had benefited as a student. These future teachers knew what they had as students and what they wanted to give back to their students and why they wanted to do so.
6.2.4.2 Non-traditional participants unable to merge their student-centred beliefs with their teacher-centred view of teaching

While two-thirds of these participants saw teaching from the teacher-centred approaches of role model or expert, more than half were unable to reconcile this with their student-centred beliefs about teaching. For example, Ryan like Rily saw the teacher as the expert. Also like Rily he saw himself as the teacher based on his own experiences as a student. However, Ryan was not as confident and more idealistic about what he as the teacher would do.

Ryan saw teaching as a way to give back to future students what he himself had been given as a student. It was his perceived positive learning experiences as a student that led him into entering a teacher education program. In his selection of ideal teacher characteristics he stated that these characteristics would not enable him to be a teacher but allow him to teach:

> A teacher needs to have these ideal characteristics, not so they can be a teacher, but teach, someone who not only feeds information to empty hungry minds, but someone who opens the eyelids of students that are still blind to the world (121, p. 38).

For Ryan, teaching was providing the information that future generations needed and making them aware of what information they needed. His ideal characteristics would provide him with the tools necessary to dispense this information but he was unable to explain how this would facilitate his student-centred beliefs about teaching.

Chloe and Luke were also similar in their beliefs that teachers should be student-centred even though they saw teaching as a teacher-centred role model. Chloe described how some of her own teachers were remembered as projecting negative teaching examples because they were not student-centred but self-centred:
they were bad cause they weren’t concerned with the students as much as their own personal life and, ummm, yeah, and they had their own agendas that they wanted to reach, rather than putting, I think rather than putting the students first (133, p. 98).

Luke made similar comments about why he remembered his teachers in terms of negative examples of teaching: I didn’t feel that anyone there was interested in taking me any further (199, p. 104). Then he explained why he wanted to go into teaching: I guess what I want to do is re-address the weaknesses that I felt, that I encountered in that secondary school (199, p. 104). But like Chloe, Luke was not sure how he was going to achieve this. He knew he wanted to do better than what he thought his teachers had done for him but thought just by persevering against all odds he would be able to overcome his lack of ability. Luke likened his approach to teaching as Sisyphus continually pushing the rock of the hill to only do it again without ever being able to reach the top (139, p 103). Chloe, however, thought being a primary teacher would be easier for her than teaching at the secondary level and therefore was the way to be the teacher she wanted without having to work that hard for it.

All nine of these candidates were like Ryan, Chloe and Luke as they were able to describe how they saw teaching and themselves as the teacher. However, none were able to explain how they would use their teacher-centred approach to teaching while maintaining a student-centred view of teaching.

6.2.4.3 Teacher Candidates with student-centred beliefs about teaching and students

Out of these twenty-four student teachers, eight (33.3%) held student-centred views of themselves as the teachers to match their student-centred view of teaching. However, none of these candidates were seen to hold a strong sense of self-as-teacher and therefore able to articulate how they would be
able to compliment both student-centred views. Daniel and Georgia both held a sense of teaching as fun for the student while Hannah and Ruby saw teaching from a holistic approach.

Daniel described teaching as both fun and educational in order to help students understand and enjoy school a lot more. Georgia was even more explicit as she saw teaching as: *an amusement park of knowledge and learning* (043, p. 176) but like Daniel felt that if her teaching was seen as fun then students would just want to learn. This belief was based on their own experiences of school that were not like this. Daniel wanted to give his students what he didn’t have as a student while Georgia did not want to lock any of her students into a shoe cupboard as she had been.

Daniel held some sense of self-as-teacher but was not sure how he was going to be able to become the teacher he wanted to be. He knew he had a passion for teaching and wanted to make a difference in students’ lives by changing the educational system. But stated as he entered his education training program: *going into this teaching program, I want to learn how* (080, p. 173) and saw his teacher training program as able to show him how to be the teacher he wanted to become. Georgia held no such optimism.

Georgia wanted to be a fun and entertaining teacher that her students would enjoy having in the classroom. How she was going to do this, she had no real idea. She described why her ideal teacher would need to be Sincere, Self-Confident, Thorough and have a Sense of Humour in order to allow students to enjoy class and therefore be encouraged to learn more. Then she proceeds to state how her perceived bad teachers were not these things and explained how she herself at times did not possess these characteristics. Georgia’s lack of sense of teacher role identity was greatly influenced by the fact she did not really want to be in her education program. She stated she did have a passion for teaching once but was only entering into the program now as her mother was compelling her.
Ruby and Hannah mirrored Daniel and Georgia as they both held student-centred views of students but were also unable to articulate how they would capitalise on their holistic view of teaching. Both saw teaching as covering more than the curriculum and reaching the child as a whole. For Ruby this would then allow the student to better meet the expectations she had as the teacher for the student while Hannah wanted students to enjoy the journey of education without having to focus on the destination.

Ruby described her ideal teacher characteristics and why these were needed by a teacher seeking to holistically reach their students. When she then described how she would do this, it was just because teaching was something she seemed able to do. Her experience in drama had given her the confidence to just go in there and be able to reach difficult students, how she would do this she either did not feel was necessary to explain or was unable to explain.

Hannah knew what type of teacher she wanted to be in order that her students would be engaged in learning. She knew what her ideal teacher would be like and that she wanted to be like this teacher. However, she then immediately discounts her own ability by stating: I’d love to (be like her ideal teacher), but I don’t think I will succeed (125, p. 93).

All eight of these student teachers were entering their teacher training program with a view of teaching that was student-centred to match their student-centred view of students. However, all eight were unable to discuss how their views would enable them to become the type of teacher they wanted to be. Remarkably, it was out of these eight that the only two student teachers who discounted their own abilities to become the teacher they wanted were found.
6.3 Non-Traditional Student Teachers in Context of the Current Research

Studies that examined pre-service teachers as non-traditional teacher candidates tended to have a research focus in one of three areas:

1. reasons for choosing teacher as a career;
2. life experiences and their influence on entering teaching; or
3. trends, commonalities and differences among this teacher group.

6.3.1 Reasons for choosing teaching as a career

Studies on student teachers’ reasons for entering teacher education as a second career choice generally centred on motivational factors. These motivational factors were predominantly prior experiences with children or perceived future experiences with children. Initially these studies sought to identify common patterns among the participating teacher candidates for choosing teaching as a second career (Crow, Levine & Nager, 1990; Novak & Knowles, 1992; Stroud et al., 2000). However, over the past decade, the three motivational factors classified as altruistic, intrinsic or extrinsic have dominated this field of study (Richardson & Watt, 2005; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Reid & Thornton, 2000).

6.3.1.1 Studies that sought to classify participants by common patterns

Crow, Levine and Nager (1990) reported on three patterns which emerged when non-traditional student teachers reported on why they changed to teaching from a previous career. Crow et al. described these as one major pattern and two minor patterns:

1. Converted (major), those teacher candidates who had not considered being a teacher until some pivotal event of confluence of factors caused them to reconsider their
first career choice in light of becoming a teacher (p. 207);

2. Homecoming (minor), those teacher candidates who while having had previous jobs these were only a temporary measure before doing what they had always wanted to really do and that was be a teacher (p. 204); and

3. Unconverted (minor), those teacher candidates who are disillusioned with teaching and do not seem likely to become teachers in the future (p. 212).

While the Crow et al. (1990) study dealt with teacher candidates, their participants were already in their training program and not at the onset of teacher training where it would be expected that teacher candidates would be entering their program with the intention of becoming a teacher. This was, fortunately, seen in all but one of the present study’s participants as only Georgia would be classified as Unconverted.

The present study’s candidates were then almost evenly split between those who fell into the Homecoming and Converted category. Charlotte and Emma were typical examples of those who reported ‘returning’ to teaching. Charlotte saw it as a chance to make an impact on someone else’s life just as she had been impacted in her life. It was a chance to ensure that some students got the Mathematics teacher who was: fun; made class interesting; and attainable. She remembered being positively influenced as a student and would love to be the person that could then do that herself. Emma was very similar as she reported she wanted to return the role model of teaching she was fortunate enough to have had to her students.

The teacher candidates who fell into the Converted category did so for reasons like Jack, Thomas or Lachlan. Jack had decided to become a teacher because of his own children. He wanted to make sure he would be able to provide the best possible environment he could for them and he saw becoming a teacher as one of the potential ways. As a teacher he would be even more a part of his children’s lives as schooling would become a large
part of their day to day world. He could therefore as a teacher influence not only his own children’s lives but also the lives of others’ children.

Both Thomas and Lachlan were examples of those candidates who ‘converted’ to teaching after outside influences altered their career paths. Thomas initially tried to enter into Law but was unsuccessful and had teaching suggested to him as he was a swim instructor. Similarly, Lachlan attempted to make rugby a career until it was made apparent to him he was not going to be successful. Both Thomas and Lachlan entered into teaching as a second choice but have since realised a passion for their new profession.

Novak and Knowles (1992) reported that their participants entered teacher education with clear and distinct reasons. Stroud et al. (2000) focused on male non-traditional student teachers and reached the same conclusions as Novak and Knowles (1992).

The present study sought to identify and explore those prior experiences that helped to inform the teacher role identity of the participating teacher candidates. The interview protocol did not expressly seek to uncover the reason these pre-service teachers had for choosing teaching as a career. Even so, twenty-one of the twenty-four (87.5%) non-traditional teacher candidates reported entering teaching for very clear and distinct reasons. These fell into five categories:

1. seventeen who wanted to make a difference in students’ lives: Rily, Emma, Sophie, Thomas, Luke, Zoë, Liam, Joshua, Chloe, Jack, Jasmine, Olivia, Matthew, Mia, Nicholas, Daniel and Lachlan;

2. twelve who wanted to return the role modelling of teaching that they had received, of which only Charlotte, Ruby and Ryan did not comment on this making a difference in students’ lives;

3. seven who wanted to inspire their students’ love of the subject, of which only Hannah did not state this would make a difference in students’ lives;
4. seven who wanted to fix all or part of what they felt was wrong with their own educational experience, of which only Charlotte and Daniel did not state how this would make a difference in their students’ lives; and

5. three who gave eclectic reasons: Grace who thought primary would be easier to teach, Georgia who stated her mother was compelling her and Samuel who saw teaching as manipulating students.

This ability to state a reason why they were entering teacher education was not directly related to their sense of teaching as both Sophie and Lachlan held strong senses of teaching. Neither stated why they were entering teaching but only that they wanted to be good teachers and then related how they were going to achieve their goals. In contrast, both Grace and Georgia provided a reason for entering into teacher education in their narratives but held a less defined or no real sense of self-as-teacher, respectively.

6.3.1.2 Motivational factors for choosing teaching as a second career

Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000), Reid and Thornton (2000) and Richardson and Watt (2005) identified the motivations student teachers used for entering teacher education and the influences upon their decisions. Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000) reported 86% of participants felt that a job which contributed to society was a factor for seriously considering going into teaching and 68% reported working with children was another important factor for entering teaching as a career. Reid and Thornton (2000) reported that both undergraduate and post-graduate student teachers felt educational motivations were the most important and not personal motivations. These educational motivations were those seen as:

- altruistic, teaching was socially worthwhile, a desire to help children succeed
• intrinsic, teaching children or using subject matter knowledge

as opposed to the personal motivations that were seen as

• extrinsic, aspects which are not inherent in the work itself such as holidays and pay (p. 117).

More importantly to the present study, the Richardson and Watt (2005) study examined Australian teacher candidates. Richardson and Watt concluded that their teacher candidates fell into three clusters. These clusters of candidates changed careers for the following reasons:

1. those seeking job security;
2. those who wanted to make an impact on students’ lives;
   and
3. those who wanted more job satisfaction (pp. 483-6).

None of the twenty-four participants in the present study reported seeking job security as a reason for entering teacher education or changing careers into teacher education. But seventeen (70.8%) did make comments that teaching would allow them to make an impact on their students’ lives. Lachlan, Ruby and Jasmine expressed sentiments that passion and care were needed in education. But this passion for teaching and care for students would result in students having a better satisfaction in education and not the expressed desire for job satisfaction of Richardson and Watt’s third cluster. Only Matthew made reference to changing careers to enter into a more people oriented career, i.e. Richardson and Watt’s third cluster.

Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant (2003) in contrast to the three previously mentioned studies reported that the reasons their participants choose to enter teaching as either being because they were ‘pushed’ or ‘pulled’ into teaching. It would appear that these researchers have collectively grouped what other researchers viewed as altruistic and intrinsic reasons as those that pulled student teachers into teaching. Those that cited what are often
referred to as extrinsic reasons were categorized as factors that pushed them into teaching. The renaming of categories then allowed the researchers to dispense with making distinctions between whether altruistic reasons are in fact intrinsic and treat them both as factors that pulled student teachers into education.

Sixteen of the present study’s participating non-traditional student teachers commented on how working with children was an important factor for them and how as teachers they would be able to make a positive impact on their students’ lives. The present study’s interview protocol was designed to use the participants’ own questionnaire responses as a guide to eliciting their own teacher experiences and the candidates were not directly asked if working with children was an important factor for them in choosing teaching as a career. The fact that two-thirds made reference to this provided a strong indication that for these participants working with children with the expressed desire to make an impact on society was a significant factor in their choice to become teachers. This supported Kyriacou and Coulthard’s (2000) analysis that most teacher candidates saw teaching as able to accomplish both of these goals. These altruistic reasons for choosing teaching were also reported in the Reid and Thornton’s (2000) study.

The present study’s participants supported the conclusions reported by Reid and Thornton (2000). These student teachers’ motivations could be grouped into altruistic, intrinsic or extrinsic motivational reasons for teaching. Overall, fifteen (62.5%) of the candidates were teaching for altruistic reason such as Chloe’s good teaching was invaluable because teachers had the ability to inspire, mould, and instil values into the future generations and an effective teacher would allow their students to achieve great things. Eight (33.3%) saw teaching for intrinsic motivational reasons, such as Zoë’s idea which was to transfer her gathered knowledge and to enable other generations to learn and benefit from it. Only one (4.2%) candidate reported extrinsic reasons for teaching and this was Georgia who was being pushed into the teacher education program by her mother.
6.3.2 Life experiences of non-traditional student teachers

Powell (1992) in a study that compared traditional to non-traditional student teachers reported that traditional teacher candidates were more influenced by prior teachers than their non-traditional counterparts. Non-traditional candidates were more likely to report life experiences as important influences on their teaching and were more deeply committed to becoming teachers. However, he concluded that all pre-service teachers had personal, implicit theories of teaching when they began teacher education.

The participants in the present study supported Powell in his assertions. The traditional teacher candidates did report more prior teachers as positive examples of how they saw good teaching than their non-traditional counterparts. While more of the non-traditional teacher candidates reported on the influence of their own life experiences whether as parents or previous work history on how they saw their teaching. However, both the traditional and non-traditional candidates were similar in those who were seen as committed to teaching and those who were not. There were twenty-one (87.5%) of the non-traditional candidates seen as committed to teaching and there were nine (81.8%) of the traditional candidates.

The majority of these candidates were seen as committed as they expressed a personal desire to have a positive impact on their students’ lives. There were also those who wanted to pass on a love of their academic subject or to instil life-long learning in their students as well as those who wanted to fix perceived weaknesses in the educational system. Out of all thirty-five interviewees only five were seen as not committed to teaching (three non-traditional and two traditional). Samuel was placed into this category due to his inappropriate view of teaching as were Georgia and Grace because of their reasons for entering teacher training. Similarly, Ella saw teaching as a stepping stone to move into counselling and Lily choose to teach secondary school only because she could not see herself as the nurturing type.
But most strikingly was that all but one of these student teachers supported Powell’s assertion that pre-service teachers entered teacher education with personal implicit theories about teaching. Every interviewee except James was able to list how they saw teaching on their survey instrument. When interviewed James was able to explain why he originally left that question blank and was then offered a description of how he saw teaching. Tobin and Tippins (1996) stated that some pre-service teachers were unable to use metaphors as generative devices for narratives. James supported this observation. But when he was given the opportunity, he was able to express why he found this difficult and then used his ‘best’ description to go on and describe how he saw his ideal teacher.

Lachlan was like most of the student teachers having no problems in describing his beliefs, saw teaching as play hard but play fair in that the teacher needed to be seen by all students as firm but fair. Lachlan described in detail what all eight of his ideal teacher characteristics meant to him and how an ideal teacher in his estimation should demonstrate those traits. As he was changing careers from a professional sporting one, his consistent use of the team metaphor was not unexpected. This sporting influence was evident not only on how he recalled his own schooling experience but also on how he saw his future teaching self.

Charlotte was similar in her consistent reference to her prior experience as a Mathematics tutor and student. In relating how she saw her ideal student, it was in what she saw in her students and herself that she now wanted to have. Similarly, it is her own Mathematics teacher, whom she recalls, along with her own students, that has caused her to form the image of how she wanted to see herself as a teacher.

Out of the twenty-four non-traditional candidates, all of them referred to their own life experiences in their narrative discourses. The importance to this non-schooling experience ranged greatly among the participants. There were those like Lachlan and Charlotte who continually called upon these experiences to relate how they saw teaching and their role as the teacher.
Just as there were those like Jasmine and Daniel who made only limited references to their past. Notably, one reference made by nineteen (79.2%) of these participants was when they decided to enter into teaching.

6.3.2.1 When teacher candidates decided on teaching as a career

As noted, the interview protocol was designed to elicit prior schooling and teacher influences on how the participants saw their own role as the teacher. The fact that nineteen of the student teachers felt it was important to discuss when their decision to enter into teacher training was made provided a strong indication of the importance of this factor in their lives.

In an Australian study Finnie (2004) reported on when her participating pre-service teachers made their decisions to enter into teaching as a career. In comparison, Wadsworth (2001) reported on when in-service teachers had made this decision. Wadsworth concluded that 12% of the in-service teachers reported it was a career that they fell into by chance; 34% said that they chose to be teachers while in college; and 52% reported they had known for quite some time that they were going to be teachers, i.e. while still in their own schooling.

Finnie (2004) reported that out of those teacher candidates aged twenty-five and older, 28.4% had known they were going to be teachers while still in school. 12.2% decided while in college, 33.8% were making career changes and 25.7% had made their decisions within the last six months due to some influence necessitating a sudden change in plans or careers. Finnie concluded that in her study non-traditional student teachers showed a greater tendency to enter into education within the preceding six months.

There was remarkable inconsistency between Wadsworth’s in-service teachers, Finnie’s research participants and the present study’s pre-service student teachers as to when they reported reaching the decision to become teachers. Thomas and Lachlan (8%) were the only teacher candidates to state they decided on becoming a teacher as they were either unable to enter
into their first choice of study or continue in a previous career. As stated, Thomas was the teacher candidate with the strongest sense of self-as-teacher after having made his decision to pursue a career path he previously had not thought about. Yet Finnie reported this phenomenon was fairly constant across the age groups in her study at approximately 20% while Wadsworth reported 12%.

Chloe and Mathew were the only two candidates (8%) to explain they decided upon teaching while in university. Both had completed prior degrees and wanted to use their gained knowledge but in more people centred jobs. Both felt teaching would allow them to take the skills learned and use them to benefit others in a more constructive way than using their skills in industry. Finnie participants reported 12.2% decided while in college which was still less than half of Wadsworth’s in-service teachers (34%).

The closest that these three studies came was in those reporting having known they were going to be teachers. Similar to Wadsworth’s sample population (52%), thirteen (54%) of the present study’s participants made references to having known they were going to be teachers as did 52.6% of Finnie’s participants.

But like Wadsworth’s study, three (13%) of these student teachers reported changing careers to become teachers while this was one-third of Finnie’s participants. Five (14.3%) decided on teaching due to family reasons four of these after having raised their own family and Benjamin because he was currently raising his family. Neither Wadsworth nor Finnie addressed family issues in their studies.

For the nineteen student teachers who did comment on when they had made their decision to become a teacher, they did so because this decision was a major factor in their lives and would lead them into a profession that was going to be rewarding and allow them to gain a sense of achievement. Interestingly, even though this topic was not included in the interview protocol
there were only five candidates who did not make any reference as to when they decided on becoming a teacher in the personal history narratives.

6.3.3 **Trends among non-traditional teacher candidates**

As stated, the present study grew out of previous study that explored how pre-service teachers saw their role as the teacher. Sexton (2004) reported on a previous study (Sexton, 2002) I conducted that directly led to the present study. That study was limited to only post-graduates at The University of Sydney using the same survey instrument. In that study the participants reported that their role as the teacher fell predominantly into one of three roles: facilitator, encourager or role model. 90% of these participants saw good teachers as those teachers who were more than just the teacher. These teachers went above and beyond the classroom requirements and their students recognised this effort and commitment. 71% saw their bad teachers as not having this trait.

One of the most striking results was that thirteen of the seventeen interviewees reported that their own teachers encouraged, inspired, demanded that they have or develop critical thinking and this in turn they wanted to return to their students. Wadsworth’s (2001) study also reported on the perceptions, assumptions, concerns and aspirations of new teachers. New teachers reported that teaching required high levels of effort, energy, motivation and enthusiasm. 71% of these same teachers reported that contributing to society and helping others was an important attribute of being a teacher.

In the present study only two of the conclusions reported in Sexton (2004) about non-traditional teacher candidates were repeated. These candidates like those in the 2002 study had the most varied memories of their own prior schooling. These memories were also some of the most vivid and detailed accounts whether they were positive or negative examples of teaching. One of the most notable differences between the 2002 sample population and the present study was that thirteen of the seventeen student teachers
interviewed in 2002 remarked on critical thinking while only eight (all of which were female secondary participants) made this remark in 2005. Of these eight only four were non-traditional pre-service teachers. This issue was discussed in chapter five in relation to female secondary candidates (see section 5.2.3.1.1, p. 194).

The participating student teachers reported on how they saw teaching in much the same way as Wadsworth’s (2001) practicing teachers reported on how they had to teach. Out of all 214 participating non-traditional respondents, 100 (46.7%) reported that Energetic was an ideal characteristic in a teacher. The most common response to explaining why Energetic was an ideal characteristic was like Jasmine’s: *teachers need energy* (075, p. 42). Those who expounded on why this energy in teaching was needed stated reasons as to how students would respond to this visible display of teacher energy such as: *show it with a bit of energy then most kids are quite receptive to that, but if you find someone who is really enthused about it, then you are more likely to, likely to go with the flow* (Lachlan, 141, p. 139). This demonstrated that these pre-service teachers saw their future role as the teacher (being enthusiastic, having energy, being motivated and displaying a level of effort) in much the same way that Wadsworth reported how in-service teachers saw themselves as being.

### 6.4 Conclusions

These non-traditional teacher candidates recalled the widest range of prior schooling experiences. In addition, these memories were some of the most vivid and well-remembered experiences related by the study’s participants. Out of the twenty-four participants, three-fourths wanted to return the positive learning experience they had as students. The others wanted to fix what they saw as weaknesses in the educational system so that they could provide their students with a positive educational experience.

Calderhead and Robson (1991) reported that pre-service teachers tended to amalgamate all prior teachers who were seen as negative examples of
teaching into one composite image. Fifteen (62.5%) of these student teachers disagreed as they were able to explicitly recall those teachers who they saw as bad teaching examples. They were then able to describe why these teachers were remembered this way and how they were not like their ideal teacher.

Most importantly to the present study, these non-traditional pre-service teachers were overwhelmingly entering teacher education in order to make a difference in their students’ lives. Whether they were changing careers from seemingly unrelated fields such as engineering or seeking to enter into a career after family commitments, these candidates wanted to make a difference. While not all were as articulate or explicit in how they would be able to make this difference, all but three saw themselves as teachers being able to achieve this goal.

The previous three chapters explored how the participating male primary, female secondary and non-traditional student teachers have developed their teacher role identities based on prior experiences as students. The conclusions that can be drawn from the present study and the implications for future research in this important field are discussed in the final chapter.
7 CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

7.1 Conclusions Drawn From The Present Study

The present study investigated how entry-level pre-service teachers interpreted prior teacher experiences and the effect this had on the type of teacher they did and did not want to become. In particular it explored how male primary, female secondary and non-traditional teacher candidates used their prior schooling experiences to inform their projections of themselves as the teacher. From a possible 880 candidates entering both The University of Sydney and The University of Auckland teacher training programs in 2005, 354 (40.2%) participated in this study and 35 were then interviewed to gain a more in-depth understanding of their responses to the questionnaire. They were interviewed again after their first teaching practicum. These teacher candidates did remember their school experiences and prior teachers in well-remembered events. While not all candidates had the same explicit recollections of prior teachers, all but two were able to remember prior teachers who had influenced their concept of what makes an ideal teacher. Although an exploratory study, comparisons of the particular focus pre-service teacher groups showed that gender, educational major and age may impact on how prior teachers are remembered.

7.1.1 Phase 1 Conclusions

Different response rates from the two universities (21.9% University of Sydney, 97.7% University of Auckland) mean that cross cultural comparisons across the Tasman are not able to be made. Phase 1 of the research study sought to address seven sub-questions to the research topic:

1. Do male and female student teachers interpret prior teacher experiences differently?
2. Do primary and secondary education major teacher candidates interpret prior teacher experiences differently?
3. Do male primary and male secondary teacher candidates interpret prior teacher experiences differently?
4. Do female primary and female secondary student teachers interpret prior teacher experiences differently?
5. Do undergraduate and post-graduate teacher candidates interpret prior teacher experiences differently?
6. Do traditional and non-traditional teacher candidates interpret prior teacher experiences differently? and
7. Do student teachers enrolled into The University of Sydney interpret prior teacher experiences differently than those enrolled into The University of Auckland?

Based on the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the survey instrument, there do appear to be some differences in how different teacher groups used their own prior experience in the classroom to inform how they saw themselves in the role as the teacher. It must be emphasised however that the study only sought data from two teacher education programs in one year.

Quantitatively examining the sample populations in reference to the research question and its seven sub-questions, it would appear that there were relatively few differences. This is most evident as the differences between the male/female, primary/secondary and undergraduate/post-graduate teacher candidates in how they reported their schooling experiences, how they saw teaching and their ideal teacher appeared to be primarily demographic. There were a few notable differences between the traditional/non-traditional student teachers. For example, traditional respondents were more likely to report their schooling experiences as positive (72.9% for primary and 62.1% for secondary as compared to their non-traditional counterparts, 60.3% and 39.7%, respectively).

The notable differences arose when respondents were examined according to both gender and educational major. In particular, male primary student teachers reported the most positive primary (71.4%), the most negative secondary schooling experiences and none reported having low-self esteem. Almost half saw teaching as being a role model with most of who saw this as having a profound impact on their students (57.3%). Their female counterparts had the highest percentage rating themselves with very high self-esteem (19.9%) and also saw teaching as being a role model but a third
of who saw this as having a passion for teaching. The female secondary
teacher candidates had the highest reported positive secondary schooling
experience (54.6%) and one in six saw teaching as being creative. Unlike
most of their male counterparts saw teaching as either guiding/helping
students or learning/growing with their students. In addition, these male
secondary student teachers saw the ideal teacher as needing to be more
persistent and versatile than determine and considerate.

Like the quantitative analysis, the qualitative analysis if the open-ended
questions needed to be examined in relation to both gender and educational
major in order to uncover the notable differences. These qualitative
differences were similar to the quantitative findings; as it appeared these
male primary candidates had the least positive memories of secondary
school while the female secondary cohort reported the most positive
secondary experience. The female primary candidates held the highest self-assessment of own abilities. Male secondary pre-service teachers were
generally older and least likely to report having had neutral experiences.

The mixed-model research design sought to allow a greater depth and scope
of data analysis. This was more evident in the qualitative analysis as
participants were given the opportunity to expressly state what their
responses meant to them. For example, participating male teacher
candidates were seen to hold a more practical view of teaching than their
female counterparts who consistently referred to past memories in emotive
terms, such as lots of fun friends to be with, became closer to the teachers
and other students and I loved my time in school as there were lots of love
and support shown. Primary male candidates reported secondary school
should have been more worthwhile; while the secondary male student
teachers described how secondary school should have better prepared
students for the real world.

The male primary candidates were the most likely to describe the positive
family-like experience of primary school and the factory or prison-like
negative secondary schooling experiences. The male secondary participants
were least likely to report on how their primary schooling was positive. They offered the widest range of secondary schooling experiences, for example, *felt like I was put on a pedestal, classmates working together, or like being in a prison where it was do as I say.*

Surprisingly, the female primary candidates were less likely to describe primary schooling as a positive experience and reported the highest self-confidence in their perceived abilities. This was seen in comments as to how they saw teaching and being the teacher which was something they would be good at or simple for them to do. While the secondary female student teachers were the most likely to describe positive secondary experiences in the subject matter they now wanted to return to their students. For example, *I got to have friends and experienced how great it was at school or I always had fun and worked together with friends.*

Of all teacher group comparisons the undergraduate and post-graduates held the most similar ideas and beliefs about teaching and learning. The only striking difference between these two groups was in how they saw themselves as the teacher: almost twice as many undergraduates saw this teaching as being a role model that has an impact on students’ lives; while post-graduates saw teaching as being a facilitator who would learn and grow with their students.

The traditional student teachers in the study rated their school experiences the most positively and saw teaching as a means of returning this experience to their students in fun classes that guided students through the curriculum. This was contrasted with the non-traditional participants who reported widely varying memories with clear recall of both positive and negative episodes. Those going into primary education wanted to provide a nurturing environment while those entering secondary education wanted to demonstrate a passion for learning and the subject matter. Finally one of the most striking qualitative differences to arise was the importance of ethnicity between those candidates entering teacher education at The University of Sydney and The University of Auckland. Ethnicity did not
appear to be an issue with any of the participants in Australia but it was important to many of the participants in New Zealand. Many of the New Zealand participants were first generation or Pacific Islanders who had emigrated. For these participants their ethnicity played a large role in how they saw themselves and their role as a teacher. It should be noted that this issue of ethnicity may be accounted for by the differences in return rate between the participating universities.

As stated, this study grew out of a previous study (Sexton, 2002) that was conducted at The University of Sydney. Several of the participants in that study felt the questions regarding ethnicity were inappropriate and some even wrote on their survey instruments that these were offensive. As a result these were removed from the survey instrument. I was not prepared for the importance of ethnicity to those participants from The University of Auckland. Even though one of the research question’s sub-question compared The University of Sydney participants’ interpretations to The University of Auckland participants, it was not anticipated that this would be filtered through a lens of cultural differences. As such it is worth noting there has been a growing body of educational research into pre-service teachers focusing on specific ethnic origins. One area of this research has been to examine their reasons for entering teacher education programs. Ten of these studies have been conducted in Jamaica, Portugal, China, South Africa, Morocco, Norway, on ethnic minorities in The United Kingdom, Singapore, Spain and Brunei Darussalam.

Brown (1992) reported on a study conducted in Jamaica on first-year teachers’ reasons for choosing teaching as a career. Brown reported that her participants were motivated largely by common intrinsic desires such as; love of and wanting to help children; and contributing to their society or country. These intrinsic motivations were then reported to transcend cultures. Brown’s study was designed to take place after the first year of actual classroom teaching to provide the respondents with the time needed to reflect on teaching as a profession. While these participants were in-service teachers, Brown asserted her participants supported the student
teacher responses from similar studies conducted in America. In Jamaica, teachers teach for the same intrinsic reasons that student teachers enter into teaching in America.

Brown’s claim that intrinsic reasons for entering teaching transcended cultures was both supported and refuted by later studies. Su, Hawkins, Huang and Zhao (2001) reported on a study that sought to understand and compare the profiles and entry perspectives of Chinese and American student teachers. Su et al. reported that half of the Chinese participants cited intrinsic reasons of respect for and love of the profession as reasons for wanting to become teachers. Kyriacou and Benmansour (1999) reported on a comparative study that sought to identify those reasons which influenced student teachers decision to become a teacher of a foreign language in Morocco and The United Kingdom. While most participants reported intrinsic reasons for choosing teaching as a career such as I enjoy the subject/language and I want to help children.

However, Yong (1995) reported that student teachers entering teacher training in Brunei Darussalam were doing so for predominantly extrinsic reasons. Almost half of the participating teacher candidates reported extrinsic motivating reasons with those student teachers reporting they felt they had no other career choice. Chuene, Luben and Newson (1999) reported on a study conducted in South Africa that most participants had extrinsically motivated reason for choosing mathematics teaching as a career. Flores (2001) reported on study in Portugal that sought to identify and explore the interplay between contextual and biographical factors on new teachers’ professional learning and development and found most cited extrinsic reasons for entering teaching; most reported having a stable job as their primary reason.

And to make the situation even more ambiguous, Kyriacou, et al. (2003) reported on a comparative study between Norway and The United Kingdom. Those participants from Norway included seventy-five first-year
undergraduate students. Those teacher candidates’ responses were generally affirmative for all three types of motivating factors:

- altruistic, you will feel elated by your pupils’ achievement
- intrinsic, teaching will fulfil your personal needs and
- extrinsic, you will be happy with the amount of holidays

The participants in the present study would align most likely with those of Kyriacou et al. (2003) as all three reasons were cited for entering teacher training. As stated, twenty were doing so for altruistic reasons, fourteen for intrinsic and one for extrinsic. However no commonalities could be drawn across any ethnic teacher group as to why they were entering teacher training as ethnicity was not requested on the survey instrument. This question was removed from the original questionnaire (Sexton, 2002) after the pilot study revealed most participants (as stated that study was conducted only at The University of Sydney) found this question insulting, irrelevant or meaningless. The present study, however, revealed ethnicity was important to those entering The University of Auckland and the teacher community of New Zealand (see, for example, www.teachnz.govt.nz a website dedicated to promoting and supporting New Zealand’s ethnically diverse teacher population).

While qualitative interpretations of open-ended questions are subjective (Von Wright, 1997; Maxson & Mahlios, 1994), it would appear that the different teacher groups in this study did have notable differences to how they interpreted their prior experiences as students. It was in particular those differences between the male primary, female secondary and non-traditional student teachers that were explored in phases 2 and 3.

7.1.2 Phase 2 Conclusions

Phase 2 of the research study targeted male primary, female secondary and non-traditional student teachers for interviews. As stated, this did not preclude those student teachers who could have been classified as female primary, male secondary or traditional from being included. Thirty-two
(91.4%) of the interviewees were able to recall explicitly at least one prior teacher and twenty-six (74.3%) of these expressed comments on the impact of that teacher on their own perceived positive educational experience as the student. And even more significant to the present study, eighteen (51.4%) of these interviewees referred to prior teachers who acted as role models of good teaching which they wished to emulate in some way in their own teaching practice. Additionally, another eight (22.9%) commented on how they would change the system they were educated under to prevent future generations from experiencing what they had endured as students. Twenty-four (68.6%) of the interviewed participants explicitly expressed the desire that their teaching would positively impact upon their future students’ lives. They were clear about wanting to make a difference.

7.1.2.1 Male Primary student teachers

One of the target teacher groups investigated about how prior experience informed their teacher role identity were male student teachers entering a primary education program. Twenty-eight of the respondents were males seeking teacher certification in primary education. Of these, twelve were interviewed to further explore their survey instrument responses.

All twelve interviewees were able to recall prior teachers. Nine of who remembered these teachers for the student-centred approach to teaching and seven because they provided them with a role model of how to be a good primary teacher. These student teachers clearly expressed how their selected ideal teacher characteristics would enable them to become like their role model teachers. Most importantly for the present study was the fact that the remembered teachers who impacted how they saw being the teacher were from their own primary schooling.

For these twelve student teachers, it was the influence of positive role models from primary school that had directly led to them entering into primary teacher education. As primary teachers they would then provide their students with a positive learning experience.
These student teachers supported the conclusions drawn by Lahelma (2000) that students recalled the characteristics of their good teachers rather than the gender. These student teachers referred almost evenly to both male and female prior teachers who were recalled as being good teachers. They were then able to explicitly relate what ideal teacher characteristics they saw as important back to these role model examples.

7.1.2.2 Female Secondary teacher candidates

The present study also explored how the participating female secondary student teachers used prior experiences in the classroom to inform their teacher role identity. 130 of the respondents were females entering into teacher training programs for secondary education. Of these, thirteen were then interviewed to gain further insight into their responses and how prior teachers have influenced their own self-as-teacher image.

Eleven (84.6%) explicitly recalled at least one prior teacher from their own schooling. Interestingly, it was two of the female candidates (Lily and Zoë) who were seen to hold no real sense of self-as-teacher that were also unable to recall any prior teachers. Of those who did recall teachers, eight made reference to those who had encouraged their critical or independent thinking as students which they now wanted to instil in their own students. Most striking for the present study, six of these eleven also expressly stated having had role models of good teaching in the subject they now wanted to teach.

Like their male primary counterparts, it would seem that most of these female secondary student teachers used their prior experiences in the classroom to inform how they saw themselves in the role as the teacher. Most significantly, it was those experiences in their secondary schooling that have been the primary influence on these student teachers now wanting to become teachers. And also just as remarkable as their male primary colleagues it was those secondary subject teachers that impacted on their
lives as students that they now wish to emulate in their own teaching of that subject.

7.1.2.3 Non-Traditional participants

The third targeted group to be investigated as to how prior experience had informed how they saw themselves in the role of the teacher were non-traditional teacher candidates. 214 of the respondents were classified as non-traditional and twenty-four agreed to be interviewed. All these candidates came into their education program with life experiences beyond the classroom that many of those coming straight from secondary school would not have encountered. This time away from education ranged from those like Georgia who took only a few years off from school to Olivia who spent three decades raising her family.

Twenty-one of these interviewees recalled at least one prior teacher. Seventeen recalled positive experiences as students in the classroom and seven wanted to correct perceived weaknesses in the educational system. This dichotomy of responses was evident throughout these interviewees. The non-traditional candidates reported the widest range of experiences and consistently the most vivid of memories of prior teachers. For example, Joshua’s experience of chalk and talk Mathematics and Geography teachers compared to his Classic, English and History teachers who he felt showed a genuine concern and enthusiasm. In addition, there were memories like Olivia’s of teachers who attempted to stamp out all student individualism or Benjamin’s teachers who taught by rote memorisation in order to maintain the school’s reputation for high achievement test scores.

Whether they were seeking a career change or were now at a stage in raising their own families which allowed them the opportunity to enter into teaching, these candidates saw themselves as impacting on their students. Like their male primary and female secondary counterparts these teacher candidates seemed to have been influenced in how they see teaching and their role as the teacher by prior experiences. Most importantly for the present study it was the fact that two-thirds of these teacher candidates
entered into teaching to make a difference in students’ lives. This difference may have been like Liam’s and Lachlan’s desire to be role models of a good person; Sophie’s and Mia’s intention to provide their students with the skills and tools needed to learn for themselves; or Daniel’s and Olivia’s wish to make the educational system better than what they encountered as students.

### 7.1.2.4 Phase 2 summary

I am reminded of Tom Barone’s *Touching Eternity: The Enduring Outcomes of Teaching*. Barone through in-depth qualitative longitudinal exploration hoped to better understand the nature of teaching and the long-term influence one teacher (Donald Forrister, a high school art teacher) had on his students. The students Barone interviewed about Forrister evidenced the positive impact he had not only then but also still years after they had left high school. Barone reported how Forrister through his students was a teacher than touched eternity.

Similarly these interviewees were also touched by their teachers. Thirty-one recalled explicit examples of prior teachers impacting on how they saw teaching. All twelve of the teacher candidates seen to hold a strong sense of self-as-teacher remembered teachers who demonstrated the characteristics that made them examples of good teaching with the exception of Olivia. Olivia used her well-remembered teachers as examples of how not to be a teacher. Likewise the fourteen teacher candidates seen with a less defined sense of self-as-teacher also predominately incorporated recalled positive prior teachers with the one exception of Jack who like Olivia used his prior teachers as examples of how not to treat students. The ability to identify, articulate and discuss how prior teachers demonstrated ideal characteristics was not reflected in the nine candidates seen with no real sense of self-as-teacher.

Four of the nine student teachers with no real sense of self-as-teacher were unable to recall any prior teachers. In addition, Samuel was the only candidate seen to hold what appeared to be an inappropriate view of
teaching; as he saw teaching as a deceptive manipulation of education. Jasmine, Luke, Georgia, and Ella did recall at least one prior teacher; however, they were then unable to articulate how these teachers impacted on how they saw teaching and themselves in the role as teacher.

7.1.3 Phase 3 Conclusions

Phase 3, which involved the re-interviewing of the phase 2 participants, did not reveal any insightful or meaningful data as to how these participants saw themselves in the role as the teacher after their first practicum. Those student teachers who reported having had positive practicum experiences attributed this to great mentoring teachers, supportive schools and their own teaching ability. Those who reported having a negative practicum were able to attribute this to bad mentoring teachers, unsupportive schools, disruptive students, and established routines they were uncomfortable with but not to their own lack of teaching ability.

7.2 Limitations of The Present Study

This present study was exploratory. While it demonstrates differences in how I perceived the participating teacher candidates interpreted prior teacher experiences, these can not be considered to be indicative of all teacher candidates. Nevertheless, it would be valuable to investigate whether the patterns emerging from this study were similar in other pre-service teacher education programs.

As stated, the focus of the stimulated recall interviews was on how prior schooling experiences with prior teachers affected the interviewees’ view of teaching and their sense of self-as-teacher. This narrowing of focus may have led to what I perceived as a greater importance attributed to prior teacher influence than other possible more influential sources in the participants’ lives.
Finally as noted in the study, The University of Sydney’s return rate of 146 out of 667 (21.9%) as compared to The University of Auckland 208 out of 213 (97.7%) was an additional limitation that must be recognised. As one of the seven specific questions the study sought to address dealt with differences in interpretation between the two participating universities. The importance of ethnicity that emerged from the New Zealand participants, however, would appear to be independent of the respective return rates as no Australian student teacher commented on this issue.

7.3 Lessons Learned

In taking in the considerations of the limitations of this present study and reflecting back over the past three years, this study could have been improved. As stated in section 2.5.1, pp. 71-73, the pilot study highlighted five areas of concern. Only two could be addressed prior to the commencement of the study: the need for a broader range of study participants to reflect gender and program degree level; and the retention of the ideal student characteristics.

The present study further highlighted that the phase 3 interviews within the first year of the teacher training program did not provide these student candidates with enough time to reflect on how their view of themselves as the teacher was impacted by their first teaching experience. These teacher candidates’ views may in fact alter as they progress through their teaching career. In addition the limited amount of time some of the undergraduates experienced in actual classroom teaching further highlighted that phase 3 of the study could have provided more insightful reflections if it had occurred after their first-year of teaching or at the end of their pre-service program not their first practicum.

Likewise, one researcher attempting to conduct a study under time constraints in two countries was a problem in the present study. This could not be overcome. In attempting to increase the number of interviews to reach the widest range of pre-service teachers, the approaching
commencement of education program courses necessitated making speedy decisions. These decisions were about whether it was possible to continue to pursue those interviewees who initially indicated they were willing to be interviewed but then for various reasons declined on the day or cancelled just prior to the interview.

The third area highlighted in the pilot study and again was reflected in the present study was the ethnic diversity of students studying at The University of Auckland as compared to The University of Sydney. No candidate interviewed at The University of Sydney made any reference to the importance and significance of their ethnicity. Two of these participants did make comments about being new migrants but only as an explanation for how they viewed their schooling prior to being accepted and integrated into the wider community. This was not the situation for those entering The University of Auckland. Many were first generation university students or first generation migrants to New Zealand. These candidates viewed their ethnicity as extremely important and their cultural views as significant in how they saw teaching and themselves as the teacher.

Ethnicity viewed as being a major filter or significant factor to self-as-teacher image has been raised in the current research. In the present study, the twenty University of Sydney candidates saw teaching and the teacher as being student-focused. They were going to give back the positive teaching experiences they had had as students but were going to do this by being firm and fair in their classroom management. The fifteen University of Auckland candidates were also going to be student-focused as teachers in the classroom as they were going to demonstrate an energy and enthusiasm for teaching. This would then change the system of education that they experienced to provide a more positive learning environment for their students. There were seven interviewees who made comments in wanting to change, correct, fix, modify, alter and overcome weaknesses in the educational system they experienced as students, six of whom were entering The University of Auckland. Of these all but one then went on to make references to their own ethnicity being a factor in this decision.
7.4 Implications for Future Research

There are several notable implications of this present research study which all centre on the fact that the actions of teachers today shape who may or may not become the teachers of tomorrow. The conclusions drawn from this indicate that these entry-level teacher candidates did remember their time spent in the classroom as students. It was those memories of actions both taken and not taken by teachers that have influenced the type of teacher they did and did not want to become. This supports the previous research findings of Manuel and Hughes (2006), Goodson (1997) and Delpit (1995). Further, these previous experiences have had important consequences for their beliefs about their role as the teacher (Moll, 1992; McCaslin & Murdock, 1991; Heath, 1982).

This leads to the need for teacher candidates to be made aware of their own formative learning experiences and the effect this has had on how they see teaching, the role of the teacher and themselves as the teacher. This study supports the need for teacher educators to know and understand the beliefs teacher candidates bring with them and has shown how these 35 pre-service teachers have been impacted by their time spent in the classroom. It was through reflective thought that those underlying beliefs as to how they saw themselves as the type of teacher they did and did not want to become began to emerge. Both participating universities incorporate reflective thought tasks during initial teacher education programs, however, this study has shown it was through stimulated recall of prior schooling accounts that many of the student teachers were able to begin to unpack their preconceptions and beliefs about teaching and being the teacher. More research is needed to determine whether the conclusions drawn in this study may or may not be indicative of the wider teacher population.

This study has shown that classroom decisions and instruction did have an effect on the participating students. In-service teachers need to be conscious of the impact of their own prior experiences and how it influences their
classroom behaviour (Delpit, 1995; Sadker & Sadker, 1994; Good & Brophy, 1974). Teacher classroom behaviour can be a positive and motivating force when students feel valued, cared for and supported (Battastich, Watson, Solomon, Lewis & Schaps, 1999) as seen by the male primary candidates participating in this study wanting to return to the primary classroom.

Similarly, participating female secondary candidates reported that teachers who presented a topic or assignment with enthusiasm, suggesting that it was interesting, important or worthwhile were likely to adopt this same attitude towards the subject matter (Cabelle & Terrell, 1994; Newby, 1991; Bettencourt, Gilbert, Gall & Hull, 1983). Teachers are not in the classroom by themselves; there are students with whom they interact on a daily basis.

It was the potential for this positive interaction that seventeen of the twenty-four returning adults entered into teacher education. The opportunity to make a difference in the lives of students was seen to be a motivating factor by more than two-thirds of the participating non-traditional student teachers. Teaching as a potentially altruistic rewarding career for adults returning to education would appear to be supported by the participants in this study. A much wider study across a much larger sample population than the present study would need to be conducted in order to attempt to make this claim.

7.5 Final Comments

This study investigated the influences that prior teachers have on informing the type of teacher that entry-level teacher candidates want to become. The participating pre-service teachers in this study did remember their schooling experiences and their prior teachers. These events did inform upon on how they saw themselves as the teachers they wanted to become.

Teachers need to be made explicitly aware of how they conduct classes and the ways in which they relate to students. Their actions do influence students and future generations of teachers. Further research into this area of pre-
service teacher attributes is required to determine if the present study is potentially representative of other entry-level pre-service teacher candidates.

Sarah simply stated what she, several of her cohort and I myself uncovered about ourselves in reflecting back upon what started us on the road to teaching:

*I decided to teach because of the teachers I had* (194, p. 74).
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