Staying or Leaving? An Analysis of Early Career Paths of Beginning Teachers in Victorian Government Secondary Schools

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Produced on archival quality paper
To my sister Demet Latifoglu, my supervisor Professor Jack Keating and my friend Selime Cocoli: all of their lives were cut short during my candidature.
Abstract

High levels of attrition of beginning teachers (BTs) is a problem that is evident in many countries, with consequences that can include adverse impact on student learning, and wastage of school resources. There appears to be no research specifically reporting on relationships between BTs’ career progression and their forms of employment. Therefore, this study aims to address this research gap by considering the different employment mode experiences of BTs in Victoria, Australia: casual, fixed-term contract and permanent. Employment of BTs in Victoria is characterised by fixed-term contract and casual forms of labour rather than permanency.

In this study, the researcher draws upon the experiences of 41 BTs in their various forms of employment in 10 different school sites. BTs were defined as teachers with 0 to 3 years of teaching experience. Interviews were conducted with 20 full-time fixed term contract, 13 full-time permanent and eight casual relief BTs. Also, interviews were conducted with nine of the 10 school principals to provide an administrator perspective (one principal declined to be interviewed).

A maximum variation sampling strategy was adopted for this study, to provide richness through using schools in various geographical locations and in areas of varying educational advantage.

Results indicated that full-time permanent BTs enjoyed better working conditions and collegiality with enhanced teaching support compared to their fixed-term contract and casual counterparts. This has negative ramifications for the retention of BTs undertaking fixed-term contract and casual forms of labour. Also, some fixed-term contract BTs reported a ‘commitment imbalance’ compared with their school administration: whilst they were devoted to their jobs, the school could not indicate future employment prospects for them. Most BTs did not expect to be teaching out of their field of training, nor did they anticipate the degree of errant student behaviour, to the extent that many had to endure threats to their personal safety. In addition, the majority of BTs did not anticipate the heavy workload leading to a work–life
imbalance. Nevertheless, the majority of BTs indicated that teaching represented a suitable career for them. Furthermore, there was one outstanding school in which all the BTs (fixed-term and permanent) interviewed indicated that they were well supported by their school community, experienced a healthy work–life balance and few critical incidents, such as threats to their personal safety. As a result, retention of BTs in this school appears more likely. This also suggests that such exemplary outcomes may be replicated in other similar school sites.
Declaration

This is to certify that

(i) The thesis comprises only my original work towards the PhD,

(ii) Due acknowledgement has been made in the text to all other material used,

(iii) The thesis is less than 100,000 words in length, exclusive of tables, maps, bibliographies and appendices of the thesis as approved by the RHD Committee.

Signature:

Ahmet Latifoglu
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# Table of Contents

Abstract ........................................................................................................................................ iii

Declaration .................................................................................................................................... v

Acknowledgements ....................................................................................................................... vi

Abbreviations ................................................................................................................................. xiii

Chapter 1 Introduction .................................................................................................................... 1
  Significance ................................................................................................................................. 1
  Research Question ....................................................................................................................... 4
  Research Setting ......................................................................................................................... 4
  Methodology ............................................................................................................................... 5
  Limitations and Delimitations ................................................................................................. 5
  Outline of Chapters .................................................................................................................... 6

Chapter 2 Part One of Literature Review ....................................................................................... 7
  Teacher Attrition ......................................................................................................................... 7
  Teacher Attrition in Disadvantaged Schools ........................................................................... 8
  Australian Government Priorities in Teaching ........................................................................ 11
  The Australian Teaching Context in Victoria ......................................................................... 11
  The Rise of Casual Employment in Teaching ......................................................................... 13
  Casual Beginning Teachers ....................................................................................................... 16
  Rural and Remote Teaching ....................................................................................................... 18
  Teacher Labour Markets ........................................................................................................... 18
  Segmentation of Teacher Labour Markets ............................................................................. 21
  Labour Supply Features: Characteristics of Individuals Who Enter Teaching .................... 22
  Gender: Women and Time for Family .................................................................................... 22
  Trends in Teacher Aptitude ....................................................................................................... 24
  Motivation to Enter Teaching .................................................................................................... 26
List of Tables

Table 1 Research Sites & Interview Schedules of Beginning Teacher Cohorts ........................................67
Table 2 Profile of Provincial Secondary Schools in the Study ..............................................................72
Table 3 Profile of Metropolitan Secondary Schools in the Study ........................................................73
Table 4 Transcript Extract & the Coding Process: Alana, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract
   teacher, Kenworth ..................................................................................................................................84
Table 5 Open, Axial & Selective Codes for Preferred Form of Teaching Employment .........................86
Table 6 Adaptive & Maladaptive Motivation for Entering the Teaching Profession ..........................121
Table 7 Adaptive & Maladaptive Motivation for Career Change Beginning Teachers ......................187

List of Figures

Figure 1 Part-time Employment and Full-time Employment in Australia 1978 to 2010 .....................14
Figure 2 Gender and Part-time Employment in Australia 1978 to 2010 ............................................15
Figure 3 Example of a Field Note in This Study: Brittany, third year full-time permanent teacher,
   Sandy Point ........................................................................................................................................82
Figure 4 Beginning Teachers' Preferred Mode of Employment ..........................................................91
Figure 5 Beginning Teachers' Expectations of the Teaching Profession ...........................................101
Figure 6 Beginning Teachers' Career-fit Suitability ............................................................................108
Figure 7 Beginning Teachers' Anticipated Length of Time in Teaching ...........................................113
Figure 8 Beginning Teachers' Reasons for Entering the Teaching Profession ................................119
Figure 9 Beginning Teachers' Induction and Orientation Experiences ...............................................124
Figure 10 Beginning Teachers' Experiences of Mentoring & Support by Experienced Teachers ......132
Figure 11 Beginning Teachers' Professional Development Experiences ...........................................137
Figure 12 Beginning Teachers’ Workload Experiences ......................................................................145
Figure 13 Beginning Teachers’ Work–Life Balance Experiences .......................................................154
Figure 14 Beginning Teachers' Out-of-field-teaching Experiences .....................................................159
Figure 15 Beginning Teachers’ Experiences of Their Preparation to Meet the Teaching Expectations of
   Their School(s) ..................................................................................................................................169
Figure 16 Beginning Teachers' Sense of Autonomy in Their School(s).................................173
Figure 17 Beginning Teachers' Personal Safety Concerns ..................................................179
Figure 18 Principals' Views: Support Structures for Beginning Teachers in Their Schools.........189
Figure 19 Principals' Views: Challenges for Their Beginning Teachers..................................194
Abbreviations

ACTU: Australian Council of Trade Unions
AEU: Australian Education Union
ASPA: Australian School Principals Association
BT: Beginning Teacher
CBT: Casual Beginning Teacher
CRT: Casual Relief Teacher
DEECD: Department of Education and Early Childhood Development
ENTER: Equivalent National Tertiary Entrance Rank
FIT: Factors Influencing Teacher
ICSEA: Index of Community Socio-Educational Advantage
KLA: Key Learning Area
LOTE: Language Other than English
MCEECDYA: Ministerial Council for Education Early Childhood Development and Youth Affairs
MOTS: Modified Orientation to Teach Survey
NCTAF: National Commission on Teaching and America's Future
NSW: New South Wales
OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PD: Professional Development
PDCA: Performance and Development Culture Accreditation
PE: Physical Education
SOSE: Studies of Society and Environment
TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
VCE: Victorian Certificate of Education
VTAC: Victorian Tertiary Admissions Centre
Chapter 1 Introduction
This chapter provides an overview of the significance of the study, and details the research question. To contextualise the study, a brief description of the research setting is provided before outlining the methodology and the limitations and delimitations of the study.

Significance
Policy makers, educational leaders and researchers have been concerned with non-retirement-related teacher attrition for some time (Boyd, Grossman, Ing, Lankford, Loeb & Wyckoff, 2011; Farber, 2010; Watlington, Shockley, Guglielmino, & Felsher, 2010). In particular, the attrition rates among beginning teachers (BTs) have been acknowledged as a problem in many countries (OECD, 2005, 2009). Moreover, many studies have shown that attrition of new teachers is both high and undesirable (Buchanan et al., 2013; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Ewing & Manuel, 2005; Jenkins, Smith, & Maxwell, 2009).

However, the call for the retention of all teachers is misguided because if it is at the expense of teacher quality then students may experience “more harm than benefit” (Guarino, Santibanez, & Daley, 2006, p. 177). Macdonald (1999) reminds us that low levels of teachers leaving the system is equally undesirable as high levels of exits, because it may lead to stagnation of the profession and schooling. Therefore, some teacher attrition is desirable because it may serve to rejuvenate schools and the education system as a whole. However, a high level of teacher attrition is different and suggests underlying problems (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). In particular, the attrition of talented teachers may jeopardise the quality of teaching in schools.

The importance of teacher quality for enhancing student outcomes is supported by numerous research findings (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Hanushek, 2011; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005). In the school context, as in many industries, crucial resources are the abilities and motivations of the individuals that make up the organisation (Davies & Davies, 2011; Halvorson & Higgins, 2013; Mankins, Bird, &
Therefore, the attraction and retention of talented or high-performing individuals in any line of work is the key for success and teaching is no different. For example, Hanushek (2011) suggests that the retention of talented maths and science teachers in schools enhances national competiveness and prosperity, yet in many countries there is difficulty in retaining these teachers (Bulman, 2008; Ingersoll & Perda, 2010; Webster, Wooden, & Marks, 2005).

One reason for the difficulty in retaining talented teachers is because teaching is considered as one of the more stressful occupations (S. Johnson et al., 2005; Kieschke & Schaarschmidt, 2008; Pitthers & Fogarty, 1995). Like other occupations which involve the care of others, teaching is marked by “emotional labour” (S. Johnson et al., 2005, p. 184), and the degree of stress can be considerable, especially in challenging contexts (Farber, 2010; Fetherston & Lummis, 2012).

Another issue is that it appears that the most capable individuals are not pursuing teaching (Allen, 2005; Murnane, Singer, Willett, Kemple, & Olsen, 1991). Of concern is that teacher aptitude appear to be declining in the United States (Bacolod, 2007; Hoxby & Leigh, 2004) as well as in Australia (Leigh & Ryan, 2006, 2008; Stokes & Wright, 2007).

Adding to this, it appears that highly committed and altruistic teachers do not necessarily remain and thrive in all school settings. Because these teachers are willing to assume additional responsibilities and are susceptible to overwork, they are likely candidates for burnout (Farber, 2010; Kieschke & Schaarschmidt, 2008). Consequently, such highly motivated, talented and altruistic teachers may be the “right candidates” (Sinclair, 2008, p. 1133) for teaching, but may also exit from the profession earlier than expected (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004a; Murnane et al., 1991).

Another reason for the difficulty in retaining talented teachers may revolve around the notion of a ‘career’ in teaching. For many entrants, teaching no longer represents the secure life-long career of the industrial age (Dwyer & Wyn, 2001; Manuel & Hughes, 2006; Smethem, 2007). In addition, the new cohort of young teacher
entrants, the so-called Generation Y, do not expect to be teaching for a lifetime (Manuel & Hughes, 2006).

There are six consequences when talented BTs exit their schools early. Firstly, student achievement may suffer due to the disruption of previous learning and schools lose cultural and intellectual capital from the departing teacher (Manuel & Hughes, 2006). Secondly, school effectiveness drops when more resources are devoted to inducting new teachers, and this may lead to instability which in turn may lessen the morale of the remaining staff (National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future [NCTAF], 2009). Thirdly, teacher quality may potentially be lowered if there is not the supply to replace the departing teacher. For example, the school may have to resort to out-of-field teaching, when teachers are assigned to teach in an area where they have little training or expertise (Ingersoll, 2001a, 2005, 2008). Fourthly, it is a waste of public resources to train and develop BTs who depart early (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Fifthly, there is an obvious human cost when BTs leave soon after investing time and resources to attain their qualifications and build their careers (Manuel, 2003). Lastly, there may be a long-term national economic impact with the attrition of talented teachers in areas like mathematics and science (Hanushek, 2011).

Previous research into the socialisation, wellbeing or career intentions of BTs has not paid a great deal of attention to the forms of work they have. However, authors such as Jenkins and colleagues (2009) researched BTs undertaking casual employment, and others have considered their “fragmented employment contexts” (Pietsch & Williamson, 2007, p. 469). Further to this, much of the related literature assumes that BTs work within their own secure classrooms and have the confidence of permanent employment (Pietsch & Williamson, 2007). The researcher has not been able to find studies reporting on relationships between BTs’ career progression and their forms of employment.

This study aims to address this research gap by considering the different experiences of BTs in Victoria, Australia, based on their employment mode: casual,
fixed-term contract and permanent. Employment of teachers is characterised by fixed-term contract and casual forms of labour rather than permanency (Australian Council of Trade Unions [ACTU], 2011; Buchanan, 2004; Productivity Commission, 2006), and Victoria has the highest level of fixed-term contract teaching (up to 70 per cent of BTs) in any jurisdiction in Australia (Australian Education Union Victorian Branch, 2010). This high level of fixed-term contract teaching underlines the importance of this study (Keating, 2011). This study will contribute to the general body of literature on teacher retention and attrition, and aid school administrators and system policy makers to better support BTs.

Research Question
The research question in this dissertation is how are the different pathways of permanent full-time, fixed-term contract, and casual relief work teachers associated with their career trajectories in Victorian government secondary schools?

Research Setting
Australia is made up of six states (New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, Western Australia and Tasmania) and two territories (the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory). This study has taken place in the state of Victoria. Melbourne is the capital and the most populous city in the state of Victoria. In addition, Melbourne is the second most populous city in Australia after Sydney. Education in Victoria is administered by the Department of Education and Early Childhood Development (DEECD). Schooling in Victoria begins with kindergarten or preparatory year followed by 12 years of primary and secondary school. Schooling in Victoria is compulsory between the ages of six and 17 ("Education and Training Reform Amendment (School Age) Act 2009 No. 62," 2009). School aged students in Victoria attend either government (public) or independent (private) schools. Independent schools can be either religious or secular in their orientation, and are subsidised by the federal and state governments.
Methodology
This study has accepted the principles underpinning the use of qualitative methods as a form of research. Qualitative research epistemology is based on participants’ perception, comprehension, explanation and the way they experience the world they are immersed in (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Punch, 2009). The researcher chose structured open-ended interviews for this study after considering the alternatives. This type of interviewing is characterised by the use of exact wording of interview questions with the sequencing of such questions determined in advance; also, the interviewees are asked the identical questions in the same order (Patton, 1980). The advantage of this approach is that when participants answer the same questions, this increases the comparability of responses; therefore it reduces interviewer effects and bias when many interviews are used. The other advantage is that it allows decision makers to see and review the instruments used in the evaluation (Cohen et al., 2011; Kvale, 2007; Patton, 1980).

In this study, the researcher draws upon the experiences of 41 BTs in their various forms of employment in 10 different school sites. BTs were defined as teachers with 0 to 3 years of teaching experience. Interviews were conducted with 20 full-time fixed term contract, 13 full-time permanent and eight casual relief BTs. Also, interviews were conducted with nine of the 10 school principals to provide an administrator perspective (one principal declined to be interviewed).

A maximum variation sampling strategy was adopted for this study, to provide richness through using schools in various geographical locations and in areas of varying educational dis/advantage.

Limitations and Delimitations
The limitations of the study are primarily concerned with the adoption of an interview-based research method. The inclusion of 41 BTs and nine principals in 10 different schools is a sizeable qualitative study but may not be representative of all secondary schools in Victoria. However, to mitigate this, the maximum variation sampling strategy did provide a rich collection of school contexts. At an Australian and world
level, the reader will need to judge the degree to which the findings of this research are applicable to other contexts. In terms of adopting qualitative methods, the interviewing of teachers from different employment pathways, and the interviewing of principals, provides multiple perspectives on the research question and enhances trustworthiness. Other strategies for enhancing trustworthiness are discussed below.

Apart from these limitations, this study is delimited to BTs in government secondary schools in Victoria. The voices of primary teachers, or teachers working in other types of schools (Catholic systemic, or independent) are not part of this study.

**Outline of Chapters**
The introduction chapter provides the context, the theoretical framework, a statement of the problem and gap in the research, the aims of the project and a brief description of the methodology. Chapter 2 is the literature review and is divided into two sections. The first section broadly deals with the features of teacher labour markets. Some of these topics are: casualisation, the characteristics of those who enter teaching, women and their valuing of time with their families, trends in teacher aptitude, and the motivations candidates bring with them including career-change teachers. The second part of the literature review is dedicated to what happens inside schools and the processes BTs encounter, the induction including mentoring, and an account of a DEECD school improvement program. Chapter 3 explains and justifies the methodology used in this study, as well as the reasons for studying BTs, the nature of selecting the sample, a justification for the research instrument, ethical considerations and finally the method used to analyse the data. The research findings are shown in Chapter 4. Some of the major themes in this chapter are BTs’ preferred form of work, collegiality and support, student engagement, working conditions, workload and work–life balance. Last of all, Chapter 5 provides a discussion and commentary on the findings; this involves a debate on the elements that support and the elements that hinder the retention of BTs in Victorian secondary schools.
Chapter 2 Part One of Literature Review

There are two parts to this literature review. The first part covers the following topics: teacher attrition; teacher attrition in disadvantage schools; Australian government priorities in teaching; the rise of casual employment in teaching; casual beginning teachers; rural and remote teaching; teacher labour markets and the segmentation of these markets; labour supply features, the characteristics of those who enter teaching; women and time for family; trends in teacher aptitude; motivation to enter teaching; career change teachers and their motivations; occupational embeddedness; teacher recruitment processes; and finally teachers’ career choices. The second part of the literature review will cover some of the process forces which shape BTs while at work: induction of BTs into schools; mentoring; and finally, performance and development culture.

Teacher Attrition

In schools, especially disadvantaged ones, the quality of teaching is seen as a major factor in school effectiveness (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2009; Hayes, 2009; 2001b). If schools in underprivileged locations are to improve student outcomes, they need to be aware of how best to attract and retain the teachers most likely to have a constructive influence on students (Rice, 2007). The first step is to examine teacher attrition.

Educational leaders, policy makers and researchers have been concerned about teacher attrition for some time (Boyd et al., 2011; Farber, 2010; Watlington et al., 2010). In particular, the attrition rates among beginning teachers have been acknowledged as a problem in many countries. Many studies have demonstrated that attrition of new teachers is high (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Ewing & Manuel, 2005; Jenkins et al., 2009). Research in the United States has documented high attrition rates among newly qualified teachers. According to a peak education body in the United States, beginning teacher attrition rates have been rising for more than a decade with over a third of new teachers leaving the profession within three years, while some school districts require half of their beginning teachers to be replaced every five years (National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future [NCTAF],
Earlier research consistently suggested that about one-third of beginning teachers leave the profession within the first five years (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; S. M. Johnson & Birkeland, 2003).

There are similar issues with beginning teacher attrition in Europe (Quartz, Barraza-Lyons, & Thomas, 2005; Smethem, 2007; Smithers & Robinson, 2004). In Australia, there is less quantitative research on the extent of early teacher attrition. Nevertheless, based on approximations from NSW and Victorian data, Dow (2004) estimated that, “nationwide 2,300 teachers annually leave the profession in the first five years of their careers” (p. 21). Throughout Australia in 2001, “more teachers resigned than retired” (Dow, 2003b, p. 87). Moreover, the rate at which beginning teachers leave the profession “is possibly as high as 25 per cent within the first five years of teaching” (Dow, 2003b, p.87). In addition, the Federal Government predicts that resignation rates for teachers are likely to increase, and this assertion will be explored later in this study. Furthermore, the level of replacement demand for teachers in Australia is projected to rise, putting teacher quality at risk:

…the level of replacement demand for teachers is likely to rise between 2004 and 2014, with losses at their highest levels towards the end of this decade. This will present a significant challenge in terms of the quantity, composition and quality of the supply of teachers available to meet losses of teachers from their profession. (Ministerial Council for Education Early Childhood Development and Youth Affairs [MCEECDYA], 2004, p. 127)

**Teacher Attrition in Disadvantaged Schools**

The attrition of beginning teachers adds to the overall turnover of teachers. Attrition and turnover of teachers are two different terms. Turnover of teachers may include attrition (this can include career change as well as natural retirement) and migration (teachers moving within the system). However, from an organisational point of view, “teacher migration and attrition have the same effect. Both result in a decrease in staff in that particular organization that usually must be replaced, at times with difficulty” (Ingersoll & Perda, 2010, p. 587).
Attrition of teachers impacts the hardest in disadvantaged schools. In the US, “teachers are prone to leave schools serving high proportions of low-achieving, low-income, and minority students for more economically and educationally advantaged schools” (Loeb, Darling-Hammond, & Luczak, 2005, p. 44). Disadvantaged schools reported that the attrition rate for teachers is a third higher than in non-disadvantaged schools (Ewing & Manuel, 2005). Ingersoll (2001b) found that high-poverty public schools have significantly higher turnover rates than did more affluent public schools, where “both younger (less than 30 years) and older (greater than 50 years) teachers are more likely to depart than middle-aged teachers” (p. 518). Moreover, recent large scale quantitative surveys still confirm the view that teacher turnover is higher in high-poverty than in low-poverty USA public schools (Planty et al., 2008). Furthermore, to compound the state of affairs for disadvantaged schools, less effective teachers have a tendency to stay in them (Boyd et al., 2009).

The issues of teacher quality, school effectiveness and student outcomes are brought into sharp focus when there is a continual turnover of teachers at a school. Boyd’s and colleagues’ (2009) study emphasised that in disadvantaged schools which are hard-to-staff, a high turnover of teachers “creates instability…making it more difficult to have coherent instruction” (p. 2). This volatility is likely to be challenging when teachers in disadvantaged schools are trying to develop and implement school curriculum and policy, as well as conducting effective classes; ultimately this instability is likely to adversely impact on student outcomes. When schools are forced to devote time and energy into recruiting and preparing newly hired teachers, their overall effectiveness declines (National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future [NCTAF], 2009). High levels of teacher turnover also result in the “loss of cultural and intellectual capital” from the school (Manuel & Hughes, 2006, p. 6). This in turn may contribute to lowering the morale of the school. Staiger and Rockoff (2010) argued that when teachers decide to leave, there is not only the direct cost of hiring a replacement teacher, but there is the “loss to students who will be taught by a novice teacher rather than one with several years of experience” (p. 98). The new teacher, regardless of how many years’ experience he/she may have, will need time to adjust to her new students, staff, school culture, curriculum and so forth; this is at the expense of students’ outcomes.
When teachers leave their school, students and the school are likely to suffer because “schools lose the benefits of professional development and other resources invested in the departing teacher” (Donaldson, 2008, p. 4). There is also the impact to the education system when beginning teachers leave: “there is never a long-term pay off from its investments in novices who leave” (Darling-Hammond, 2003, p. 8). The attrition of teachers, particularly effective maths and science ones may have negative ramifications on a country’s rate of economic growth. Hanushek (2011) outlined the following point of view:

Recent analysis has demonstrated a very close tie between cognitive skills of a country’s population and the country’s rate of economic growth...countries that perform better on international math and science tests have stronger growth of their economies. (p. 474)

Certainly, not all teacher attrition is a problem: “low levels of teacher attrition may lead to stagnation of the profession and schooling” (Macdonald, 1999, p. 835). According to Ingersoll and Smith (2003), effective organisations can benefit from a certain amount of turnover, “which eliminates low-calibre performers and brings in new blood to facilitate innovation” (p. 2). Macdonald (1999) suggests that when teachers leave and re-enter some time down the track, their profession benefits from “added vitality and depth” (p. 841). On the other hand, high levels of employee turnover are completely different and can suggest underlying problems (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

Where schools have difficulty filling teacher positions, they are more likely to have to resort to out-of-field teaching. Out-of-field teaching takes place when teachers are “assigned to teach subjects for which they have little preparation, education, or background” (Ingersoll, 2008, p. 369). Ingersoll (2005) found that “disadvantaged schools have more out-of-field teaching than do more affluent schools” (p. 176). Furthermore, “this practice makes even highly qualified teachers highly unqualified” (Ingersoll, 2008, p. 369). Teaching out-of-field is more likely than not to have an adverse influence on the novice teacher because they are adjusting to the daily demands of teaching, negotiating collegial relationships, understanding and
managing their classroom and becoming accustomed to school and community cultures (M. Cooper & Stewart, 2009; Ewing & Manuel, 2005; Ferfolja, 2008). Being required to teach out-of-field may in turn contribute further to teacher attrition as novice teachers grapple with this extra pressure.

**Australian Government Priorities in Teaching**

US studies on teacher attrition and retention are different from to the Australian context. One major difference is that the individual Australian states and territories are responsible for the delivery of schooling rather than individual school districts of each state in the USA. The Federal Government of Australia has outlined its national goals regarding literacy and numeracy in disadvantaged schools, with the Prime Minister of the day:

> We want to see the combination of great classroom instructors, led by professional school leaders, using modern educational facilities, teaching the right curriculum, offering the best means to improve outcomes across the nation and overcome the effects of educational disadvantage. (Gillard, 2010, p. 1)

The Department of Education and Early Childhood Development of Victoria has outlined its priority areas of interest for research in 2008–2011. One such priority for research is the importance of teacher quality and retention:

> What motivates high-performing teachers, and how this can be used to inform policy frameworks and local decision-making to aid teacher retention. (Department of Education and Early Childhood Development [DEECD], 2010, p. 5)

**The Australian Teaching Context in Victoria**

The attrition rate for permanently employed Victorian government school teachers has been rising during the first half of the last decade: “Since 1998 the attrition rate has risen from 3.1 per cent to 4.2 per cent at 2005” *(Teacher supply and demand report*, 2006, p. 20). Moreover the report has shown that the attrition rate for permanent or permanently employed government staff in schools is projected to rise
to 5 per cent in 2010 from 1.25 per cent in 1995. This figure is likely to include teacher retirement as well, however.

What may be contributing to these patterns of attrition? In a major review commissioned by the New South Wales (NSW) Government on the quality of teachers and teaching, Ramsey (2000) emphasised the plight that may face beginning teachers: “For a new teacher, on their own and without the level of support other professions give their new entrants, it can be all too daunting” (p. 9). Ramsey’s study further stressed that, “the greatest loss of teachers from government schools occurs in the first few years of service” (p. 197).

Another major examination into public education in NSW was the Vinson Inquiry (Vinson, 2002): this study echoed Ramsey’s (2000) findings in regard to the predicament beginning teachers may face in adjusting to their newly chosen profession. Vinson (2002) reminds us that student welfare and discipline were major concerns for teachers: “The total lack of respect for teachers and the verbal abuse sometimes showered upon them by disruptive students causes some teachers to ‘count the days’ until they can flee the situation” (p. 25). In the report, a teacher from a school in Sydney’s western region, a disadvantaged locality, stated the following:

Student behaviour and discipline is one of the most off-putting things about teaching today and a massive issue at this school. [I mean] children who, despite our best efforts to make class work interesting and appealing, will not stay in the room, will not do as they are asked, and are constantly disruptive, are aggressive towards other children and sometimes staff with little provocation, who use abusive language to teachers and other children. How do you teach effectively when discipline takes up so much of your teaching time? (p. 163)

To make matters worse for teachers, the report further found that some teachers fear that changes to child protection legislation make them vulnerable to misinterpretations of behaviour: “Teachers are fearful that even the best-intentioned physical gesture of concern for a distressed child could result in disciplinary action
against them, even though their action was totally asexual” (p. 25). To sum up, experienced teachers would find these student behaviours confronting, let alone beginning ones. This can only add to the difficulties faced by beginning teachers that subsequently see them leaving the profession.

Another pressure early career teachers are often unfairly subjected to is the ‘sink or swim’ mentality by education and school authorities, and the difficulties and stresses they may encounter are usually seen as just a ‘rite of passage’ (Howe, 2006). Furthermore, beginning teachers are generally given the most difficult classes and have more extracurricular responsibilities imposed on them (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Gehrke, 2007; Noble & Macfarlane, 2005).

**The Rise of Casual Employment in Teaching**
The pervasiveness of casual employment in the teaching workforce (Forward, 2005; Percy & Beaumont, 2008; Standing, 2008) and of many other professions such as nursing (Batch, Barnard, & Windsor, 2009) is within the framework of a wider global trend, which began in the early 1990s in Australia with the deregulation of the employment and labour market (Pusey, 2003). Together with technological, industrial and political forces, the economic reform paradigm is for ever increasing global competitiveness in the name of productivity. Pusey’s study (2003) pointed out that the main purpose of economic reform was “to make us less dependent on states and governments and more dependent on economies, markets, prices, money, and more directly upon ourselves…As uncertain individuals, we are forced, now as the risk managers of our own lives” (p. 1). Economic reform marked the rise of the deregulation of the labour and employment market, which in turn has seen the growth of contingent employment, which is employment other than full-time permanent work; moreover Australia has risen to one of the highest among OECD countries for contingent employment (Buchler, Haynes, & Baxter, 2009; Campbell, 2004; Nele De et al., 2008).
To highlight the rise of contingent employment in Australia, let us examine the growth of part-time employment. Figure 1 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010) shows part-time employment compared to full-time employment of all persons in Australia from February 1978 to April 2010. In February 1978 there were approximately 911,000 persons in part-time employment; this figure had increased to approximately 3,304,000 in April 2010, a rise of approximately 360 per cent. This compared to a rise of about 150 per cent for persons employed full-time for the same period. Therefore the growth of part-time employment has more than doubled the growth of full-time employment for the last three decades in Australia. According to Figure 2 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010) shown below, females have come to dominate part-time employment compared to males at an ever increasing rate from 1978 to 2010. Moreover, females have consistently more than doubled males in part-time employment for the last three decades in Australia. For some, but not all women, part-time work is a desired outcome that meets the needs for their families.
Figure 2 Gender and Part-time Employment in Australia 1978 to 2010
Today’s BTs enter the profession in an “uncertain and fragmented employment…characterised by short term contract work and successive rather than continuous appointments” (Pietsch & Williamson, 2007 p. 470). According to Pietch and Williams (2007), the career entry experiences of beginning teachers have become more important, “as significant numbers of experienced teachers retire within the next five to ten years” (p. 470). This situation has become more pressing in the context of teacher workforce planning as the recruitment and retention of Beginning Teachers (BTs) is juxtaposed with rising attrition levels and the increase in the casual employment of the teaching workforce. The study stressed that, where beginning teachers enter the profession in situations of splintered employment (fixed-term contract teaching and casual relief teaching), this adversely affects their prospect in developing a comprehension in “critical areas of the profession, of themselves as teachers and of the means to professional classroom competence”. Due to the importance of the repetitive nature of learning in becoming a practicing teacher, those who have access to a permanent classroom “make progress that is cumulative in effect” compared to those who don’t have a permanent classroom and school context who “make little progress” (p. 471).

**Casual Beginning Teachers**
Teacher graduates in Victoria tend to enter the profession via permanent, fixed-term contract (this can be as short as one month) and casual employment pathways (this can be as short as a few hours). A large proportion of Victorian teachers enter the profession as a Casual Beginning Teacher (CBT), and they work as a Casual Relief Teacher (CRT), also known as an Emergency Teacher. CRTs and CBTs often at very short notice fill in staffing gaps in a school when a teacher is absent for one reason or another; the reasons can vary from illness, to take up other duties or for training purposes. CRTs play a vital role in filling the schools’ needs by ensuring that “schools are able to provide a continuity of programs and teaching” (Victorian Institute of Teaching, 2010); “but there is little reciprocal benefit such as being valued and accepted into the school community or supported through induction, mentoring or professional development” and “being in a school one day and gone the next is frequently the lot of a casual teacher” (Jenkins et al., 2009 p. 66). Jenkins’ study pointed out that “Most pre-service teachers visualise gaining a permanent position as
a full-time teacher after graduation but approximately only two-thirds achieve this” (p. 66). Some beginning teachers who don’t find permanent work may opt for casual employment. The most recent quantitative research, cited by Jenkins et al. (2009) on this topic is from Dow (2003a). This report estimated that of the teacher education graduates from 2000, in their following year, 60 per cent were working in schools, 10 per cent were unemployed, 8 per cent were working in other fields and 20 per cent were involved in other areas such as further education. This serves to highlight the need for further research in the area.

The work CRTs undertake is quite different from teaching in a permanent arrangement or on a short-term contract basis. Jenkins et al. (2009) described this type of teaching as “very demanding” and typified by “lack of permanency, status and support” (p. 66). To exacerbate the situation for a CBT, the first year of employment or “transition phase” is regarded as having future implications for “teacher effectiveness, job satisfaction and career length” (McCormack & Thomas, 2005, p. 17). To reiterate, CRTs have traditionally attracted little attention when it comes to education research. However, a qualitative research study based on semi-structured interviews of twenty casual teachers, servicing twenty Western Australian government metropolitan primary schools, found conclusively that feelings of alienation existed amongst the participants when carrying out their duties (Lunay & Lock, 2006). The study defined alienation as “persistent negative feelings that some relief teachers may experience during their course of work” (Lunay & Lock, 2006, p. 173). Four themes emerged from the study: (1) “Specific in-class challenges” (namely, behaviour management, perceived lack of lesson planning information and resources); (2) “negative relationship” issues with the educational community, particularly staff; (3) negative “relief teacher images and perceptions” (namely, low expectations of their abilities, particularly by other staff members); and (4) “equity with tenured colleagues” (namely, wages and conditions of employment, access to professional development).

Finally the challenge of behaviour management for a CRT when they face a classroom is best depicted by the following passage:
We face great stress when students are abusive and the moment they see your face walking towards the classroom there is celebration because their regular teacher is not there and they think they have 40 minutes of free time. It makes the going really tough and is hard to tolerate all day. (McCormack & Thomas, 2005, p. 26)

**Rural and Remote Teaching**

The attraction and retention of teachers to remote and rural schools has been a persistent problem for education authorities in Australia (Brasche & Harrington, 2012). Lyons (2009) highlights this difficulty: “The combination of huge distances, a predominantly urbanized population and significant contextual and cultural differences between rural and urban communities contributes to a geographical imbalance in the demand and supply of teachers” (p. 167). Australia’s comparatively small population, scattered throughout a wide country, makes the problem of staffing schools in sparsely populated rural and remote localities particularly complex and demanding (Hudson & Hudson, 2008).

BTs have historically been used to staff schools in isolated and remote localities (Motley, Rossi, & King, 2005). The problems faced by beginning teachers in rural and remote localities can be more acute compared to their urban counterparts: namely, more out-of-field teaching, fewer professional development prospects, diminished quality of mentoring and induction opportunities, and isolation from family and friends in urban localities (Frid, Smith, Sparrow, & Trinidad, 2008; Motley et al., 2005; O’Neill & Fildes, 2007). It is of no surprise that these problems contribute to many early career rural and remote teachers exiting the teaching profession. Roberts (2004) tabled a major report in the NSW parliament which emphasised that beginning teachers serving rural and remote localities experienced higher attrition rates compared to their urban counterparts.

**Teacher Labour Markets**

The processes by which teachers are employed by schools are usually referred to as teacher labour markets (Webster, Wooden, & Marks, 2006). Understanding how teacher labour markets operate may shed light on the career pathways of beginning
teachers. Why are beginning teachers attracted to the teaching profession, enter into it, then move within it and perhaps ultimately decide to prematurely exit their occupation?

A labour market is made up of sellers of labour, in this case trained teachers, while buyers of that labour are made up of school systems and school principals. A labour market in the teaching profession can be “characterised by the factors that drive demand and determine supply”, while the main factors that determine demand are “the number of people of school age, educational retention rates, the ratio of students to teachers and the cost of hiring teachers” (Webster et al., 2006, p. 186). Important factors in determining teachers’ attraction into the teaching profession are pecuniary and non-pecuniary rewards. Pecuniary rewards are obviously wages and probable wage growth while non-pecuniary rewards as described by Webster et al. (2006) include:

- conditions of employment, the number of contact weeks and hours per week,
- the security of employment, the ease of moving in and out of employment,
- access to professional development, and the provision of auxiliary staff and teacher aides to ease the work load. (p. 136)

Loeb and Reinger (2004) referred to the terms preferences and constraints in their study of teacher labour markets. While preferences differ among individuals, they broadly guide prospective teachers’ decision to enter the profession; for instance, having an interest in working with children and their literacy development. At the same time, prospective teachers are also constrained in their choices, as anyone else is. For example, teachers may be restricted in working close to where they reside instead of distant favourable localities. Teachers may also face economic constraints. Their income must provide a reasonable standard of living commensurate with their education; otherwise they may be attracted to alternative employment opportunities (Loeb & Reinger, 2004). Similarly, Ozbilgin, Kusu and Erdogmus (2005) challenge the assumption that people are ‘free’ to choose their career, when in reality it is uncommon or even erroneous.
Richardson and Watt (2010) add weight to this belief by asserting that it is easy to ignore “the impact of labour market rigidities of supply and demand, persistent structural and institutionalised forms of discrimination and segregation, and cumulative influence of prior education and experience” (p. 142). Therefore, teachers are only free to choose within the confines of the teacher labour market.

Keeping in mind the restrictions of supply and demand in the labour market, it is noteworthy that not all teachers face the same constraints. Teachers vary in their alternative employment opportunities. For instance teachers with a strong information technology (computing) or science background may be able to find higher paying employment outside of teaching than those with a specialisation in languages other than English. Furthermore, the labour market for teachers is couched within and continuously influenced by a larger labour market that contains the markets for all other professions requiring about the same levels of education or skills (Guarino, Santibanez, Daley, & Brewer, 2004).

**Opportunity costs** are an important consideration in relation to teacher labour markets. When a prospective teacher chooses a teaching career over other available occupations, the candidate will lose the opportunity to gain the rewards, be they pecuniary or non-pecuniary, of other professions. These lost rewards are referred to as the opportunity costs of teaching. “Individuals who would incur high opportunity costs by choosing teaching will be less likely to make this choice” (Guarino et al., 2006, p. 173). Similarly, for those teachers in the profession whose opportunity costs outweigh the rewards gained from teaching, they will be more likely to leave their occupation.

Belfield (2005) argued that the teacher labour market in the United States is distinct from other labour markets: the teaching workforce is composed of teachers who are “almost entirely graduates, predominately female, highly unionized, and working in non-profit settings” (p. 176). These characteristics are comparable to the Australian teacher labour markets (McKenzie, Kos, Walker, & Hong, 2008; Owen, 2006; Owen, Kos, & McKenzie, 2008). When examining Australian teacher labour market studies, an important limitation is that longitudinal teacher studies are not plentiful.
Nevertheless, such studies do exist from overseas and “using these data are not wholly irrelevant to the Australian situation” (Webster et al., 2005, p. 91).

**Segmentation of Teacher Labour Markets**

Webster and his collaborators (2005) stressed that one of the most overlooked aspects of teaching is that it is not a single labour market but numerous separate labour markets. Segments occur when one kind of labour cannot be replaced for another without a substantial loss in productivity. Segments are found between secondary and primary (elementary) trained teachers for instance and within secondary school sector disciplines. The demand and supply for teachers in each segment are likely to be different and may be completely unrelated. Stokes and Wright (2007) neatly stated that, “The demand and supply of physics or mathematics teachers is very different from the demand and supply of art teachers or infants’ teachers” (p. 4).

Furthermore, the teacher labour market in Australia is distinctive because of the presence of different major employer groups (state and federal governments through their departments of education and training), and in turn these governments are partly responsible for the funding of Catholic and independent schools (Stokes & Wright, 2007). Stokes and Wright (2007) point out that school funding has a major influence on how the teacher labour market operates in Australia: governments are faced with restrictions on their ability to fund teachers’ wages and education, being constrained by their budgets and political repercussions.

This chapter describes the teacher labour markets central to this study. The initial section examines the characteristics of individuals who enter teaching: gender (women and time for family); trends in teacher aptitude; and their motivation. The second section identifies the motivation research in career change teachers. Lastly, the chapter will focus on some of the characteristics of individuals who remain in the teaching profession: occupational embeddedness.
Labour Supply Features: Characteristics of Individuals Who Enter Teaching

Who goes into teaching? Research that attempts to find out the characteristics of individuals who go into teaching can take three approaches. Firstly, they can evaluate those who decide to go into teaching compared to those who do not; secondly, they can investigate the characteristics of those who select teaching; and lastly, they can examine the characteristics of individuals who choose to teach and are selected to teach by schools and education administrations (Guarino et al., 2006). This chapter will focus on the characteristics of individuals who enter the teaching workforce. Underpinning someone’s decision to enter the teaching profession is the ease of entry, wages, benefits, working conditions and projected personal benefits (Loeb & Beteille, 2008; Loeb & Reininger, 2004; OECD, 2005). This section will explore some of these entry factors in relation to three key characteristics: gender (including women and time for family), teacher aptitude and motivation.

Gender: Women and Time for Family

There is a sizeable body of evidence which shows that teaching has long attracted considerable numbers of women into the profession (Allen, 2005; Dolton, 2005; McKenzie, 2008; OECD, 2005; Teacher supply and demand report, 2006). For example, Richardson and Watt’s (2006) large-scale (n = 1653) Australian study profiled the background characteristics and teaching motivations of entrants across three universities. They found within teacher education that more females are evident almost entirely in early childhood education, then primary (elementary) education and followed by secondary teacher education. Moreover, the decline of male entrants into the teaching profession has been noted over many decades. This decline is evident in Australia, the United States, the United Kingdom and in Europe, with more striking declines in primary than in secondary education (OECD, 2005). This situation is also accentuated as males have historically had broader employment opportunities than females and “this imbalance may persist today” (Guarino et al., 2006, p. 184). This further adds to the view that the education profession is dominated by women.
It is worth contemplating the reasons why teaching attracts large amounts of women. The reasons behind this are complex. However, they include the long-established public perception that teaching is a suitable occupation for women with ‘...the highest status of the traditionally female professions, with holidays and hours that allow combined responsibilities in work and family contexts” (Acker, 1989, p. 1). Further, the nurturing aspects of the teaching role are seen by some to “fit naturally with women” and are considered an “instinctive female attribute” (Forrester, 2005, p. 273). Families with children may call for flexible work arrangements, and teaching appears to provide this. Teaching provides the advantage of flexible employment practices: teachers may work on a casual (hourly), temporary or part-time basis which some people believe may suit working families. This seems to be the case in Germany, where a prominent feature of its teaching workforce is the high proportion of women who work part-time and on a casual basis: 33 per cent and 11 per cent respectively (Halasz, Santiago, Ekholm, Matthews, & McKenzie, 2004). The public perception extends to the attraction of school holidays and child-friendly working hours (around 9 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. in Australia); they can all add up to create the impression of a family-friendly career. Watt and Richardson (2007) used the Australian colloquialism of “bludging” to describe the public perception of teaching. This relates to individuals “adopting the laziest approach” and, with regard to teaching, “bludging could be based on people’s perceptions about the length of the teacher’s working day, as well as school holidays” (Watt & Richardson, 2007, p. 173). However, the perceived teaching hours of 9 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. Monday to Friday are in reality extended well beyond that and may include evening, weekend and holiday work for some teachers. Indeed, teachers’ workload and responsibilities may become unmanageable (Abbott-Chapman, 2006; Bartlett, 2004; Buchanan, 2010). In fact, highlighting this issue, Richardson and Watt (2010) called for an unambiguous separation of life at school and leisure time, with the importance of “emotional distancing, recovery and regeneration” (p. 164) to keep burnout and early career attrition at bay.

Therefore, contrary to public perception, teaching hours may become noticeably family-unfriendly. Moreover, those who entered teaching with the belief that it
provided time for family were less likely to be pleased with their career selection (Richardson & Watt, 2010; Watt & Richardson, 2007).

The notion of teaching as a family-friendly career was examined in Richardson and Watt’s (2005) earlier study. They investigated the reasons for graduates to choose a teaching career in a 12-month pre-service teacher training course at an Australian university, situated in Melbourne (n = 74). Using closed-ended rating scale items and open-ended questions, the study showed that quality of family life emerged as a small but important cluster (n = 12) consisting of nine females and three males. Individuals from this cluster scored particularly low on financial reward factors and social status but high on time for family. Moreover, this cluster was made up of exclusively ‘career change' teachers, typically mature aged individuals who held down professional jobs prior to making a career switch into teaching. Williams and Forgasz (2009) studied the motivations of career change students in teacher education, using large-scale online surveys (n = 375). The study showed that the decision to switch careers into teaching with the motivation to work with family-friendly hours was well supported. Thus Williams and Forgasz’s study (2006) adds weight to the earlier findings of Richardson and Watt (2005) of candidates choosing to enter into teaching because of the perception that it is a family-friendly line of work.

**Trends in Teacher Aptitude**

It is widely argued that effective or high quality teachers are the most important assets of schools and for student achievement (Palardy & Rumberger, 2008; Rivkin et al., 2005; Rockoff, 2004). However, it has been reported that the most talented individuals did not enter the teaching profession (Murnane et al., 1991). Furthermore, it is troubling that teacher aptitude seems to have declined in a number of countries over a number of decades; for instance, in the United States (Bacolod, 2007; Hoxby & Leigh, 2004) and as well as in Australia (Leigh & Ryan, 2006, 2008; Stokes & Wright, 2007).

A popular explanation of this is provided by Temin (2002), who argued that a notable gender desegregation of the labour market has occurred since 1960. As a result,
schools could not rely on a ready-made supply of university educated women because new career opportunities had opened up for them, “with the best and brightest believed to be least likely to enter teaching” (Corcoran, Evans, & Schwab, 2004b, p. 450). While teaching still attracts large numbers of women into the profession, it is argued that it has become less of a career path particularly with highly talented women (Corcoran, Evans, & Schwab, 2004a). Bacolod (2007) argued that as alternative labour opportunities improved for women, fewer chose to teach and those who did teach were inclined to be less academically accomplished.

Corcoran, Evans and Schwab (2004b) in their comprehensive study, using five longitudinal surveys of high school students spanning more than four decades, showed that in the United States during the 1960s, 49 per cent of female university graduates were teachers. By the 1990s, female university graduates were more likely to be in management (14 per cent) or clerical/administrative occupations (17 per cent) than in teaching (12 per cent).

The assertion about declining teaching aptitude may be explained in Roy’s (1951) model of occupational choice. This model predicts that individuals will choose an occupation that provides the highest payoff or return on their skills. Leigh and Ryan’s (2008) Australian study used panel surveys that tested individuals’ literacy and numeracy in high school and then tracked them to follow which line of work they chose. They were able to approximate how the academic aptitude of those entering the teaching workforce has altered over time. This study found that rising pay dispersion or distribution in non-teaching professions probably had disproportionately attracted high ability female university graduates away from teaching and into other lines of work, leaving a “substantial” (p. 14) difference between the most and less able teachers. On the other hand, empirical studies from the USA, such as Hanushek, Kain and Rivkin (1999), downplayed the strength of the relationship between teachers’ pay and teacher quality.

The Victorian Tertiary Admissions Centre (VTAC) once used the Equivalent National Tertiary Entrance Rank (ENTER) scores for successful secondary students wishing to be selected for university courses (VTAC, 2004). Between 1983 and 2003, the
average percentile ENTER score of individuals enrolling in teacher education fell from 74 to 61 (Leigh & Ryan, 2008). There are two main reasons that account for a large extent of the decline: a fall in average teacher pay compared to other lines of work; and a rise in pay discrepancies in non-teaching professions (Leigh & Ryan, 2008). A limitation of this study and other similar studies (Corcoran et al., 2004a, 2004b; Hoxby & Leigh, 2004) is the use of a narrow standard of measurement in the examination of teacher aptitude, namely, numeracy and literacy test scores.

Ideally, when attempting to measure teacher aptitude, a broad metric that captures the ability of teachers to raise student performance would be warranted. Areas that would be considered important might include interest in children/young adults, a passion for teaching subject area or areas, interpersonal and intra-personal skills and communication competency. Therefore it is imperative that a competent teacher works well with students, parents, colleagues and school principals. However, such a measure of teacher aptitude over a long period of time would needless to say be difficult to construct and implement.

Motivation to Enter Teaching

Researchers, policy makers and educational leaders have been troubled for a while about non-retirement-related reasons for teachers departing early from their profession (Buchanan, 2009; Farber, 2010; Guarino et al., 2006).

Some reasons such as burnout, job dissatisfaction, the lack of a right job match, teachers’ salary and teachers' belief of their low status in society (Hansen, Lien, Cavalluzzo, & Wenger, 2004; Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2002; Liu & Johnson, 2006; Noble & Macfarlane, 2005; O’ Brien, Goddard, & Keeffe, 2008; Rice, 2005) have been put forward for possible reasons why teachers may become disenchanted in their careers. To focus on what motivates candidates to become and remain teachers may be more useful because:

There is little that teachers or policy makers can do about salary structure or status of teaching in the short term. What is possible, however, is identifying other incentives (or motivations) that may attract people to teaching and
retain them once they are there. (Sinclair, Dowson, & McInerney, 2006, p. 1133)

Furthermore, understanding a candidate’s motivation to enter and continue in the teaching profession is important because it has implications for teacher recruitment and retention. Rots, Aelterman, Vlerick and Vermeulen’s (2007) Netherlands study into beginning teachers’ commitment went as far as stating that, “the roots of teacher attrition can be found in initial teacher commitment and the quality of early teaching experiences” (p. 544). On the other hand, second-stage teachers (those with four to 10 years of teaching experience) are also at risk of leaving the profession. It appears that the attrition rates for teachers in the US, for example, with four to nine years of practice are almost as high as beginning teachers (Marvel et al., 2007). This tells us that attrition is not merely limited to beginning teachers.

This section will next examine the types of motivations that draw people into the teaching profession: a discussion of intrinsic and extrinsic, adaptive and maladaptive motivations will take place. The discussion will then focus attention on a study of factors influencing teacher choice, followed by the identification of beginning teacher types, including career change entrants, within the context of the transitory nature of a ‘career’.

Sinclair et al. (2006) contend that it is not only imperative to draw candidates to and retain them in the teaching vocation, “but also to attract the ‘right’ candidates to teaching” (p. 1133). They describe the “right candidates” as those who can “engage deeply” during their pre-service course and “their subsequent professional lives” and warn that “not all pre-service teachers engage in their teacher education courses in the manner described above” (p. 1133). However, it appears that highly committed altruistic teachers do not necessarily remain and thrive in all school environments. Such teachers have a tendency to commit to high levels of responsibility, are characterised by being overworked and are inevitably candidates for burnout (Kieschke & Schaarschmidt, 2008). Therefore, these highly motivated and altruistic teachers may be the “right candidates” (Sinclair, 2008, p. 1133) for teaching but may not remain in the profession for a substantial amount of time.
Motivational psychology research suggests that there are varying levels of pre-service teacher commitment displayed in their teacher education courses and that this is related to their motivational constructs (Pintrich, 1990). Indeed, research by Watt and Richardson (2007) bears this out in their use of teaching as a “fall back career”; the usefulness of this term was to identify those participants who are “not so much choosing teaching, but rather defaulting into it” (p. 175). The reasoning behind the use of the term “fall back career” was to identify candidates who chose to enter a university-based teaching program for reasons that they did not gain an entry in their desired course or that they were uncertain in which career direction they may head into.

Altruistic, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations have been emphasised as the chief reasons for individuals deciding to enter the teaching profession (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992). In seeking to understand the motivations for individuals who enter the teaching profession, Richardson and Watt (2010) emphasise that different sociocultural contexts “shape teaching motivations” (p. 141). For instance, intrinsic reasons were more important in the Netherlands, France, Australia and the UK. These countries confirmed that the most often given reason for choosing to enter teaching was a desire to work with young people, to make a social contribution and potential for intellectual satisfaction (OECD, 2005). Research from dissimilar sociocultural contexts like Zimbabwe (Chivore, 1988) and the Caribbean (Brown, 1992) discovered that extrinsic motivations such as job security, career prestige and salary were important drivers in choosing to enter the teaching profession. The concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations will be tackled later in the chapter.

Further studies into the motivations for the selection of a teaching career, grounded in expectancy-value theory, have been identified (Richardson & Watt, 2006; Watt & Richardson, 2007). According to the expectancy-value theory of achievement, a person’s motivation for a goal is determined by how much they value the goal and whether they expect to succeed in reaching it (Wigfield, 1994). The expectancy value theory investigates the connections between career choice and the individual’s expectations of success; self-efficacy (beliefs in ability); and the subjective value of
the profession. For example, “thinking you can teach, being told you can teach and early positive experiences in teacher education and teaching are seen as powerful motivational forces in deciding to teach” (Ewing & Manuel, 2005, p. 11) as well as maintaining that choice. Similarly, Johnson and Birkeland’s (2003) longitudinal interview study of 50 beginning teachers in Massachusetts found that their prior career experience and teacher training related to their decision to discontinue or remain in their profession.

It is important to note that candidates’ motivation or engagement in both the pre-service and in-service levels of teaching do not remain static. In fact their motivation is likely to vary across time. Sinclair et al. (2006) have introduced the term “motivational flexibility” (p. 1135) to describe these shifts in motivation. To illustrate, when a pre-service teacher’s motivation shifts from perceptions that teaching is an easy line of work and in the direction of to engage with students, then his or her continuation in the teaching profession may be improved (Sinclair et al., 2006). On the other hand, a pre-service teacher who cannot alter this motivation away from teaching as being an easy job, “may be likely to drop out in the face of persistent reminders to the contrary” (Sinclair et al., 2006, p. 1135). Therefore motivational flexibility may be linked to retention of teachers as claimed by Sinclair and associates (2006).

In addition, Sinclair et al. (2006) hypothesised on the quality of motivation with regard to pre-service teachers remaining in their profession: adaptive and maladaptive motivations were identified. Adaptive motivations are those that make possible “a lasting engagement in a task or activity”; while maladaptive motivations are those that promote “disengagement” (p. 1138) or surface level commitment to a task or a goal. To illustrate, curiosity and intellectual stimulation would be likely to inspire a person to persevere in an activity. For example, a teacher investigates the causes for his or her students being disruptive in class and then modifies his or her beliefs about them after examining their backgrounds and consequently implements a different teaching approach which proves to be effective. Conversely, maladaptive motivations are those that promote disconnection from an activity or task. To illustrate, a teacher remains in his or her profession solely for the school holidays
and demands that his or her disruptive students must behave in a predetermined orderly manner all of the time and subsequently becomes more authoritarian in his or her teaching approach, while blaming the students for not being able to teach effectively and at the same time not modifying his or her teaching approach.

Sinclair and associates' (2006) study also framed motivations to teach in two categories – either internal or external (intrinsic or extrinsic motivations). For example, performing a task solely for financial rewards may be taken to mean an externally orientated motivation, since money is a variable external to the person. Likewise, completing a task because others think it is worthy represents another externally referenced motivation since the drive for the activity is located outside of the person. On the other hand, internally referenced motivations are those “in which the impetus to initiate, persist, and engage deeply in the task or activity primarily is attributed to the beliefs, values, and perceptions of the individual” (Sinclair et al., 2006, p. 1138). For example, an internal frame of reference for entering the teaching profession may be that it is intellectually stimulating as well as the desire to have a worthwhile input with children resulting in their growth and development. The importance of an internal frame of reference or intrinsic motivation for entering teaching was emphasised by Bruinsma and Ellen’s Netherlands study (2010). One of their findings pointed out that “pre-service teachers with higher intrinsic motivation expected to stay in the teaching profession for longer periods” (Bruinsma & Ellen, 2010, p. 199).

In summary, Sinclair and associates’ (2006) study developed the Modified Orientation to Teach Survey (MOTS). This instrument was designed to determine Australian pre-service teachers’ motivation to enter the teaching profession. MOTS found four strong, adaptive and internally framed motivations: “working with children, worth of teaching, intellectual stimulation, and helping others” (Sinclair et al., 2006, p. 1149). Conversely, the study found that “ease of entry to the occupation and dissatisfaction with previous employment were not strong motivators” (p. 1150). These motivations are typically maladaptive and externally framed. One limitation on
their investigation, and Sinclair et al. (2006) do acknowledge this, is that the somewhat small sample size (n = 84) may limit generalisability of their findings.

The use of the terms intrinsic, extrinsic and altruistic motivations to explain why pre-service teachers may enter and remain in the teaching profession has been of concern for Watt and Richardson (2007). They contend that researchers have used survey instruments with little regard to validity and reliability. Furthermore, “the absence of an agreed upon analytical framework has meant that researches have not always concurred on what constitutes intrinsic, altruistic, extrinsic, or various other motivations that are examined by individual researchers” (Watt & Richardson, 2007, p.168). Criticisms also extend to the scarcity of longitudinal studies on teachers’ career pathways; the limitations of single one-off time-point studies; and the lack of recognition in importance given for the right ‘job match’ with the school culture (Watt & Richardson, 2011). In light of these limitations, Watt and Richardson (2007) have developed the factors influencing teacher choice (FIT-Choice) scale.

The FIT-Choice scale provides “an integrative theoretical model” (p. 170) to steer investigations into reasons why people enter the teaching profession, which has been confirmed to be to be psychometrically reliable (Richardson & Watt, 2010; Watt & Richardson, 2007). The FIT-Choice scale was developed from combining themes in general choice theory research and framed within the expectancy-value theory of achievement. They validated their scale using two large cohorts (n = 488; 652) and illustrated the elements teacher education candidates acknowledged as the most important reason for them to teach. The highest rated influences on the choice of a teaching career were “perceived teaching ability, intrinsic career value, shape future of children/adolescents, make social contribution, work with children/adolescents and prior teaching and learning experiences” (Watt & Richardson, 2007, p. 190). The item of “planned persistence” was shown to be significantly correlated with beginning teachers’ motivation to enter the profession with a range of other factors. These factors included: ability beliefs, intrinsic value, social utility values (a desire to make a social contribution) and positive prior teaching and learning motivations.
The results also highlighted that choosing teaching as a ‘fallback’ career (or defaulting into teaching) correlated negatively. That is, this item was rated very low as a drive to enter teaching. It seems that teaching on the whole is a career of choice and not something people default into. Other findings demonstrated that people who chose a vocation in teaching for the reasons of job security or job transferability were later both less probable to plan to persist, and subsequently less likely to be content with their career selection (Richardson & Watt, 2010; Watt & Richardson, 2007).

At present, the interest in the FIT-Choice project has rapidly developed to include numerous other participating countries other than Australia. The range of participating countries includes the US, UK, China, Turkey, Germany, India and Kenya (Watt & Richardson, 2011) to name a few. This will provide interesting cross-cultural comparisons of beginning teachers and their motivations throughout the world. It is important to note that the FIT-Choice project has developed to include the following aims:

1. Illuminate those support structures that sustain teachers and allow them to thrive;
2. Provide clear indications of how and why teachers become disengaged or lose commitment to their work; and
3. Map the factors that predict job burnout versus psychological and physiological wellbeing. (Watt & Richardson, 2011, p. 28)

Building on the FIT-Choice scale, Watt and Richardson (2008) were the first to apply the typological approach to the research on beginning teachers’ professional commitment and career development desires. Using primary and secondary teacher education candidates (n = 510) from three Australian universities in a continuing empirical longitudinal study, they found that three different teacher types existed. These beginning teacher types were recognised as “highly engaged persisters”, “highly engaged switchers” and “lower engaged desisters”. The majority of the “highly engaged persisters” were characterised by their intention to teach for their entire careers and reported an attraction to teaching “due to its intrinsic rewards” and also articulated a “strong enthusiasm for working with children and adolescents” also that they “supported family life” (Watt & Richardson, 2008, p. 423). The support for a
family life adds weight to their earlier studies (Richardson & Watt, 2005; Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Meanwhile, the “highly engaged switchers” expressed a desire for “variety” and “diversity” in a career forecast to likely be outside of teaching, despite “their similarly highly planned effort, professional development, and leadership aspirations, to the highly engaged persisters cluster” (Watt & Richardson, 2008, p. 418). Lastly, the “lower engaged desisters” were distinct from both the other types of beginning teachers. This typology was characterised by their estrangement from their choice of a teaching career, originating from their negative experiences of their teacher training course. In addition, they were the “least likely to plan to persist” and presented numerous reasons why “they were not planning a long-term career in the teaching profession”, such as “too much work preparation”, “bad practicum experiences” and “Children don’t value education” (Watt & Richardson, 2008, p. 418). In view of their findings, Watt and Richardson (2008) called for recognition by schools and training institutions that different beginning teachers will have varying levels of engagement and career pathways. Furthermore, the belief that teaching candidates “will hold a traditional lifetime career model of job security founded on incremental age-related advancement and loyalty to the profession” (Watt & Richardson, 2008, p. 426) needs to be questioned; particularly in relation to the rise of part-time, casual and temporary employment practices in the teaching workforce (Forward, 2005; Percy & Beaumont, 2008; Standing, 2008) and of many other professions such as nursing (Batch et al., 2009). This rise of casual labour is within the framework of a wider global trend, which began in the early 1990s in Australia and marked the deregulation of the employment and labour market (Pusey, 2003). This global trend has fundamentally altered the fabric of our society in terms of job security and, consequently, the way we govern our lives (Buchler et al., 2009; Campbell, 2004; Nele De et al., 2008).

To conclude, regarding the studies of motivation in relation to prospective teachers’ commitment, it is worth considering whether the findings of Sinclair et al. (2006) are compatible with those of Watt and Richardson (2008). It would be interesting to
speculate if the use of the term “motivational flexibility” (Sinclair et al., 2006, p. 1135) to describe shifts in pre-service teacher commitment to teaching can be applied to Watt and Richardson’s (2008) continuous study into their beginning teacher typology. It is worth further considering whether a “highly engaged persister” can change into a “highly engaged switcher” or a “lower engaged desister” over time or vice versa. Following from that, it is also worth considering whether shifts in motivation are only in one direction – down, for example. Sinclair, Dowson and McInerney (2006) suggest that this may be the case: motivations of pre-service teachers typically move “in the negative direction” (p. 1150). Ultimately, it remains an open matter as to which motivational profiles and typologies will enduringly produce the most psychologically healthy teachers and those who can be retained as effective teachers within different school contexts (Richardson & Watt, 2010). The point about school contexts needs emphasising: “no two schools and no two teaching positions are the same” (Liu & Johnson, 2006, p. 325). Teacher effectiveness and hence their motivation may vary across school contexts: a teacher may be successful in one school but may not be as successful in another school. Proficient teachers are unlikely to flourish in “settings that do not provide appropriate support or sufficient challenge or reward” (OECD, 2005, p. 9). In addition, there is a need for further research to address how different places of work may stifle or thrive teachers’ motivations, because research into teachers’ motivations has tended to focus more on psychological variables and “less on social/contextual support and barrier systems” (Richardson & Watt, 2010, p. 167).

**Career Change Teachers and Their Motivations**

To begin with, it is worth contemplating why a person would give up their former line of work to become a teacher. Anthony and Ord’s (2008) New Zealand study (n = 68) on “change-of-career” (p. 359) teachers revealed that the decision to switch careers into teaching was “multifaceted, complex, at times emotionally charged, and contradictory” (p. 364). At the same time, it seems that people who switch careers into teaching are not greatly motivated by salary or prestige (Crow, Levine, & Nager, 1990; Priyadharshini & Robinson-Pant, 2003; Richardson & Watt, 2005). To illustrate, Crow’s (1990) interdisciplinary team conducted an ethnographic study of career switchers into teaching. They found that the incongruity of changing careers
from the business world and into teaching is “an implausible choice” with “the low earning power and status of teaching” acting as a deterrent for many people (Crow et al., 1990, p. 197). It seems that career change teachers more often than not are motivated by intrinsic and altruistic reasons (Anthony & Ord, 2008; Williams & Forgasz, 2009). Although pragmatic reasons may also influence their choices to become teachers, as mentioned previously, the perception of time for family was an important consideration for career change teachers (Richardson & Watt, 2005). Furthermore, Richardson and Watt (2006) emphasised the importance of a “multiplicity of factors that together impact the decision to enter teaching as a career”; not just desiring “working with children and making a social contribution” (p. 52).

It is worth bearing in mind the reasons why schools and education authorities target career change entrants for recruitment into teaching. Career change entrants to teaching are becoming an important cohort due to their attraction to the profession and of their increasing demand by schools. To illustrate, Marinell (2009) reminds us that in the US career change entrants among “first-year teachers nearly doubled – from 20% to 39% – between 1987–88 and 2003–04” (p. 3). The increase in numbers of career change entrants into teaching reflects calls to broaden supply from traditional pathways of secondary school entrants and quality concerns in the teaching profession (Education and Training Committee, 2005; OECD, 2005; Ramsey, 2000). Furthermore, in the US, to prevent a staffing crisis in public schools, policy makers have called upon career change entrants as a source of teacher supply, particularly in mathematics and science education (American Competitiveness Initiative, 2006; National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future, 2007).

The perceived advantages of career change teachers are that they expand the skills and knowledge base of the existing pool of teachers, and provide a would-be pay off by students being exposed to a wider base of society embodied in the professions they come from (Williams & Forgasz, 2009). This is particularly evident in the state of New Jersey, where career change teachers have been lauded for their interest in
working with disadvantaged students in urban schools (Natriello & Zumwalt, 1993). One can also say that, if the most academically talented individuals do not enter the teaching profession (Murnane et al., 1991), then acquiring them later as career change entrants would perhaps improve the quality of the teaching workforce, which in turn may improve student outcomes (Marinell, 2009).

However, there is the problem of defining who career change teachers actually are. The importance of a general agreement on who classifies as a career change teacher has ramifications for validity and reliability in education research, which in turn has implications for policy makers in attracting and retaining teachers into the profession. To illustrate, some studies such as Priyadharshini and Robinson-Plant (2003) purposely provide a wide definition, by including anyone who believes that they began teaching later in life. Similarly, Anthony and Ord’s (2008) New Zealand study uses a broad categorisation to include “women who had interrupted their previous work to have children, those returning from overseas work and travel experiences and ‘late starters’ – those people who returned to university to finish degrees that had been interrupted by work experiences” (p. 362). On the other hand, Serow and Forrest (1994) used a much narrower classification to select career change teachers, that is, participants in their study had to be 25 years of age or older and they “must have had at least 6 months of full time work experience, aside from temporary summer employment” (p. 557). Likewise, Williams and Forgasz (2009) use a tight but comprehensive definition in their large online survey study: “a student who has worked for at least three years in a career other than teaching, including full or part time, paid or unpaid work, and/or parenting, prior to enrolling in their current teacher education course” (p. 97). Marinell (2009) goes one step further by limiting career change participants in his quantitative study to those over 27-years-old, thus excluding those who shifted into teaching “after having worked in another field for fewer than five years” (p. 9).

In summary, the array of definitions on who qualifies as a career change teacher by researchers is perhaps a reflection on the present transitory nature of a ‘career’. Consequently, young people have a different concept of a career trajectory and
employment security in contrast to proceeding generations, for whom selecting a lifetime line of work was the standard practice (Mayer, 2006; Peske, Liu, Johnson, Kauffman, & Kardos, 2001). Moreover, the generation of teachers born in the 1980s, the so called ‘Generation Y’, is identified as those who want to “seek new challenges and fast promotions, and expect high levels of job satisfaction” (Manuel & Hughes, 2006, p. 12). One can also say that career change teachers do also seek these conditions in their new employment contexts. As Anthony and Ord (2008) aptly put it, career change teachers also “present a challenge to the outdated notion of ‘living to work’ in favour of ‘working to live’” (p. 374), confirming the findings of Richardson and Watt’s (2006) study that career change teachers expect that their new workplace will offer “opportunity to balance career with quality of life” (p. 52).

Following from that, it is worth considering what the needs of career change teachers are for their longevity in schools. At the outset, it is the recognition by school administrators that these teachers offer their new school a range of valuable transportable skills acquired from their previous line of work (Anthony & Ord, 2008; Priyadharshini & Robinson-Pant, 2003; Williams & Forgasz, 2009). However, individuals who entered teaching for reasons of “job transferability” were “less likely to plan to persist and less likely to be satisfied with their career choice” (Richardson & Watt, 2010, p. 152).

Finally, it appears that those schools which provide an “integrated professional culture” (Kardos & Johnson, 2007, p. 2085) do best in retaining such teachers. An “integrated professional culture” includes the promotion of regular and mutual contact between all members of the staff; the appreciation of the needs of new teachers; and developed collective responsibility of teachers for their pupils and their school (Kardos & Johnson, 2007).

**Occupational Embeddedness**

The main characteristics of individuals who enter teaching have been discussed. It is now worthwhile to consider the characteristics of individuals who remain in teaching. The choice to continue teaching shares the same driving principles that lead
individuals to enter the teaching profession: the belief that from all the alternative activities “teaching remains the most attractive in terms of compensation, working conditions, and intrinsic rewards” (Guarino et al., 2006, p. 184). However, changing occupations altogether may not be so easy for some individuals; the costs of leaving a job may be high. In fact, changing an occupation can be more difficult than switching jobs within an organisation or the same profession (Blau, 1993).

Furthermore, in Cooper and Mackenzie Davey’s (2011) case study of nine female teachers’ career decision-making processes, the dilemma to stay or leave the profession was constantly referred to and modified throughout their careers. This resonates with the findings of Anthony and Ord’s (2008) study in that switching careers was “complex, at times emotionally charged, and contradictory” (p. 364). Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski and Erez (2001), in their research into why people become entrenched in their employment, describe job embeddedness as similar to a “net or a web in which an individual can become stuck” (p. 1104). Later, Ng and Feldman (2007) created the theory of occupational embeddedness and describe this as the “totality of forces that keep people in their current occupations”; they describe “forces” (p. 338) to include fit, links and sacrifice.

Fit is the degree to which a person’s abilities matches the organisation’s requirements – the closer the perceived fit the more embedded the individual will be in his/her organisation (Ng & Feldman, 2007). In the teaching profession, for example, a strong occupational fit might be achieved if a teacher’s interest in working with disadvantaged children is fulfilled with positive changes in his/her students’ development. In fact, job seekers have a tendency to choose work environments closely aligned to their own “personality” (Cable & Judge, 1996, p. 294). That is, job seekers have a preference for organisations which reflect their personal values (Cable & Judge, 1994; Chatman, 1991; Judge & Bretz, 1992). Links refer to the quality and quantity of relationships the individual may develop within the organisation; strong links may encourage embeddedness (H. Cooper & Mackenzie Davey, 2011). Sacrifice refers to the entirety of losses which an individual would sustain by leaving the organisation or profession; for a teacher, this could be
holidays, income, and accrued sick leave for instance (H. Cooper & Mackenzie Davey, 2011). Therefore, the larger the perceived sacrifice in leaving, the more embedded the individual will be in the organisation or occupation (Ng & Feldman, 2007).

Ng and Feldman (2007) stress that embeddedness is not necessarily a harmful and rare career experience. In fact, the achievement of a good individual–organisation fit and the establishment of healthy collegial ties, the growth of personal benefits and salary are desirable for most people (Cable & Judge, 1996; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). However, high levels of embeddedness may also indicate a “lower likelihood of discovering and taking advantage of other career opportunities” (p. 338). Therefore, the individual may become stuck in a net or a web (Mitchell et al., 2001).

In summary, occupational embeddedness is to some extent contrary to the point of view that the decision to remain in teaching is driven by the same motivations that lead people to enter the profession: the notion, for someone to remain in teaching, that it has to be “the most attractive in terms of compensation, working conditions, and intrinsic rewards” (Guarino et al., 2006, p. 184). There are real barriers for some individuals in leaving occupations: in particular, untangling the emotional ties that bind people in complex social and professional relationships; the sacrifice of foregoing accrued benefits and conditions; and the job itself, which may reflect the personal values of the individual, who has to decide whether to stay or leave. Finally, Kidd (2004) has called for an improved consideration of the role emotions play in career trajectories; this may help to explain why in a demanding career like teaching, some people may become embedded for the long-term.

**Teacher Recruitment Processes & Teachers’ Career Choices**

This section will show the importance of job choice theory in the recruitment processes of beginning teachers. It will also explain the underlying reasoning beginning teachers may have in their career decision to enter the teaching profession.
According to Winter, Ronau and Munoz (2004), teacher recruitment should suitably be viewed as a two-way process in which schools and prospective teachers exchange information and evaluate each other. The school or education department has to decide whether to offer a job and the prospective teacher has to decide whether to accept the job if it is offered; this in essence is a search for a suitable match, for “no two schools and no two teaching positions are the same” (Liu & Johnson, 2006, p. 325). Therefore the right match is essential for the teacher and the school. Appropriate matches between teachers and their employment are important for teacher effectiveness and their longevity; if the job match does not fit, teachers may choose to leave after a brief time (Liu & Johnson, 2006).

Studies on teachers’ career decisions are associated with job choice theory, pioneered by Behling, Labovitz and Gainer (1968) as a first step in the development of a body of theory that would explain “position choice behaviour among college graduates” (p. 14). Position choice behaviour later was expressed in the education context by Young, Rinehart and Place (1989) as job choice theory which outlines three separate concepts that guide job seekers’ behaviour: (1) objective factor theories, (2) subjective factor theories and (3) critical contact theories (Behling et al., 1968).

Behling et al. (1968) proposed that objective factors are the measurable characteristics of employment: benefits, pay, location, the nature of work itself and opportunity for advancement. Objective factor theory holds the view that every potential employee weighs these factors and uses them “as a basis for structuring the firm’s offer of employment” (p. 15). Albeit each teacher having their own unique scale of desirability, predictable patterns are evident between objective factors and teachers’ choices (Maier & Youngs, 2009). For example, studies have shown that teachers prefer to teach classes that are smaller in size (Loeb et al., 2005). Also, prospective teachers are more likely to choose teaching as a career when starting salaries are high relative to other occupations (Loeb & Beteille, 2008).
In contrast, subjective factor theory maintains that candidates make decisions primarily on the promise that the job meets their emotional and psychological needs (Behling et al., 1968). Significance is placed on non-pecuniary characteristics of the work environment and “job choice is viewed as psychological search process” (Young et al., 1989, p. 330). Therefore, such candidates are motivated by the organisation providing “satisfaction for a deep-seated and often unrecognized emotional need” (Behling et al., 1968, p. 15-16). Finally, as described by Pounder and Merrill (2001):

The critical contact theory proposes that the candidate is incapable of differentiating between firms on the basis of objective or subjective criteria because (a) the depth of contact with the firm is too limited, (b) recruiting firms tend to blur the differences between competing organizations, and (c) the candidate lacks experience to evaluate the information provided by the firm. (p. 32)

Hence, as a consequence, these job seekers use a less cognitively demanding criteria such as “the appearance and behaviour of the recruiter, the nature of the physical facilities, and the efficiency of processing the paperwork associated with his application” (Behling et al., 1968, p. 17).

A number of experimental studies by I. Phillip Young and his collaborators (1989) have indicated more support for subjective factor theory and critical contact theory than objective factor theory. Their findings suggest that recruitment communications which emphasised the work environment and the work itself were more attractive than those that stressed monetary benefits. The following passage highlights their conclusion:

Reactions of teachers were more positive when the job opportunity was portrayed as stressing committee involvement, shared decision-making between administrators and teachers, and opportunities for interactions among teachers outside of the classroom setting. (Young et al., 1989, p. 334)

Critical contact theory was supported by Young and his colleagues when they found that teachers were likely to regard a job vacancy as desirable when the interviewer for the position conveyed warmth (Young & Heneman, 1986). The three theories of
job choice (critical contact, subjective and objective) each have intrinsic weaknesses and strengths. Pounder and Merrill (2001) have advocated that no theory is likely to completely explain the job decision made by an applicant. Instead, job seeking candidates will likely to be influenced to a varying degree by elements of each theory (Behling et al., 1968).

Winter et al. (2004), in a questionnaire of 152 beginning teachers in a large urban school district of the United States, indicated a positive relationship between the attributes of the recruiting process itself and teachers' perception of a job vacancy’s desirability. The recruiting process included aspects such as ease of application and length of process. A high score on the recruiting process scale was associated with a high rating of the attractiveness of the teaching vacancy (Liu & Johnson, 2006).

With respect to the quality of teacher recruiting processes, Liu and Johnson (2006) introduced the terms information-rich and information-poor. One type of experience involved teachers being recruited summarily after a sole interview with the school principal together with the candidate who was provided with little information about the school and job itself. Liu and Johnson (2006) referred to this type of recruiting as information poor because both candidate and principal had few opportunities to exchange information about one another. Many beginning teachers who reported experiencing information-poor recruiting processes also turned out “to have accepted positions that were not a great match for them” (p. 331). This has negative ramifications for the beginning teachers’ longevity at the school. On the other hand, those beginning teachers who experienced a more elaborate hiring process, such as meeting with the school selection panel, other teachers and parents, and having the school principal observe the candidates’ teaching practice, experienced an information-rich recruiting process. These teachers felt they entered the new position knowing what to expect and felt happier, “with multiple opportunities and vehicles to exchange information with one another” (p. 332). Liu and Johnson (2006) hypothesised that information-rich hiring processes may be more effective at creating good matches between prospective teachers and schools than information-poor processes. However, they provided a caveat: “Although rich information
exchange certainly does not guarantee wise decisions or good matches, it is, at least, a prerequisite for an informed decision” (p. 332).

Part Two of Literature Review
This is the second and final part of the literature review. The major topics that will be covered are: induction of beginning teachers into schools; mentoring; and finally, performance and development culture. In this section, the topics that will be covered are: the theory behind the need for induction programs; definitions of induction; the relationship between induction and student achievement as well as the retention of beginning teachers.

**Induction of Beginning Teachers into Schools**
The premise behind the need for induction of beginning teachers into schools is that teaching is complex and often challenging work (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Kyriacou & Kune, 2007; McCormack & Thomas, 2003). Furthermore, pre-service teacher preparation is hardly ever considered adequate enough to offer all the skills and knowledge to be successful at the job and, relatedly, some believe that learning to become a teacher is only attained while in the practice of teaching (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Ganser, 2002). Hence, the induction process is intended “to pick up where pre-service training is left off” (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2011, p. 189). Additionally, the induction process is considered by Ingersoll and Strong (2011) as a “bridge from student of teaching to teacher of students” (p. 203).

It is interesting to consider what teacher induction may exactly refer to. Lynn (2002) describes induction as a “stage” in the initial years of a teaching career cycle; a period which new teachers go through on their road to becoming a part of the “professional and social fabric of the school community” (p. 180). However, the induction stage is not exclusively for new or beginning teachers into a school. Teachers may also experience the induction phase when teaching a new grade level of students, an unfamiliar subject area, another campus of the school, or having new areas of responsibilities, such as a year level coordinator role (Lynn, 2002). Wong (2004) defines induction as a process designed to “train, support, and retain new teachers” (p. 107). Ingersoll and Strong (2011) expand on Wong’s definition when
they speak of induction as an assortment of diverse activities for new teachers: “orientation sessions, faculty collaborative periods, meetings with supervisors, developmental workshops, extra classroom assistance, reduced workloads, and, especially, mentoring” (p. 203). The goal of these support packages is to not only improve the retention, but performance of beginning teachers and in turn improve student learning and growth (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011).

Following from these definitions of induction, it is now interesting to ponder whether receiving such support and guidance has any positive effect on teachers and their students. Research to do with induction of new teachers and student achievement is not in abundance, partly because the teacher is the focus of attention and not the student. However, Fletcher, Strong and Villar (2008) provide some light into this area. Their project studied how differences in new teacher induction programs are associated with variations in student achievement. Focusing on three school districts in California, with a total of 99 teachers and 2421 students, they found teachers in the more intensive induction programs facilitated greater gains in student achievement. The study defined “intensive induction” as those programs which used “mentors, the selectivity of mentors, professional development for mentors, and the likelihood of contact between mentor and beginning teacher” (Stephen Fletcher et al., 2008, p. 2286). Accordingly, it seems that quality of mentors and the quality of relationships they develop with their beginning teachers play a pivotal role in student achievement. However, more research needs to be conducted in this area of student achievement and beginning teacher induction in order to make assertions with confidence. There is a lot more research, however, on beginning teacher retention and induction.

Ingersoll’s (2012) widespread empirical US study of public school teachers, from the 2007 to 2008 school year, found a direct relationship between beginning teachers’ involvement in induction programs and their retention. However, they also discovered that the strength of that relationship varied on the nature and quantities of supports that beginning teachers received. Taking part in some types of support activities in the first year of a teaching career was found to be more effective at
retaining beginning teachers than others. The activity with the strongest influence was having a mentor from one's subject area and having joint planning time with other colleagues in a shared teaching area. The research also discovered that having multiple support activities, such as professional development workshops, face-to-face meetings with school administrators, assistance provided by teacher aides and so forth, increased the likelihood of beginning teacher retention compared to having fewer types of support. Therefore, it is clear that the more comprehensive the induction program the better the retention was. However, noteworthy was that only a small percentage of beginning teachers received such a wide-ranging program.

Similarly, another empirical study (Kapadia, Coca, & Easton, 2007) assessed the induction programs in Chicago public schools of the US. It examined data from 1737 beginning teachers, who were mostly in their first or second years of teaching. One of the findings from the study was that beginning teachers who intended to remain in their schools were more often in induction programs compared to those who intended to leave. Furthermore, the more intensive the induction package, the greater the intention of beginning teachers to remain in teaching.

In the Australian context, the latest Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), commissioned by the Australian Government Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR), discovered that the two most common forms of assistance provided to beginning secondary teachers were “an orientation program designed for new teachers (83.6%)”, and “a designated mentor (77.0%)” (McKenzie, Rowely, Weldon, & Murphy, 2011, p. 79). Both were rated as either helpful or very helpful by two-thirds of the beginning teachers. The least helpful induction assistance was a follow-up from teacher education institutions to beginning teachers. However, this study defined beginning teachers or “early career teachers” as those who have been “teaching for 5 years or less” (McKenzie et al., 2011, p. xvii), which is more broad than Ingersoll’s (2012) and Kapadia’s (2007) separate studies. They define beginning teachers as those who are only in their initial years of teaching (one to two
years), thus making it problematic to compare results to other studies with confidence.

One issue is that, although schools may have induction programs, they vary noticeably in their aims, complexity, quality and duration (Ingersoll, 2012; Main, 2009; Piggot-Irvine, Aitken, Ritchie, Ferguson, & McGrath, 2009). For instance, Youngs (2007) researched differences in elementary principals’ professional backgrounds. He discovered that those who were accomplished in literacy, teacher assessments, and professional development were more likely to support BTs’ learning needs than those who had less knowledge in such areas.

Also, certain induction programs are designed to acculturate new teachers into their schools, while others are geared toward developing their instructional practice. Still others are designed to gauge, assess, and perhaps even weed out those who are not really suited for the demands of teaching (Serpell, 2000). Nevertheless, studies indicate that content, strength and duration are all important components of a worthy teacher induction program (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004a, 2004b). Balanced against this, it remains uncertain how long or concentrated induction programs need to be for optimal outcomes (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). There is also the question about school setting or context. The point about school contexts needs emphasising, because “no two schools and no two teaching positions are the same” (Liu & Johnson, 2006, p. 325). Therefore, it is interesting to ponder whether the content and length of effective school induction need varying across school settings or is there something constant about it?

When sorting out which induction activities matter the most for beginning teachers in their retention outlook and to make a positive difference for their students, having a qualified and engaging mentor appointed to a beginning teacher seems to be a priority. Ingersoll (2012) stresses that induction is “not free”, particularly the more all-inclusive ones, and that a more pressing question for policy makers is which types of induction programs are not only effective but provide the greatest “bang for buck” (p.
This is particularly so when balancing budgets for organisations and governments have become important.

In conclusion, it seems that induction programs are worthwhile in retaining beginning teachers. In addition, induction programs may also be associated with increased student achievement. On the other hand, if large numbers of beginning teachers view their line of work as temporary, regardless of any assistance provided to them, they are lost to their school and system. Nevertheless, central to any worthy induction program seems to be the quality of the mentoring the beginning teachers experience. An issue is that induction programs differ noticeably in their aims, complexity and duration across schools. However, school context is an important consideration: an effective induction program for one school may not be as effective for another one.

Mentoring of Beginning Teachers in Schools

There are many definitions of what mentoring is in the school context; however, in essence it is the “personal guidance provided, usually by seasoned veterans, to beginning teachers in schools” (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011, p. 203). To reiterate, mentoring makes up one part of the induction program for beginning teachers, and sometimes new teachers, into a school. Still, in some instances mentoring is regarded as “the induction program” (J. S. Long et al., 2012).

Teacher mentoring and induction are “often confused and misused” (Wong, 2004, p. 107). Moreover, sometimes mentoring and induction are used interchangeably throughout the literature (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004a; J. S. Long et al., 2012). Perhaps the origins for this misunderstanding are the result of the prominent role mentoring plays in school induction programs. Indeed, teacher mentoring has come to dominate teacher induction programs (Hobson, Ashby, Malderez, & Tomlinson, 2009; Stanulis, Little, & Wibbens, 2012; Strong, 2009). It is interesting to consider what the potential benefits of mentoring for beginning teachers, mentors, schools and the entire education system may be. The proceeding discussion will explore some of the merits of mentoring to its various stakeholders. Then the potential
limitations and disadvantages for both mentors and beginning teachers will be discussed. Lastly, the conditions for effective mentoring will be dealt with.

Numerous projects have indicated that mentoring provides an effective form of support to develop and acculturate beginning teachers into their new school (Carter & Francis, 2001; Ganser, 2008; Marable & Raimondi, 2007; O’Neill & Fildes, 2007). Indeed, when implemented well the mentoring process can be a “powerfully positive experience for both beginner and veteran teacher” (Ganser, 2008, p. 17).

McIntyre and Hagger’s (1996) study outlined a broad range of positive outcomes as a result of mentoring for beginning teachers. Some of these advantages are decreased feelings of isolation; a rise in self-esteem and confidence; as well as improved problem-solving capabilities and self-reflection. Other research also suggests that mentoring assists beginning teachers in their development of important skills, such as finding appropriate resources as well as classroom, time and workload management (Malderez, Hobson, Tracey, & Kerr, 2007; O’Neill & Fildes, 2007; Odell & Ferraro, 1992). However, a review conducted by Ehrich, Hansford and Tennent (2004) of more than 300 studies of mentoring in schools and in other professions found that most evaluations of mentoring programs were comprised of endorsements and opinions rather than research based on empirical methods.

Furthermore, evidence based research on the merits of mentoring “remains limited” (Hobson et al., 2009, p. 208). This is highlighted by the assertion that mentoring encourages the retention of beginning teachers primarily through easing of the ‘reality shock’ experienced by numerous beginning teachers (Gaede, 1978; Veenman, 1984). However, there appears to be no direct relationship between the “success of induction and mentoring programs in alleviating beginning teacher attrition or retention” (J. S. Long et al., 2012, p. 17). This is partly because it is problematic to isolate the effects of mentoring from all the other assistance supports available to beginning teachers, such as reduced workload, cooperative meetings with colleagues, assistance provided by teacher aides and so on (Hobson et al., 2009).
On the other hand, there is far more evidence to suggest that the practice of mentoring has numerous benefits for the mentors themselves; namely, their professional and personal development. For instance, in a large scale evaluation study in Hong Kong, using questionnaires, Lopez-Real and Kwan (2005) found that approximately 70 per cent of mentors claimed that they had benefited professionally from mentoring. Some of the findings from the study revealed that mentors benefited specifically from learning through self-reflection and learning from working with their mentees. Research has also indicated that quite a few mentors gain fulfilment from just adopting the role of mentor, and especially noticing their mentees develop and succeed in their teaching (Beck & Kosnick, 2000; Hagger & McIntyre, 2006).

With regard to the positive impacts of mentoring for entire schools and the education system, again studies are limited largely because of the difficulty in “disentangling” (Hobson et al., 2009, p. 208) mentoring from all the other positive supports a beginning teacher may experience. However, one would intuitively expect that successful mentor and beginning teacher partnerships most likely benefit schools by way of student achievement, and in turn, the education system. One study by Fletcher and Strong (2009) attempted to test the relationship between mentoring and student achievement. They compared two groups of beginning teachers in an urban district of the US: those with full-time mentors and those with part-time mentors. Beginning teachers aided by full-time mentors displayed greater student achievements over a span of a year than those with part-time mentors. This suggests mentoring may have an important role to play in student outcomes. However, more research is needed to have greater sureness in the role mentoring may play on student achievement.

Other studies from the US suggest that mentoring programs may encourage steadiness and the retention of beginning teachers at the school: those beginning teachers who have been successfully mentored were less likely to migrate between schools (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004b; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). As a result, schools and the education system are likely beneficiaries,
especially when beginning teacher and mentor partnerships flourish in confidence and accomplishment, with the added likely knock-on-effect to other members of staff in the school (Hobson et al., 2009).

Contrary to the advantages of mentoring, some authors have reminded us about its various downsides. The mentoring process cannot completely and continually be portrayed in a favourable light, due to its “dark side” and moreover that “under various conditions the mentoring relationship can actually be detrimental to the mentor, mentee or both” (J. Long, 1997, p. 115). Furthermore, in some circumstances, “mentoring may contribute to reasons why they [beginning teachers] leave” (J. Long, 2009, p. 319). Researchers have identified a number of limitations to the mentoring process.

One shortcoming is that the mentoring process can add prohibitively to the workload of mentors (Robinson & Robinson, 1999; Simpson, Hastings, & Hill, 2007). Related to this is that some mentors find the mentoring process so unmanageable on top of their normal teaching duties that they find it difficult to make time to meet with their mentees. Rickard and Banville (2010) have used the term “underserved” (p. 250) to describe this practice. Moreover, their case study approach revealed that 11 out of 20 (55 per cent) of first year physical education teachers, from 17 different schools, indicated that they were either underserved or not served at all by their designated mentors. Other studies echo the findings of Richard and Banville (2010): mentors and beginning teachers believed that they were restricted and irritated by the want of time for dialogue, meetings and relationship growth (Beutal & Spooner-Lane, 2009; Piggot-Irvine et al., 2009). As a consequence, according to Long (2009), many experienced and able mentors do not want to take on the role, since it takes them away from the “prime job of teaching” (p. 319).

Another difficulty is the imperfect matching of mentor and beginning teacher, which could lead to unnecessary tensions between them; and subsequently may result in the early departure of the novice teacher (Hobson et al., 2009; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004a; J. S. Long et al., 2012). Examples of the kinds of mismatches occur when
mentors are not qualified in certain teaching areas or have varying expectations and goals (Marable & Raimondi, 2007). Ganser (2008) reminds us that, in the event that an unsuccessful match occurs, both mentor and beginning teacher must leave the relationship with their “dignity” (p. 16) intact.

Related to mismatching, an important consideration for effective mentoring was the level of proximity between mentor and beginning teacher. The issue of proximity was highlighted by Iringa-Bistolas, Schalock, Marvin and Beck (2007): in a rural US setting, they found that beginning teachers who had their mentors in the same building “had their informational, instructional and emotional needs being met at higher levels than participants whose mentors were separated from them in another building” (pp. 19–20). The study revealed comments from beginning teachers such as, “We were separated by distance which made it harder to communicate and get together regularly” (Irinaga-Bistolas et al., 2007, p. 20). It seems, at times, the most obvious factor of proximity, when it comes to the right pairing between mentors and beginning teachers, may be overlooked. Nonetheless, when the pairing is right, mentoring programs can fast-track the induction process with beginning teachers (Parker, Ndoye, & Imig, 2009).

With regard to the circumstances for effective mentoring, some research has suggested that it is reliant on the beginning teacher’s desire or openness to be mentored. For example, Roehrig, Bohn, Turner and Pressley (2008) found that more effective beginning teachers were “more accepting” of the mentoring process than less effective beginning teachers, who appeared “somewhat resistant” (p. 697). This in turn had a knock-on effect, in terms of their relationship development with their mentors and with their own performance. In short, the more willing beginning teachers are in the mentoring process, the more they are accepting of appraisals of their own teaching practice. Furthermore, they sought suggestions from their mentors and other teachers for improvement (Roehrig et al., 2008).

Following from this and lastly, research has suggested that the achievements of mentoring relationships and mentoring programs are dependent on a variety of
contextual factors (Hobson et al., 2009). The primary ingredient for successful mentoring processes appears to be when mentors are allocated with additional release time to properly plan and carry out their duties (Harrison, 2008; Robinson & Robinson, 1999; Wong, 2004). Another key contextual factor suggests that beginning teacher mentoring is more probable of success in schools where there are existing healthy collegial and learning cultures or communities of learners (M. Cooper & Stewart, 2009). Additionally, Gschwend and Moir (2007) recommend schools need to build communities of practice “that blur the lines between new and veteran teachers” (p. 23). This is in stark contrast to ‘stand-alone’ mentoring programs in schools that emphasise ‘survival skills’. In fact, Achinstein and Athanases (2005) argue that mentoring programs that only focus on survival skills that perpetuate the status quo and replicate current practices lose opportunities to develop reflective teachers, who may in turn establish innovative and more effective teaching practices. Moreover, Janette Long (2009) calls for school mentoring programs to be “integrated into the school’s wider professional learning networks” (p. 323) rather than being isolated under an induction umbrella.

In conclusion, it appears that mentoring offers a variety of worthwhile advantages for beginning teachers: for instance, it is a chief method to acculturate and provide support; it alleviates feelings of isolation; and builds skills in teaching practices and work management. However, a large number of evaluations of mentoring programs were found to be mere endorsements and opinions rather than research based on empirical methods. In fact, evidence based research on the advantages of mentoring remains limited. Furthermore, there appears no direct relationship between the successes of mentoring programs in lessening beginning teacher attrition, partly because it is difficult to isolate the effects of mentoring from all the other assistance supports provided to beginning teachers. However, some studies seem to suggest that those beginning teachers who have been successfully mentored were less likely to migrate between schools. In contrast to the benefits of mentoring, some authors remind us of its ‘dark side’ and its various downsides. For instance, if the mentoring relationship does not have the right match, this could lead to unnecessary tensions which may contribute to beginning teachers to exit early in their careers. Context is
another consideration for effective mentoring. Beginning teacher mentoring processes appear to work best in sites where there are already established healthy collegial learning communities. This is in contrast to those schools which see beginning teacher mentoring as a ‘stand-alone’ program, with an emphasis on ‘survival skills’.

**Performance and Development Culture**

In this section, the importance of talent management will be outlined in the corporate business sense as well as in the education context. The methods of performance management and development of teachers will be discussed; also two examples for the effective use of performance management of teachers will be put forward. Finally, some of the limitations for the performance management of teachers will be shown.

Talent management appears to be a vital factor in developing successful organisational leadership. Davies and Davies (2011) describe talent management as a “systematic and dynamic process of discovering, developing and sustaining talented individuals” (p. 4). In the school context, as in many industries, a key resource is the abilities and motivations of the individuals that make up the organisation (Davies & Davies, 2011; Halvorson & Higgins, 2013; Mankins et al., 2013). To describe the competition for attracting and retaining talent in industry, in 1997 a group of consultants from McKinsey and Co came up with the phrase “war for talent” (Michaels, Hanfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2001) after interviewing thousands of managers. This expression has become well-known and used ever since, especially in business circles. Moreover, those organisations that recruited and retained the best employees believed this was the key to overtake their competitors (Michaels et al., 2001). However, research on talent acquisition implies that talent is not as transferable as many have come to believe and that it may be “unsuccessful at worst and expensive at best” (Burkus & Osula, 2011, p. 5).

Nevertheless, Mankins, Bird and Root (2013) describe talent as an “organization’s scarcest resource” and the difference between the best employee and the rest is “enormous” (p. 75). They estimate that across all job categories, the top employees
are approximately four times as productive as the average ones, irrespective of the type of industry, geographical location and organisation (Mankins et al., 2013). Therefore it would seem that these high performers or ‘star talent’ have a special role to play in organisations not only for their ability but for the leadership they may provide.

The importance of managing talent in organisations has come into sharper focus with the “leadership skill shortage” (Dewhurst, Hancock, & Ellsworth, 2013, p. 3) which many industries face. It would appear that there is not enough talent to go around. This is emphasised by a dire forecast, made by a leading economic research body, suggesting that by the year 2020, a global shortage of high-skilled employees, could reach “38 to 40 million or 13 per cent of demand for such workers” (McKinsey Global Institute, 2012, p. 2).

For that reason, together with the uncertainty around talent acquisition, it is imperative to focus on managing talent that is in the organisation. Translating this into the education context in Victorian schools, Performance and Development Culture Accreditation (PDCA) (Department of Education and Early Childhood Development [DEECD], 2006) is the program used to develop and manage talent amongst the teaching profession by improving the quality of teaching and ultimately student outcomes. The importance of teacher quality in achieving student outcomes is backed up by numerous research findings (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Hanushek, 2011; Rivkin et al., 2005). In addition, Australia has seen a relative decline in student outcomes, particularly in reading and mathematics, as reported by the Teaching and Learning International Survey (OECD, 2009). Consequently, the prime minister of Australia has brought the issue of teacher quality into the national agenda (Gillard, 2010). In addressing this issue of teacher quality, an important consideration is therefore how teachers are managed for performance improvement and development (Hay Group, 2012). Therefore, for Victorian schools, the PDCA program has a key role to play in addressing the retention of teacher talent and the decline in student outcomes.
The program is made up of three stages of growth or accreditation (level 1 to level 3) across five elements for schools: “1. induction into a school or new role; 2. multiple sources of feedback on practice; 3. individual performance and development plans aligned to school goals; quality professional learning and belief that the school has performance and development culture” (DEECD, 2009). The accreditation levels from 1 to 3 show how developed the school’s performance and development culture is. For example, level 1 accreditation, for the element of induction, in part, simply describes a school which has “a comprehensive and current set of induction materials for teachers”; while level 3 accreditation is much more evolved and all inclusive with the indicator of “all staff contributing to induction and mentoring support” (DEECD, 2009).

All government schools in Victoria were part of this initiative and by the end of 2009 98.4 per cent were accredited as showing a performance and development culture (DEECD, 2009). The thinking behind the use of an accreditation arrangement originates from corporate quality assurance practices, which indicate standards attained by the organisation. Moreover, this approach uses the key performance indicators which demonstrate “continuous improvement and the achievement of successful outcomes” (DEECD, 2006, p. 5). The main point that needs emphasising is that the accreditation process was not designed to be a simple “compliance requirement” but a framework intended to lead a school through a passage of development, culminating in “high performance” (DEECD, 2006, p. 5) of the organisation. Despite this, performance management in education as well as in many other industries runs the risk of being seen as a mere “form-filling” (Hay Group, 2012, p. 2) exercise.

However, research conducted by Gurr and Drysdale in two different Victorian Catholic schools provides evidence for the effective use of the PDCA program (Drysdale & Gurr, 2012; Gurr & Drysdale, 2012). In their papers, they describe two schools, Caroline Chisholm and St. Joseph’s, where multiple perspectives case studies were used. The multiple perspectives case study approach involved individual and group interviews with principals, senior teachers and new teachers. In
addition, Gurr and Drysdale obtained and analysed appropriate documents as part of their data gathering.

With regard to Caroline Chisholm, the use of the PDCA program helped in developing their school culture. They noted that indications of school culture development occurred when teachers were able to reflect on their classroom practices, increased their accountability and made the needs of students their focus. All of these measures helped to produce “outstanding student outcomes” (Gurr & Drysdale, 2012, p. 1). These exceptional student outcomes were achieved in part by an effective induction program for new teachers; it once was described as “haphazard” but now the school’s induction program is considered to be “very involving of participants, highly structured, and very successful” (Gurr & Drysdale, 2012, p. 9)

Another example of the success of the PDCA program was in building an effective professional learning community at St. Joseph’s Catholic School, which involved staff, students and, to a smaller extent, parents. Drysdale and Gurr (2012) discovered “considerable gains in students’ literacy”; highlighted by 80 per cent of year 3 students being “12 months ahead of the national average in reading” (p. 3). It would appear that the PDCA program provides strong evidence, in part, for a vehicle for continuous school improvement: collaborative processes, creating a school vision and managing its talent, by improving teacher quality and therefore student outcomes.

However, in order for performance and development culture to flourish in a school or in any other industry, it has to face the test of how it is rolled out. Moreover, the Hay Group (2012) believe that performance management is one of the “least well executed organisational processes” (p. 4). Some of the issues in the poor implementation are that performance management systems are too complicated and technical; lacking in transparency; more focused on form-filling rather than having genuine conversations on how to improve performances; and some managers are uneasy in providing negative feedback, fearful that already hard-pressed employees
may resign or burn out (Hay Group, 2012). Furthermore, in Australian schools, 63 per cent of teachers believe that performance appraisal procedures are essentially an administrative process with no connection to their development and performance advancement (OECD, 2009). More disappointing was that over 90 per cent of teachers believed that they would not receive greater rewards, either financially or non-financially, if they improved their quality of teaching or if they showed more innovation (OECD, 2009). Therefore, the roll-out and monitoring of any performance management system is crucial for its success.

With this in mind, the Hay Group (2012) have identified five key “enabling factors” (p. 13) for the successful implementation of performance management systems. These enabling factors range from “teacher buy in”, where the teaching force must be positive about the proposed changes; for that to happen it must address some of their issues, such as a high workload and excessive administration duties. Another enabling factor is a sense of “moral purpose”, such as closing the gap with entrenched indigenous educational outcomes. Also key stakeholder groups, such as unions, parents and principals, must be in agreement and provide their support. The new framework must also be well resourced and adequate time allowed for its implementation. Lastly, the new performance management system must be aligned with existing relevant state and federal legislation, policies and processes.

In conclusion, it has become obvious for many industries, including education, to retain, manage and develop the talent within their organisations. This has become more pressing due to the competition for attracting and holding onto talent in the workforce, particularly those employees who show leadership potential. This is particularly pressing because, as noted earlier, by the year 2020, a global shortage for high-skilled employees is projected to reach “38 to 40 million or 13 per cent of demand for such workers” (McKinsey Global Institute, 2012, p. 2). In the education context of Victoria, the PDCA program is used to develop and manage talent amongst the teaching profession, in order to improve the quality of teaching and ultimately student outcomes. Raising teacher quality in Australia, and in other countries, has become imperative in light of the relative decline in numeracy and
literacy of students. Gurr and Drysdale (Drysdale & Gurr, 2012; Gurr & Drysdale, 2012) provide two examples of the effective use of the PDCA program. However, introducing a performance management system is one of the “least well executed organisational processes” (Hay Group, 2012, p. 4). Issues lie in the roll-out, with 63 per cent of teachers believing that performance appraisal processes are essentially paper work, not related to their performance and development (OECD, 2009).
Chapter 3 Methodology

This chapter describes the methodology adopted for this study. The initial section examines the methodological background outlining the theoretical underpinning for the chosen methodology. The second section identifies the research methods, describing the background, justification for the chosen methods and the reasons for studying BTs. The third section examines the design of the research and procedure: description of the participants; the research instrument and the sampling strategy; the ethics clearance process as well as ethical considerations; and the data collection and analysis. Lastly, a summary of the scope of the study, including limitations as well as delimitations and ethical considerations, is given.

The main research question in this study is how the different pathways of permanent full-time, fixed-term full-time contract and casual relief work influence the career trajectories of BTs.

Methodological Background

This section will describe the reasons behind adopting a qualitative methods approach for this study. In addition it will provide a justification for the use of interviews as a source of data gathering, and finally a timeline for the research will be provided.

The Qualitative Approach

This study has accepted the principles underpinning the use of qualitative methods as a form of research. Qualitative research epistemology is based on participants’ perception, comprehension, explanation and the way they experience the world they are immersed in (Cohen et al., 2011; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Punch, 2009). This kind of research attempts to “give voice to participants, and probes issues that lie beneath the surface of presenting behaviours and actions” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 219).
Furthermore, qualitative research acknowledges that meaning of any human behaviour is enveloped in its unique context (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Accordingly, such research is likely to produce ‘thick descriptions’ (Geertz, 1973) of participants’ interpretations of unobservable issues. One widely used powerful qualitative instrument for data collection is the interview (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Kvale, 1996; Patton, 1990).

**The Use of Interviews in School Settings**

Broadly speaking, the use of interviewing participants is to “find out what is on their minds – what they think or how they feel about something” (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012, p. 451). According to Seidman (2013), the primary way a researcher can examine an organisation and its processes, such as schools, is through the experiences of its individuals who make up that organisation. Moreover Seidman (2013) goes on to emphasise that, despite the great deal of research conducted on schooling in the US, “so little of it is based on studies involving the perspectives of the students, teachers, administrators, counselors, special subject teachers, nurses, psychologists, cafeteria workers…” (p. 9). Therefore, these separate and collective lives make up the milieu of schooling and the education processes in general. Accordingly, this research is in part, in keeping with Seidman’s (2013) call to readdress the imbalance of studies involving the ‘lived-in’ perspectives of people. In this case, teachers will be considered in their individual school settings. Furthermore, this study will give voice to the individual lives within their school context of three distinct groups of BTs, namely, those who are employed on a full permanent, fixed-term contract and casual basis.

**Selecting the Most Appropriate Research Methodology for this Study**

The researcher had originally designed and piloted questionnaires, to be implemented in two chronological stages in order to gain a quantified snap-shot view of the current wellbeing and career intentions of BTs across Victoria. Following from this, it was hoped that interviews would be conducted to explore areas identified in the questionnaires. However, the DEECD did not allow access to the data base of
BT contacts. Consequently, the next feasible approach left to this investigation was to directly approach schools to gain access to BTs by inviting them to comment on their teaching experiences. This meant that this investigation shifted focus from originally a mixed methods approach (Cohen et al., 2011; O'Toole & Beckett, 2010; Silverman, 2013), using quantitative and qualitative data, to solely become a qualitative study. Moreover, the reasons for any teacher to enter, remain and consider departing his or her profession are complex; quantitative methods alone such as questionnaires may not have picked up this complexity. Therefore, the qualitative approach of interviews seemed the more feasible and appropriate research option to take.

There were many types of research methods the investigator had to consider before selecting the most appropriate one for this study; the challenge was therefore ‘fitness for purpose’ (Cohen et al., 2011). Similarly, the purpose of any research and its questions determine which approach will be the most productive and appropriate for the investigation (Mears, 2009). Furthermore, Mears (2009) advocates for a careful examination of such research goals and identifying questions for an investigation to prevent a “methodological mismatch” (p. 16). When attempting to select the most suitable method for social research, she advocates the use of three key elements:

1. The research purpose (how will the findings of the research be used?)
2. The research questions (what questions does the researcher hope to answer?)
3. The personal disposition of the researcher (what researcher traits support achievement of the methodological demands?) (Mears, p. 16).

This model for selecting the most appropriate method for research is valuable because it forces researchers to ask fundamental questions of themselves as investigators. To address the first point, the research purpose, it is hoped that the findings of this research will ultimately be used to aid the retention of high-performing or talented BTs in schools, so that they can in turn have the greatest positive influence on student outcomes. In response to the second element, the kinds of
questions the research hoped that BTs would answer is pertaining to their experiences of the processes which may hinder or aide their retention in their respective schools. For example, questions on induction and support structures, as well as experiences of their classrooms and workload have been identified as key factors affecting BTs’ decisions to leave the profession (Buchanan, 2010; Ingersoll, 2012; Smithers & Robinson, 2003).

In response to the third element, the personal disposition of the researcher, the investigator has a number of traits that helped to ensure the success of the entire investigation process. The researcher had worked as a teacher for over 12 years, in government secondary and primary schools. More specifically, the researcher had worked as a casual relief teacher for several years, and then later on a full-time permanent basis. Furthermore, throughout his teaching career he was often assigned to the role of providing support for BTs in their workplace and subsequently he developed an interest in which BTs stayed and which ones chose to leave their school. This interest in the career trajectories of BTs led him to develop and implement an exit questionnaire for those who decided to leave their teaching positions, for the Australian Education Union – Northern Territory Branch, which is still in use to the present day.

Therefore, the most appropriate method was to conduct interviews. The researcher’s goal was to understand the meanings BTs constructed of their experiences of work in relation to the challenges they had in integrating into their new workplace environment, within the framework of their form of employment (full-time permanent, fixed-term contract and casual). When the understanding of experiences of participants is sought, then conducting interviews provides “a necessary, if not always completely sufficient, avenue of inquiry” (Seidman, 2013, p. 10). The challenge then was the selection of the most appropriate type of interview method for this study.

Over the decades, qualitative researchers have described many types of interviews. For example, Bogdan and Biklen (2003) describe the use of semi-structured and
group interviews. Semi-structured interviews involve the interviewer establishing a general structure of the areas to be covered in advance before the interview process begins, while the remaining details are left to be negotiated with the interviewee, who has to some extent freedom to determine what and how much to speak about (Drever, 1997). Semi-structured interviews were not considered appropriate for this research because the researcher required BTs to respond to the same questions. This was required so that their responses could be compared across schools ranging in socio-economic advantage, different localities (metropolitan and provincial) and between different groups of BTs – specifically, full-time permanent, fixed-term contract and casual relief teachers.

The researcher also considered focus groups as another form of interviewing for the present study. There are many definitions of what focus groups are (Krueger, 1998; Morgan, 1988; Wilson, 1997). However, the following description is a typical one: “a focus group consists of a relatively small number of homogenous individuals who provide qualitative data during a moderated, interactive group interview” (Pophan, 1993, p. 195). It is important to highlight the distinction between focus groups and group interviews. Even though focus groups are a form of group interview (Morgan, 1988), there are important differences which need to be outlined.

Hurworth (1996) has identified four features that distinguish focus groups from group interviews. Firstly, unlike group interviews, focus groups tend to have a central topic or a particular question as a goal. Secondly, due to such a structure, the focus group fails if key questions are not reached within the specific time. Thirdly, to reach the desired key questions within a restricted time frame requires a great deal of group process skill by the moderator or interviewer. Consequently, it is generally regarded that the moderator needs to be more skilled than a group interviewer. Finally, the focus group is always conducted in pairs with a moderator and an assistant moderator.

There were many advantages for adopting focus groups for this study. For example, Barbour and Kitzinger (1999) emphasise the importance of the interactive nature of
focus groups: “participants talk to one another: asking questions, exchanging anecdotes, and commenting on each other’s experience and points of view” (p. 14). Other advantages of using focus groups include them being more cost effective and time-efficient in gathering information than most other research methods. Also, the focus group allows the researcher to interact directly with participants, thus providing opportunities for clarification of responses, further questioning and probing; the focus group provides an opportunity for participants to build upon the responses of other group members, this interaction may result in the development of new ideas and richer data and it tends to be highly enjoyable to participants (Hurworth, 1996; Krueger, 1998; Morgan, 1988).

However, there are several limitations of focus groups, and these are often the flip side of the advantages. For example, Stewart and Shamdasani (1991) cite several disadvantages: the question of generalisability becomes an issue if responses are only obtained from small numbers of participants in several focus groups. Also, focus group data may become biased as a result of a dominant or opinionated group member. Furthermore, the moderator may bias the results by consciously or unconsciously providing cues on the desired responses to the questions.

The essential feature of focus groups is that participants are homogenous in its makeup (Pophan, 1993). The researcher decided that it was not an appropriate research method in this study for several reasons. It became obvious when making preliminary investigations that homogenous numbers of six to eight BTs required for focus groups did not exist in Victorian secondary government schools. In other words, despite the researcher aiming for large schools, not enough cohorts of BTs (full-time permanent, fixed-term contract or CRT) in each targeted school could be found to assemble focus groups. It quickly became evident that the targeted schools typically employed only a few BTs, with significant numbers of them being fixed-term contracts, some full-time permanents and even less CRTs.

The other interview type the researcher considered was the use of in-depth interviews. In-depth interviews are characterised by ‘story telling’ and value the
‘lived-in experiences’ of participants (Mears, 2009; Seidman, 2013). Such in-depth interviews may have been used with only a few BTs over multiple time periods, along with other sources of naturalistic data gathering, thus leading to a case study approach. Moreover, case studies in education have characteristically involved the study of a small sum of schools and equally a small number of participants within these schools (Bulman, 2008; Sumsion, 2003; Wang, 2010). However, this research required the use of 10 schools and large numbers of participants to gain a representative sample of BTs across Victoria; therefore in-depth interviewing and the case study approach were not suitable.

The researcher finally decided on using structured open-ended interviews for this study. This type of interviewing is characterised by the use of exact wording of interview questions with the sequencing of such questions determined in advance; also the interviewees are asked the identical questions in the same order (Patton, 1980). The advantages from this approach are that when participants answer the same questions, this increases the comparability of responses and therefore it reduces interviewer effects and bias when many interviews are used; and it allows decision makers to see and review the instruments used in the evaluation (Cohen et al., 2011; Kvale, 2007; Patton, 1980). However, with regard to objectivity and the interviewing process, it has been argued that it is not possible to “guarantee absolute objectivity in research” because of the human element: the “researcher must feel some subjective affinity to the area of inquiry” (Mears, 2009, p. 4). Without this, the interview process would in itself be a bland and uninspiring affair.

**The Research Sites & Interview Schedules**
The data gathering from the targeted schools was undertaken over a period of over three months. The process of recruiting schools for this research was time consuming and at times disheartening. Searching for willing school principals and using volunteer teachers is a requirement from the DEECD; the researcher cannot approach individual teachers without the consent of their principals. The procedure for contacting school principals was to post them an official letter of invitation to take part in this study, and then follow up with a telephone enquiry with the principal...
week later. However, principals were often too busy to take telephone calls for this conversation to take place. For example, with several schools the researcher left over 20 messages, requesting the principal to call the researcher back to discuss their interest in taking part in this project. Nevertheless, once this conversation took place with principals, most soon came to realise how useful it would be for them to take part in this study.

Originally, the researcher aimed to interview one cohort of each BT (full-time permanent, fixed-term contract, casual relief) in 10 schools. However, the reality of assembling this neat interview schedule was not possible. Firstly, most principals indicated that they were reluctant to hire BTs to work on a casual relief basis because they lacked the experience necessary to manage often challenging classes. Therefore, the researcher recruited BTs who were undertaking CRT work by other means: through teaching agencies, the AEU-Victorian Branch data base and advertising in the university’s graduate student association online notice board. Also, when the researcher visited school sites, most principals and BTs alike were enthusiastic to take part in this study. As a result, more participants volunteered for the interviews and so an identical number of cohorts could not be gathered from each school: the most plentiful cohort was fixed-term contract BTs, and then full-time permanent BTs, followed by casual relieving BTs as can be seen in Table 1.
Table 1 Research Sites & Interview Schedules of Beginning Teacher Cohorts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of School / Source</th>
<th>Date of Interviews</th>
<th>Number of Full-time Permanent</th>
<th>Number of Fixed-term Contract</th>
<th>Number of Casual Relief Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kenworth (provincial)</td>
<td>16 Aug. 2011</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 Sep. 2011</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Other</td>
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The Reasons for Studying Beginning Secondary School Teachers

There were many reasons why beginning secondary school teachers were only used in this study. Primary or elementary school BTs were omitted from this investigation because BTs in secondary schools appeared to be more at risk of attrition, particularly when being required to teach out-of-field (Australian School Principals Association [ASPA], 2007; Bulman, 2008; Ingersoll, 2008). Out-of-field teaching takes place when teachers are “assigned to teach subjects for which they have little preparation, education, or background” (Ingersoll, 2008, p. 369).

Primary school BTs, on the other hand, are unlikely to experience out-of-field teaching because of their generalist nature of teacher training and teaching
mandates. Moreover, shortages of secondary school specialist teachers in key curriculum areas have been identified, such as in mathematics and science (Gehrke, 2007; Hahs-Vaughn & Scherff, 2008; Ingersoll & Perda, 2010; Teacher supply and demand report, 2006). Therefore it was more of an imperative to study secondary school BTs than primary school BTs. Other reasons for studying BTs, in general, relate to the nuances of their limited years of experience.

Studies on teaching experience and student performance indicate that the years of experience and teacher effectiveness level-off after several years in the workplace (Chidolue, 1996; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Rosenholtz, 1986; Staiger & Rockoff, 2010). Darling-Hammond (2000) provides an explanation as to why this may occur: “older teachers do not always continue to grow and learn and may grow tired in their jobs” (p. 7). Furthermore, as BTs adjust to the demands of teaching in schools, “a year of experience at the beginning of one’s teaching career is unlikely to be the same as the value of an additional year towards the end of one’s career” (Eide, Goldhaber, & Brewer, 2004, p. 233).

With this knowledge, BTs with up to three years of teaching experience were chosen instead of other teachers in their various career stages (Lynn, 2002). Furthermore, to reiterate, BT attrition has been identified as a setback that negatively impacts on schools and student learning (Goddard & Goddard, 2006; Noble & Macfarlane, 2005; O’ Brien et al., 2008; Staiger & Rockoff, 2010). Also, it is the retention of high performing or talented BTs who are the ones that are likely to make the most positive contribution to student outcomes, especially in disadvantaged localities (Mankins et al., 2013; Rice, 2010).

The other feature of this research is that it focuses on forms of labour, such as full-time permanent work. Most teachers in Australia are employed on a permanent full-time basis and a prominent feature of the Australian teacher labour market is the high proportion of its secondary school teachers employed on a permanent full-time basis; 86 per cent compared to 62.5 per cent of the general population (McKenzie et al., 2011; Shomos, Turner, & Will, 2013). This characteristic of a high proportion of
permanent full-time employees in an occupational group is in itself worth studying (Keating, 2011). Also noteworthy is that fixed-term forms of labour appear to be used more intensively in education, compared to other occupational groups (Productivity Commission, 2006). Therefore, these nuances of the Australian teacher labour market make it worthy for a further investigation.

**The Nature of the Sample: Selecting the Participants**

Many schools were approached until 10 agreed to take part in this study. Large provincial and metropolitan secondary schools in Victoria with growing numbers of student enrolments were targeted. The assumption for this strategy was that schools with growing numbers of student enrolments indicated growing numbers of BT recruitments. This strategy aimed to maximise the probability of finding enough participants to take part in this research. Moreover, the strategy to interview BT cohorts (full-time permanent, fixed-term contract and CRT) in their same school environment strengthens the research design of the study: all of them experience the same school environment, thus any differences in experience may be considered in light of their form of work. Provincial secondary schools across the state of Victoria were chosen because BTs have been historically used to staff them (Motley et al., 2005). Equally, shortages of qualified teachers of mathematics, science, information technology and languages other than English have been identified in some rural localities of Australia (Webster et al., 2005). Furthermore, BTs working in rural and remote localities experience higher attrition rates when compared to their metropolitan counterparts (Roberts, 2004), hence it was imperative that this study included provincial schools.

The other participant group in this study was the school principals who administered and hired their BTs. The advantages of including principals were that they were likely to provide a different and relevant perspective on the experiences of their BTs. During these interviews, principals were invited to respond to two open-ended questions: 1. What support structures do you provide for your BTs? and 2. What are the challenges for your BTs?
After the all the interviews were completed, the interview transcripts were changed to uphold the anonymity of the schools and participants; pseudonyms were given to participants and their respective schools.

**Ethical Considerations & Procedure for the Structured Open-ended Interviews**

This study upheld the ethical requirements of conducting research on participants. In whichever type of research, ethical considerations relating to the protection of participants are of paramount concern (Orb, Eisenhauer, & Wynaden, 2001; Silverman, 2013).

To reiterate, the chosen method of data collection for this study was structured open-ended interviews. To that end, conducting such interviews with participants did not prevent potential ethical dilemmas from arising. During the interview process participants may raise ‘old wounds’ and share secrets, particularly when interviewing victims of violence; they may become distressed reliving painful memories (Orb et al., 2001). A number of BTs became upset when recounting memories of senior teachers exploiting their work outputs, and personal safety concerns perpetrated by some students. In those situations, the researcher provided the option to stop the interview and search for possible solutions for the BTs’ distress; the researcher was aware of the participants’ vulnerability and the need to uphold their rights. However, in all situations, the participants chose to continue with the interview. After the interview, the researcher provided enough time to ensure that participants regained their composure and offered support through further through email contact. Kvale (1996) thought that an interview should be a moral endeavour, asserting that the participant’s response is affected by the interview process and the knowledge gained influences our comprehension of the human experience. Therefore, researchers need to be mindful of how an interview can potentially affect a participant and themselves.

Individual school principals were approached after approval was granted from the DEECD and the University of Melbourne’s Human Research Ethics Committee. A letter of invitation to secondary school principals with a copy of the plain language
statement (Appendix 1A and 1B) and interview questions (Appendix 2) were posted. This was followed up with a telephone call to the principals a week later. Once principals expressed an interest to take part in this study, the researcher then negotiated with them to arrange an interview time and date with their volunteer BTs to take part in the interviews. To reiterate, searching for willing principals and using volunteer beginning teachers is a requirement from the DEECD. Education researchers are mandated to approach the school principal first, who then identifies volunteer teachers prepared to be interviewed. Furthermore, education researchers are not permitted to approach teachers directly for their involvement in any research investigation. Random allocation of BTs to this study was therefore not possible. To alleviate the lack of random selection of BTs, a maximum variation sampling strategy was employed.

**Sampling Strategies**

A maximum variation sampling strategy involves selecting samples that “possess or exhibit a very wide range of characteristics” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 157). The rationale for this approach is that, if any shared patterns are to emerge from such wide variations, then they are of particular interest and of value, for they are likely to be core experiences that cut across differences (Patton, 1990). Schools were selected on the maximum variation of geographical location; metropolitan and provincial schools were selected on the basis of the greatest physical distance between them. In other words, metropolitan schools were targeted in the northern, eastern and western suburbs of Melbourne. Equally, provincial schools were selected by location in the northern, eastern and western regions of the state of Victoria.

A further maximum variation in the sample of schools was made on the basis of socio-educational advantage. Schools were selected using a maximum variation (927 to 1140) of the Index of Community Socio-Educational Advantage (ICSEA); see Tables 2 and 3. In short, ICSEA scores of schools represent the level of educational disadvantage or advantage pupils brings to their academic education and the median score is 1000; furthermore, scores range from 500 (representing extremely educationally disadvantaged backgrounds) to approximately 1300 (indicating schools
with students of very educationally advantageous backgrounds) (Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority, 2012).

In addition to maximum variation sampling, purposive sampling strategy was also used to target schools. Purposeful sampling involves deliberately selecting information-rich cases for a specific reason and is frequently part of a developing design, allowing the researcher to fluctuate between research and theory (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990). The researcher purposively selected large schools with growing numbers of student enrolments to maximise the probability of securing enough BTs for this study. In constructing the sample in this study, the researcher also purposively selected schools within a range of high and low ICSEA values, to best characterise secondary schools across Victoria.

With regard to the sample of size of schools and participants in this study; a total of 10 schools, 41 BT interviews as well as nine interviews with principals were considered enough to achieve a high degree of variation within the available time and resources. As Patton (1990) states, “there are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry” (p. 184). Furthermore, sample size is dependent on what the researcher wants to find out, what will be valuable, what will have credibility and what can be achieved within the resource and time constraints (Patton, 1990). As such, the researcher believed that an adequate number of participants and schools took part in this study for the researcher to find out what he “needed to know” (Kvale, 2007, p. 11).

Table 2 Profile of Provincial Secondary Schools in the Study

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Banksia</th>
<th>Lansen</th>
<th>Nelson</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>1096</td>
<td>1043</td>
<td>914</td>
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<td>Total Teaching Staff</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICSEA</td>
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<td>932</td>
<td>955</td>
<td>941</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 Profile of Metropolitan Secondary Schools in the Study

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<th>Paulson</th>
<th>Rusden</th>
<th>Sandy Point</th>
<th>Oak Bank</th>
<th>Port Duke</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Full-time Students</td>
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<td>1037</td>
<td>1280</td>
<td>1644</td>
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<td>Total Teaching Staff</td>
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<td>1140</td>
<td>927</td>
<td>937</td>
<td>985</td>
<td>988</td>
<td>1069</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The Research Instrument

This section describes how the interview questions were fashioned, and outlines the details of the interviewing process, along with the field notes taken after each BT interview.

The interview schedule was constructed to allow each interview to be as naturalistic and free-flowing as possible; this was so in order to build trust and rapport. Building rapport and trust with participants is an important requirement for any successful interview (Kvale, 2007; Mears, 2009). An essential ingredient for building trust and rapport is for the researcher to “have sufficient background knowledge and affinity for the topic…and to understand the ‘language’ of experience” (Mears, 2009, p. 4). To reiterate, the researcher had over 12 years of successful experience as a teacher in two forms of work (CRT and permanent) and furthermore constructed the interview questions after a thorough literature review of the issues surrounding BTs.

To help build trust and rapport, prior to the interview the researcher asked participants to complete a consent form (Appendix 3A) along with a proforma (Appendix 3B). Each participant was also provided with a plain language statement, outlining aspects such as confidentiality and human research ethics approval. The researcher emphasised that participation in this study was completely voluntary and participants could withdraw at any stage of the interview, or to withdraw any unprocessed data they have supplied without prejudice.
The interview instrument was piloted with individual volunteer participants: practising BTs and more experienced teachers. The wording of several questions was revised for ease of interpretation by BTs. A few of the interview questions, which produced confusion or little difference from other questions, were discarded.

The rationale for the questions in the interview schedule can broadly be divided into three parts. Questions 1 to 6 are introductory questions, asking participants about their backgrounds and motivations for becoming a teacher, while questions 7 to 16 examine participants’ progress in their new school workplace. Finally, questions 17 to 20 examine participants’ personal evaluations, expectations and future directions of their teaching employment.

Note, the interview questions for BTs who were undertaking casual relief work had to be modified for relevance, since they generally work in multiple schools, and such questions are italicised. In addition, unlike other participants, most of the interviews for CRTs were not conducted in their respective schools; instead they occurred in other locations such as the university, cafes and public libraries.

The following provides the rationale for each interview question with justification from past research. Moreover, the answers to these questions will test the research question in this study; which is how are the different pathways of permanent full-time, fixed-term contract and casual relief work teachers associated with their career trajectories in Victorian government secondary schools? When inviting participants to answer questions, probes were often used when necessary; they were designed to supplement, clarify the question or dig deeper from initial responses.

**Q.1 Before we get started with the particular questions, I would like to get a broad sense of your experiences. How’s it going?**

The intention here was to take the pressure off the participant and put them at ease by the casualness of this question. Furthermore, it was hoped that it would reveal broad feelings about their teaching experiences.
Q. 2 Why did you choose to go into teaching?
This question was intended to pick up broad motivations BTs had for entering into teaching. Furthermore, understanding a candidate’s motivation to enter and continue in the teaching profession is important because it has implications for teacher recruitment and retention (Richardson & Watt, 2006; Rots & Aelterman, 2008; Sinclair et al., 2006).

Q. 3 Is teaching your first career? If teaching is not your first career, what did you do before you decided to teach? Why did you decide to make the career change?
This question was designed to separate BTs into two categories: career change and first career teachers. The motivations for career change BTs can be different from initial career entrants and therefore are worth exploring (Anthony & Ord, 2008; Marinell, 2009; Williams & Forgasz, 2009).

Q. 4 How long have you been teaching for and how long have you been teaching at this school?
How long have you been teaching for and how long have you been teaching in schools as a CRT?
These questions aimed to find out how much teaching experience BTs had and whether this experience was also made up by working in a number of schools. These questions were important because they placed BTs into their respective experience categories: first year, second year or third year. This research was designed for BTs with up to three years of teaching experience. Therefore, any teachers beyond this limit could be excluded before the interview progressed any further.

Q. 5 How would you describe your school to someone who doesn’t know it?
• (Probe if necessary) What is it like to teach here?
What are your general experiences of schools when working as a CRT?

- (Probe if necessary) What is it like to teach there?

The intention here was to orientate the participant to their school(s) and to pick up broad experiences, be they positive or negative.

**Q.6.** What are your terms of employment at this school? For example, are you full-time permanent, part-time permanent, fixed-term contract or casual relief teaching?

When working as a teacher, what is usual form of employment? For example, are you full-time permanent, part-time permanent, fixed-term contract or casual relief teaching?

The intention of this question was simply to place each BT into their respective form of employment.

**Q.7** (following from the previous question) Can you explain which your preferred form of employment is?

(Probe, if response relates to income security) What does security of income mean for you?

The intention here is to find out which forms of work BTs value over others and their reasoning for such a belief. Forms of labour are important considerations for occupational choice and related to this is income security for many workers in Australia (Productivity Commission, 2006; Shomos et al., 2013).

**Q.8** Which subjects did you complete your teaching methods in and which subjects have you taught in?

- (Probe, if BT is teaching out-of-field) What is your perceived capacity to teach subjects A & B (trained in), can you rate them out of 10, compared with the subjects C & D (not trained in), can you rate them out of 10?
• (If teaching out-of-field) What toll, if any, does it have on you when you teach subjects C & D (not trained in)?
• What are your reactions and feelings for not teaching in your field?
• How do you ‘sharpen’ your teaching method area if you have not taught in what you have trained for? What are your feelings and reactions?

The intention here was to find out if the BT was teaching out-of-field. BTs in secondary schools appear to be more at risk of attrition when being required to teach out-of-field (Australian School Principals Association [ASPA], 2007; Bulman, 2008; Ingersoll, 2008). Therefore, it was important to ask this question. If the BT is teaching or has taught out-of-field, then this question is designed to explore this practice and their experiences.

**Q. 9** Do you feel sufficiently prepared to teach in the way that you are expected to teach here? Why?

• (Probe) Where do you go for advice and information about what and how to teach?

This question was designed to find out to what extent BTs were confident in their ability to live up to the teaching expectations of their school(s). In addition, how BTs navigated themselves to find appropriate information and advice in order to teach successfully.

**Q. 10** How would you describe your induction and orientation at this school?

• (Probe) Was your induction and orientation to your satisfaction?

This question aimed to establish BTs’ induction experiences. Another factor which contributes to the retention of BTs is their positive induction experiences (Ingersoll, 2012; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Kapadia et al., 2007). Therefore, this question was important to include.

**Q. 11** How would you describe your mentoring and support by experienced teachers?
• (Probe) Is the mentoring and support you have received what you needed?

A key aspect of the induction process in schools is the mentoring BTs undertake (Harrison, 2008; Hobson et al., 2009; Wong, 2004). This question relates to question 10; however, people often think that induction and mentoring are two separate entities (Wong, 2004). Therefore it was necessary to ask questions related to induction and mentoring independently.

**Q. 12** What have your experiences in the classroom been like at this school?

• (Probe) Is the support that you received was what you needed?

• Has there ever been an occasion when you thought that your personal safety was at risk?

• If so, what happened, how did you feel, was the matter resolved to your satisfaction?

The challenging nature of managing student behaviour and its predictor of burnout have been put forward by several researchers (Farber, 2010; McCormick & Barnett, 2011). However, there have been few studies, compared to other areas in education research, on the perpetration of violence against school teachers by students (Chen & Astor, 2009; Fetherston & Lummis, 2012). This question was necessary because any acts of violence or bullying directed towards teachers are unlikely to aid their retention. In fact, teachers may exit the teaching profession entirely if their fears for personal safety remain unaddressed (Fetherston & Lummis, 2012).

**Q. 13** How much professional development (PD) have you received? What kind? How does this compare to other teachers in your school(s)?

• (Probe) Is this what you expected?

These questions investigated to what extent BTs felt they received professional development compared to other teachers. Professional development programs or seminars act as an important component in the overall induction packages for BTs. Other components of an effective induction program may include mentoring,
collaboration with colleagues and the assistance from a teacher aide. Ingersoll (2012) argued that as the number of components in the induction package increased for BTs, “the likelihood of their turnover decreased” (p. 50). Therefore, PD programs are another factor that may contribute to the retention of BTs.

**Q. 14** How much freedom do you have to teach the way you want to teach?

The intention of this question was to gauge the BT’s sense of autonomy. Another factor that contributes to the retention of BTs is their sense of autonomy and discretion in the workplace as reflective practitioners; where they feel they have an input in developing curriculum; their ideas and teaching style are supported by their school administration (Cole, 1997; Sumision, 2003; Wiss, 1999). Moreover, work environments that restrict BTs’ ability to innovate in their work are strongly associated with burnout (Goddard & Goddard, 2006).

**Q. 15** What is your workload like and how do you feel about it?

The aim here was to gauge the degree of the BT’s workload and reactions to it. Many studies have indicated that a heavy workload was a contributing factor, in some cases the single most important reason, for BTs to depart from their teaching positions (Buchanan, 2010; Farber, 2010; Smithers & Robinson, 2003).

**Q. 16** What is your work–life balance like and how do you feel about it?

This question was designed to gather some understanding of the BT’s sense of work–life balance. An unhealthy work–life balance can lead to teacher absenteeism (Rosenblatt, Shapira-Lishchinsky, & Shiromc, 2010) and is likely to hinder their retention (Farber, 2010; Palmer, Rose, Sanders, & Randle, 2012).

**Q. 17** Has teaching been what you expected; why or why not? What did you expect before you entered teaching?

The intention here is to assess the BT’s personal expectations of teaching compared to the realities of the profession and how they both measured up (Kyriacou & Kune, 2007; Manuel, 2003; Manuel & Hughes, 2006). A close alignment of expectations to the realities of teaching suggests the retention of BTs.
Q. 18 Does teaching offer you a ‘good-fit’ as a career?

This question relates to the previous one. Another factor that contributes to the retention of BTs revolves around a suitable ‘career-fit’ (Liu & Johnson, 2006; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Winter et al., 2004). The point about school contexts needs stressing: “no two schools and no two teaching positions are the same” (Liu & Johnson, 2006, p. 325). Therefore, it is imperative that a BT finds a suitable school which matches their expectations, needs and wants.

Q. 19 How long do you plan to continue with your teaching line of work?

The intention of this question is simply to find out how long does the BT intend to remain in the teaching workforce. The length of time BTs plan to remain in the profession has obvious implications for the status of the profession and how they perceive their work: as a job or as a career (Dwyer & Wyn, 2001; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2011; Manuel & Hughes, 2006).

Q. 20 If you plan to teach for a short time, what conditions would need to change for you to seriously consider spending a longer time in the teaching workforce?

This question provides an opportunity for BTs, who plan to remain in the teaching profession for a short time, to air any grievances, if they have not already done so.

Q. 21 Is there anything you want to add about your teaching work that you have not mentioned already?

This question represents a final opportunity for participants to state something not explored or addressed in the previous questions and acts as a debriefing (Kvale, 1996).

The other participant group in this study was the school principals who administered and hired their BTs. The advantages of including principals were that they were likely to provide a different and relevant perspective on the experiences of their BTs. During these interviews principals were invited to respond to two open-ended questions: 1. What support structures do you provide for your BTs? and 2. What are
the challenges for your BTs? The intention of the first question was to simply find out what range of supports each school had in place for their BTs. The second question is self-explanatory – it was intended to find out how each principal perceived the difficulties or challenges in respect to their BTs.

**Interview Recordings and Location**

Approval to record interviews was sought from the Human Research Ethics Committee, the DEECD, school principals and individual participants. Moreover, individual participants provided their informed consent for their interviews to be audio-taped (Appendix 3A).

The advantages of recording and transcribing interviews enable the details of the interview to be checked and revisited at a later date (Cohen et al., 2011; Seidman, 2013). Every interview was recorded digitally on a voice-recorder and uploaded on to the researcher’s computer at a later date.

The interview sites were suitable for the confidentiality requirements of participants and they were free from obstructive noise. All interviews were performed at a private location within each school setting and arranged in cooperation with the school principal; except for most of the CRT interviews; these were conducted in other suitable locations such as in interview rooms of universities and public libraries. All sites met the requirements of the interview process.

All the interview times and dates were organised in conjunction with the school principal in each school to cause the least disruption as possible; most interviews required the use of replacement teachers to cover for the absent teacher during the interview. When organising a time and date with participants for interviewing purposes, it is important to provide for their convenience first and not just the researcher’s needs (Seidman, 2013). The researcher requested to interview as many participants the school could reasonably schedule. As a consequence, the researcher interviewed a minimum of two and up to five BTs in each school. The duration of the interviews with BTs ranged from approximately 40 to 70 minutes. In
addition, the duration of the principals’ interviews ranged from approximately 10 to 30 minutes.

**Field Notes**

Field notes were written on a regular basis to add to the context of each interview. According to Van Maanen (1988), field notes provide “shorthand reconstructions of events, observations, and conversations that took place in the field” (p. 223). However, field notes can also be used to create “ideas, strategies, reflections and hunches” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003, p. 110). As such, the researcher constructed field notes immediately after each interview had been completed, so that impressions from the interview remained vivid. In addition, field notes comprised instant reflections of the participants and how the interview went, as well as general comments about the interview setting. An example of a field note is provided in Figure 3.

**Figure 3 Example of a Field Note in This Study: Brittany, third year full-time permanent teacher, Sandy Point**

| This interview was conducted in a small quiet but dim room near the principal’s office. The female participant was in her mid-twenties. The principal told me earlier that she would be interesting to interview and that the school had a very high opinion of her. During the interview, what struck me about her was her energy; she would talk in short bursts and feel every word she spoke, someone who ‘wore their heart on their sleeves’. The participant told me about her extraordinary workload and level of commitment, perhaps she will become a future leader, if she can get past this year without burning out. At times she became so emotional; when it appeared that she was about to make a confession, she questioned if the interview was confidential. I reassured her it was. As she spoke, I noticed that she would pluck a few eyebrows out and flick them: she was under a lot of pressure. She said that she was being exploited by her senior teachers and “getting nothing back”; they were taking her programs she had developed and not acknowledging her. All she wanted was for the principal to say to her that she was doing a “good job”. |

Such an example of a field note played a valuable role in providing a portrait of every interview, allowing the researcher to file the memory of the participant in his mind. Field notes can also provide early impressions of participants which can be
supported or rejected by further data gathering and analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

**Data Analysis**
After each field visit to an individual school, the interviews were transcribed verbatim. A challenge of qualitative data analysis is to reduce the vast quantities of written material into practical and coherent lots; and performed in a way that is respectful to the “quality of the qualitative data” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 559). One way of achieving this is through the practice of coding. A code is merely a label or a name that the researcher assigns to a part of text which contains a piece of information or an idea (Flick, 2009; Gibbs, 2007; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Furthermore, coding allows the researcher to identify similar information and to search and retrieve data that bears the same code (Cohen et al., 2011).

However, before the coding process could begin, the researcher needed to become very familiar with the data. This was done through reading the interview transcripts many times and making detailed memos to pick up patterns and emergent themes (Bazeley, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Richards, 2009).

Subsequently, each interview was then manually coded at the sentence level into open codes using NVivo 10 software (Appendix 4). An open code is basically a new label the researcher assigns to a piece of text to define and categorise that piece of text (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) (Figure 5). Open coding is typically the earliest, initial method of coding undertaken by the researcher (Bazeley, 2007; Richards, 2009).
Table 4 Transcript Extract & the Coding Process: Alana, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Memos</th>
<th>Interview Extract</th>
<th>Potential Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Participant could be a highly engaged persister/switcher? (Richardson & Watt, 2008) | Date of Interview: Tuesday 16 August 2011  
Participant: Alana  
School: Kenworth  
- 2nd year BT  
- 12 months contract  
- Had another 12 months’ prior contract  
- Currently teaching English and Multidisciplinary Subject  
- Trained in English & history  
Before we get started into the particular questions. I would like to get a broad sense of your experiences. How’s it going?  
Look I really enjoy teaching, I love teaching, but I feel like it’s more my life than it’s my job. It’s all consuming. I’m recently having trouble with that. There doesn’t appear like there’s a great deal of balance in my life, it feels like you are on the extremes, I don’t have too much time for myself. Whereas holidays are nice and I really do enjoy the job but it just takes so much of my time and energy that I find that very frustrating, I don’t know whether it is this particular school, I mean I think, teaching is full on where ever you go but I feel like there’s some extra pressures here that make it more difficult. I guess I want to do it properly, there are a lot of people that, I guess cannot make it their life, but that means there is a huge compromise, on top of that, because we are working in pod (teams) environments, the work then falls on other people, like myself, who want to get things done properly. I’m sorry, its either the compromise of a quality teacher, in quality curriculum or letting go a bit, you are not going to do as good of a job and I find that difficult and it’s been draining these past few weeks... | Work load issue  
Work–life balance issue  
School fit issue?  
Work exploitation issue?
To a large extent, the open coding process mirrored questions in the interview schedule. After considerable time with the open coding process, \textit{axial coding} commenced. An axial code, as the name implies, is a type of classification around which several codes revolve (Cohen et al., 2011). In other words, axial coding involves identifying relationships between the open codes; this typically results in the creation of a hierarchy or node trees (Bazeley, 2007; Richards, 2009). The final process of coding was identifying \textit{selective coding}; this involved integrating codes to form a theory, and required a deeper understanding of the main narrative thrust (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Additionally, selective codes were tested against previous research with the use of a concept map of the literature. The following Table 5 illustrates the use of the various forms of coding in this study based on the question “Can you explain which your preferred form of employment is?”
### Table 5 Open, Axial & Selective Codes for Preferred Form of Teaching Employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Open Codes</th>
<th>Axial Codes</th>
<th>Selective Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Want job security</td>
<td>Preference for full-time permanent teaching</td>
<td>These features of labour markets are regarded as those who are the “insiders”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want to purchase a home</td>
<td></td>
<td>(Linbeck &amp; Snower, 2001, p. 165). Insiders usually enjoy more favourable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want to have a car loan</td>
<td></td>
<td>employment prospects than outsiders (Linbeck &amp; Snower, 1988, 2001).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want stability in my life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want to pay bills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want to become a more valued teacher by my school administration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire enhanced career advancement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want ongoing relationships with students and teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want to continually contribute to school curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get the subjects I want to teach</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want a structured teaching career</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to save money</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want holiday pay</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It gives me freedom</td>
<td>Preference for fixed-term contract &amp; casual relief</td>
<td>These features of labour markets may be regarded as those who are the “outsiders”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being a BT, I cannot accept more</td>
<td>teaching</td>
<td>(Linbeck &amp; Snower, 2001, p. 165). Outsiders usually enjoy less favourable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives me a chance to travel</td>
<td></td>
<td>job prospects than insiders (Linbeck &amp; Snower, 1988, 2001).</td>
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<td></td>
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However, these characteristics can also be associated with those who highly value individuality and choice. The so called ‘Generation Y’ is identified as those who want to “seek new challenges” (Manuel & Hughes, 2006, p. 12).
Limitations & Delimitations

Researchers have emphasised the need to be open and honest about a study’s limitations and its possible sources of bias (Cohen et al., 2011; Orb et al., 2001). The limitations of a study are circumstances beyond the control of the researcher, which may constrain its findings and generalisability; while delimitations are the borders of a study and imply what the research is not about (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008; Rossman & Rallis, 2003; Rudestam & Newton, 2001).

There are several limitations the researcher must declare in this study. For instance, the sample of 41 BTs in 10 different schools may be considered too small to represent the vast number of secondary schools in the state of Victoria. However, to mitigate that limitation, a maximum variation sampling strategy was employed, for the invitation of secondary schools to take part in this study. Nonetheless, the sample of schools in this study may still not be representative of secondary schools in Victoria.

There is also the question of generalisability to overseas studies: the Australian school context which BTs work in may be different to overseas settings, so only limited comparisons can confidently be made. For example, this research has discovered that there is no relationship with the affluence of a school setting and the attrition of its teachers. This is contrary to studies from the US, where poorer schools show greater attrition and turnover of teachers than wealthier ones (Ingersoll, 2001b; Loeb et al., 2005; Planty et al., 2008). Another limitation is the use of qualitative research methods per se; traditionally qualitative research has come under criticism because of its lack of ‘scientific rigour’. The most frequently expressed criticisms are that qualitative research is just a collection of anecdotes and personal accounts, and it is argued that qualitative research lacks reliability or repeatability; in other words, another researcher may come up with totally different findings (Silverman, 2013). However, to alleviate such criticisms, the researcher was careful in the entire process of research design, data collection and analysis. Moreover, another source of data collection was used to add rigour to the study: interviewing the school principals, whom the BTs worked under, provided an administrator perspective.
Apart from limitations, this study is delimited to BTs, who were defined as having 0 to 3 years’ work experience in secondary schools of Victoria. Studying other groups of teachers such as those in their mid-careers would have likely produced different results. In addition, this study is delimited in other ways: no primary (elementary) school BTs were used; such BTs may have displayed completely different findings to those in secondary schools. To reiterate, this study originally aimed to use a mixed methods approach (Cohen et al., 2011; Silverman, 2013), with the inclusion of questionnaires for a mass online ‘snap-shot’ of Victorian secondary BTs. However, the researcher could not get permission from the DEECD to survey BTs in Victoria. With the inclusion of such survey data and interviews, the findings may have been different to what has been reported.

In conclusion, the inclusion of different categories of teachers incorporates a multiple case design featuring replication logic; that is, the inclusion of these categories allows for examination of differences between the various teacher types. Secondly, the inclusion of principals allows to triangulate the BTs’ responses on their induction experiences in relation to the principals’ perceptions of them.

**Summary**

This chapter has described and justified the methodology and research design employed in this study. This research aimed to explore the experiences of BTs in Victorian secondary schools with attention paid to their career trajectories in their various employment pathways. Furthermore, other potential research methods for this study have also been discussed. An explanation of the data analysis and sampling strategy has also been put forward with limitations and delimitations of the study.
Chapter 4 Research Findings

This chapter presents the findings from the interviews conducted with BTs and later it will report the findings from the interviews with principals. Four broad categories were identified in terms of how BTs perceived their teaching experience. The first category is BTs’ overall career assessment. Elements that will be discussed in this theme are: preferred mode of employment, expectations of the teaching profession, the degree of career-fit, anticipated length of time in the teaching profession and their reasons for entering into the teaching profession in the first place. The second category is dedicated to the theme of collegiality and teaching support. The elements in this discussion include: induction and orientation, mentoring and support from experienced teachers and professional development. The third category revolves around BTs’ workload and includes the following elements for discussion: workload, work–life balance and out-of-field teaching practice. The fourth category is dedicated to BTs’ working conditions. This theme includes the following elements for discussion: how BTs perceive their pre-service education preparations to be in comparison with the expectations of their schools; their sense of autonomy; and personal safety concerns. Finally, career change BTs will be discussed separately.

With regard to the interviews with principals, two aspects will be explored: the kinds of support structures and the challenges they perceived for their BTs.

Preferred Employment Mode

In this study there were a total of 41 beginning teachers (BTs) with the following aggregate modes of employment: 20 fixed-term contract, 13 full-time permanent and eight casual relief teachers (with two CRTs employed exclusively by one school, instead of multiple schools). The combined length of teaching experience by BTs was the following: 15 were in their first year; 17 were in their second year; and nine were in their third year.

Overwhelmingly, most BTs preferred to undertake full-time permanent teaching, with 37 out of 41 (90 per cent) indicating this. Only two out 41 (4.8 per cent) preferred fixed-term contract teaching, one BT preferred part-time permanent teaching, and
one BT had a preference for CRT work.

Figure 4 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ preferred mode of employment. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them. The coding for the preferred employment form of CRT was omitted because only one BT favoured this form of work.
Figure 4 Beginning Teachers' Preferred Mode of Employment

Preference for full-time ongoing teaching

- Ability to save money
- Ability to continue to invest in school curriculum
- Maintain relationships with teachers & students
- Contracts are stressful
- You are a more valued teacher to school admin
- Career advancement

Job security
- Purchase a home & meet repayments
- Continual ability to pay bills
- Gives stability in life
- Aversion to having to reapply for contract teaching
- Help paying student loans

Preferred Employment Mode
- Fixed-term contract
  - Being first year can’t expect more
  - Gives me freedom
  - Travel
There were many reasons why most BTs desired full-time continuing employment. The main reason was job security, with 31 out of 37 (83.8 per cent) BTs who preferred permanent full-time work mentioning this. Also, 19 out of 37 (51 per cent) of BTs believed that it would assist them in either purchasing a home or meeting mortgage repayments for their existing home. For instance, Tracy outlines why she must continue to work on a full-time permanent basis:

The main reason is I’ve got a mortgage, I can’t afford to work part-time, I have to work full-time, and permanent for the security [of meeting mortgage repayments].

(Tracy, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Paulson)

It appears that job security leads to income security and eventual stability in one’s life. Not having to reapply for fixed-term contract positions or compete with other teachers for future work were obvious benefits of continuing work. Bella best exemplifies this outlook, when asked why she favoured full-time permanent teaching:

Because I have responsibilities, I’ve got a mortgage, I’ve got bills, I think like everybody it’s nice to have a secure job and not have to reapply every year. That’s probably the only downfall because at the end of the year apart from the stress of reports and exams and getting all that done there’s also, “Well, am I gonna have a job next year as well?”

(Bella, second year 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Rusden)

Diane has had four fixed-term contracts with two schools and echoes Bella’s predicament regarding her desire for full-time permanent teaching. She makes reference to her administration keeping her “on her toes” with the extracurricular activities she has done “outside of school” and the “outsiders” who want to seize her job in the future:

You are sort of kept on your toes because there are a lot of outsiders [other teachers], who could be taking the position [her job]. Which they have to do, it sounds wrong I know, you’ve been working here, you’ve been putting a lot of work with the kids and time outside of the school as well and you think, “Oh, you’ve got to compete with other teachers again” [by reapplying for her fixed-term contract position when it has ended]. Even though you know that you’ve got a pretty good chance of keeping your job, you know, staying on, but then
there’s this element of risk [of losing your position to another forthcoming teacher]. I suppose that is [the same] with every business now. So a bit of security would be nice, especially going into a mortgage now and buying a house. We are building [a house] now out in X with my fiancé and I, it’s sort of still a bit unstable [her teaching position], so you think, it’s nice to know that you’ve got another position next year. Look, everyone needs to work, so having that [job] security is very important.

(Diane, second year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Sandy Point)

Jim, who is a fixed-term contract teacher from Banksia, adds to the theme of being ‘kept on one’s toes’, with the remark, “you wouldn’t feel that you need to prove your worth quite so often I think [when a BT is full-time permanent]”. Alana from Kenworth supports Jim’s view with her belief that she is being exploited and is clearly upset when she reveals that she has to “carry more experienced teachers” than her. According to Alana, there are some permanent teachers who can evade and offload their workload onto others, especially to inexperienced ones like herself because they take advantage of not been being able to be fired as easily fixed-term contract teachers:

You can easily not do your job, especially if you’re on a permanent position. It annoys me that people can do that [under-perform] in a profession and not be reprimanded, there’s no consequence. In any other job they would be fired; you’re busting your gut knowing that other people aren’t busting their gut and not doing a hell of a lot and are getting paid more than you. In any other job that wouldn’t be the case, the people working the hardest would be getting compensated properly; it doesn’t happen in teaching and too many people are in the job when they shouldn’t be. I carry some people here, who are more experienced than me I’m angry [about that] and frustrated. I can talk to people about it but nothing really gets done, I can stop doing what I do.

Moreover, 15 out of 37 (40.5 per cent) BTs mentioned their aversion towards needing to reapply for the same teaching work at the end of their fixed-term contract date. Imogene best demonstrates this fear:

There was a staff member at this school that was here for five years and had a 12 month contract year after year then there was nothing left for him after
that five years, that’s my fear. Am I going to be in that situation? Just got a mortgage and have a house, I don’t want that, he was obviously left with nothing. I just don’t want to be in that situation. It was very devastating for him.

(Imogene, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth)

Furthermore, five out of 37 (13.5 per cent) BTs who had a preference for full-time permanent teaching indicated that it was “stressful” having to reapply and compete for their same teaching position at the end of their fixed-term date. This is confirmed by Kim:

I know that a lot of [teaching] staff that I know are on [fixed-term] contracts, they find it stressful that…well, I found it stressful at the end of my six months of whether or not I was going to be still in a [fixed-term] contract or put on permanent or given a year contract, and I was having to look for other jobs just in case that didn’t work out.

(Kim, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Lansen)

Job security through full-time permanent teaching offers a type of “safety” and a privilege from being summarily dismissed. Unlike in other modes of employment (fixed-term contract and CRT work), as a career change teacher, Tracy has recognised the advantages of permanent full-time teaching:

You’re safe unless you’re made in excess [an over-supply teacher, needing to be relocated within the system] or, you know, there’s something illegal that’s happened between you and a student, you’re safe as in you don’t have to go on a contract for another year and then because obviously on a contract they [the school administration] can get rid of you, whereas [when you are] permanent, that’s it, you’re permanent, it’s secure.

(Tracy, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Paulson)

Another reason for the preference for full-time permanent teaching was the belief that it gave a sense of belonging, of being valued by school administration, being distinguished from other teachers, and being on the path for career advancement. In fact, seven out of 37 (18.9 per cent) BTs who preferred full-time permanent employment believed this to be the case. Kriti and Brittany demonstrate this view:
I think if it's a place [full-time permanent teaching] or an environment you would like to see yourself growing in. I think it's...I guess you would definitely want to be a part of it. Yeah, so I think it's a good opportunity for me to grow and advance my career in.

(Kriti, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Rusden)

I know I’ve got it [the full-time permanent position] and clearly we were ranked among our colleagues here [during the interview process]. I was ranked first during the interview so I was [made] permanent. There were teachers who had been here for three years on [fixed-term] contracts, I was recognised for my hard work and I got it; it was nice to be recognised for your hard work.

(Brittany, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Sandy Point)

Unlike Kriti and Brittany, Phoebe, who is employed on a fixed-term contract basis, perceives herself as being a “visitor” at her school, despite being engaged in her teaching duties:

I still feel like I’m a visitor in some ways even though I immerse myself [in my work] but, you know, at the end of the day I can say, “Alright I put so much in...” I give everything but I still feel sometimes, I don’t know if people know that I’m a [teacher].

(Phoebe, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

Additionally, Debra, who works two days per week as a casual relief teacher for Sandy Point, believes that “other staff members tend to look down on CRTs”. Furthermore, Debra holds the view that she received differential treatment from her school administration when it came to her welfare and interactions with an errant student. Debra makes it clear that her employment mode of being a CRT was a determiner in her being undervalued by the school administration:

I’ve had, um, some harassment difficulties with a particular student that I’ve worked through with some coordinators, and at first it was treated like, “Oh well, you know, she’s not here very often so we'll just slap him [the student] on the wrist and let it go”. And the next time I had that particular student, there was another issue specifically related to what happened before and then I found out through word-of-mouth asking people that nothing had been
done about it, so I really had to force the issue. If it was a student and a staff member who worked here permanently, something would’ve been done straight away.

(Debra, casual relief teacher, Sandy Point)

There were other reasons why BTs preferred full-time permanent teaching over other modes of employment. One additional explanation was so that BTs as permanent teachers could continually invest in the learning needs of students as well as school curriculum planning and implementation. In fact, five out of 37 (13.5 per cent) BTs who favoured full-time permanent teaching stated this point of view. Frank, a CRT, thought it “would be nice to actually see through a unit [of work] and teach properly” rather than “just seeing the kids for the day and then that’s it, they’re off”. Moreover, a fixed-term contract teacher, such as Betty who teaches VCE, believes it is important to know what is in the school curriculum development pipelines for the following year:

I’m teaching year 12 and there’s a lot of discussion going on about how the course might be changing next year, and it sort of feels a bit odd to be thinking, “Oh, that sounds really exciting but then again I might not be here” [because her fixed-term contract expires]. So I prefer to be permanent and feel a sense of stability.

(Betty, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Rusden)

More noticeably, fixed-term contract teacher Sharon, in Oak Bank, feels “used” by her school administration. Sharon questions whether she ought to put her “full effort” into implementing a new school-wide computer curriculum given that her fixed-term contract may not be renewed for the following teaching year:

I know it’s a bit slack but we’ve got to start preparing for this One to One [a new school-wide computer curriculum] program next year, I might not put my full effort into doing this and I may not even reap the rewards for next year because I don’t even know if I’ll be here. I sort of feel, getting used really, “We want you to do the work but we don’t know if you’ll be here next year”. It’s hard because I always put full effort in to what I do but I’ll be wanting a piece of this [new school computer program] next year but they can easily say, “See you later, that’s how it works”. That sort of makes me angry but that’s life
really, the joys of contract work and the school you know, the numbers [student enrolments] are going down and the teachers therefore are not required so that’s why I don’t enjoy it [fixed-term contract work], it doesn’t bring out the best attitude in me I think. I’m sure there’s plenty of people in my boat.

(Sharon, third year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

Lastly, it was important for some teachers to build on existing relationships with colleagues and students, and, in particular, to see students “grow” and develop over time. Consequently, BTs recognised the most suited employment mode to do this was through full-time permanent employment. Indeed, four out of 37 (10.8 per cent) BTs who preferred full-time permanent work indicated this sentiment. Career change teacher Johnny, who gave up his former science career to teach, best reflects this motivation to see students flourish over time:

I have some year 11 students and that’s why I’m motivated to teach them something that’s relevant, for them next year, instead of just going through the [motions of the] curriculum: “If they pass they pass, it’s none of my problem”. I will see them [his students] next year, I will try my best to teach what I’m teaching them to be relevant next year.

(Johnny, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Nelson)

Those few BTs who favoured fixed-term contract work were young (21–25 years old) and undecided in their career direction. Furthermore, it seemed that travelling overseas was a priority for them instead of being committed to the teaching profession right away. Indeed, six out of 41 (14.6 per cent) BTs did not mind being on a fixed-term contract but at the same time would not reject a full-time permanent position if it was offered to them. Nevertheless, though their preference was for full-time permanent work, they did not expect it because they were in their first year of teaching. Lenny, who is aged between 21 and 25 years, has taught for less than six months and perhaps represents this level of ambivalence in the first year of employment for some BTs:

Right now probably yes [for fixed-term contract teaching] only because I’m not too sure where I want to go with a lot of things in the next couple of years. However, if I was approached to be given a permanent contract [position] it'd
be something that I’d consider pretty solidly. If they came to me today and said, “Would you like one [a full-time permanent position]?” I’d consider it but I don’t expect that. I’d probably say “yes” straight away ‘cause it’s an opportunity you can’t really knock back. But in a couple of years, yes definitely [to seek full-time permanent teaching].

(Lenny, first year 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

Ken, who is also aged between 21 and 25 and has taught for less than three months, further supports this level of undecidedness in employment preference for some BTs in their first year. Nonetheless, he favours full-time permanent teaching in the long term:

But at the moment I’m planning on going overseas next year, like the second half of next year so I don’t want to say I’m available for a contract and then…I don’t want to get [a] permanent [teaching position] and then say I need half a year off. So at the moment definitely [fixed-term] contract [is] better for me. Yes, yes, but once I get back from overseas [travel] I’ll want [a] permanent [teaching position].

(Ken, first year 6 months fixed-term contract teacher, Lansen)

In contrast, Bruce, also aged between 21 and 25, categorically prefers CRT work along with his other jobs rather than committing himself to a teaching career. However, like a lot of BTs he has a priority for overseas travel:

At the moment as bad as I say I’m probably more focused on just paying off my HECS [student loan] [and] getting ready to go overseas. So at the moment I work [CRT] six hours a day, get quite good money to do it and then I go over to AusSwim [other casual employment], work at AusSwim for a couple of hours and then I go do [night] club-work [other casual employment] for a couple of nights a week, whereas I couldn’t do that if I’d commit myself a hundred per cent to teaching if I was full time.

(Bruce, casual relief teacher)

Sole parent Sarah, who is a casual relieving teacher, holds the view that CRT work is “not stable”; as a consequence, she prefers part-time permanent teaching, instead of full-time permanent teaching, in order to look after her child.
To conclude, BTs significantly preferred full-time permanent employment over other modes of teaching work. Whilst there were many reasons for this preference, job security was the prime explanation, and in many cases it was because the income stability would assist them in either purchasing a home or meeting mortgage repayments for their existing home. Other reasons why BTs favoured full-time permanent teaching was because it did not keep them “on their toes” like fixed-term contract teaching did. Furthermore, 40.5 per cent of BTs mentioned their aversion towards needing to reapply for their existing teaching position at the end of their fixed-term contract date, and some BTs added that this process was stressful. Additional reasons for the preference for full-time permanent teaching were that it not only provided a type of “safety” from being abruptly dismissed, it also offered a sense of belonging and being valued by the school administration. In contrast, many fixed-term contract teachers may feel treated like a “visitor”, like Phoebe. However, some BTs particularly between 21 and 25 years of age, did not mind fixed-term contract teaching; nonetheless, they favoured a permanent full-time teaching position, but did not expect it. The least preferred employment mode seemed to be casual relief teaching; primarily due to the lack of stability it provided BTs. In addition, there is some evidence that other teachers and school administrators treated CRTs unfavourably.

**BT Expectations of the Teaching Profession**

BTs’ expectations of their teaching line of work were numerous. However, there were two main categories: one was that their expectations were met and the other was their expectations were not met. Most BTs indicated that they expected something different before they entered the teaching profession. The most frequently mentioned item was how surprised BTs were at the degree of errant student behaviour, followed by a heavy workload, numerous administration duties, and the difficulty in finding employment. However, a minority of BTs indicted that their teaching expectations were met. They knew that it would be stressful and challenging, they anticipated that their workload would not be easy, and despite all this they valued the opportunity to work with young people.
Figure 5 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ expectations of the teaching profession. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 5 Beginning Teachers' Expectations of the Teaching Profession

Has Teaching Been What You Expected?

No, Teaching Has Not Been What I Expected
- Student behaviour problems are more than what I expected
- No respect from students was a surprise
- Over-worked
- Thought it would be easier to find work
- Too much administration work

Yes, Teaching Has Been What I Expected
- Wide range of student abilities
- Better than what I expected
- No or little support
- I knew it would be stressful & challenging
- Knew the workload involved
- Opportunity to work with young people
Maria represents a BT, whose expectations were not met, primarily due to her surprise of the wayward student behaviour. In addition, she is the only Language Other Than English (LOTE) BT in this study and has indicated that her expectations of teaching were formed during her student teacher training. She draws attention to her Diploma of Education practicum experience: the full extent of what it takes to manage a classroom was not evident to her until she was employed and put in charge of a class in their own right:

It’s different in the way I suppose behaviour management and organisation and all those little things that you don’t get taught from uni. And when you’re on your [teaching] rounds it’s a lot different. On your [teaching] rounds their teacher [who was also supervising Maria] is there with you, so I suppose they’re [the students] [are] still acting for their teacher not for you. You don’t get to see how a class is set up, how they manage their class from the start of the year to the end [of the year]; you’re just stuck in there [the classroom] which gives you a very narrow view of what it’s like. I was thinking the other day that teaching should be a whole year [of] practice with the one teacher so that you actually are able to know [the issues], like, rather than the four or five weeks that you get in a Dip. Ed., so you actually get to know what to do in certain situations.

(Maria, first year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

To exacerbate the situation for Maria, she has indicated that pupils and some teachers did not value her teaching field of LOTE Italian as they did with English and mathematics. As a consequence, it seems that Maria may part ways with her school in the near term:

The other thing I suppose would be the attitude of the subject [of LOTE] at the school. I don’t think I’m gonna stay here if I’m teaching LOTE because I don’t think I can deal with the amount of disrespect for it, not at this stage in my career anyway...just the way those teachers, like English, maths teachers, the people had more of a disrespect for it [LOTE].I was talking to one of my colleagues and he was just saying how they don’t have that respect for it [LOTE], that they don’t want it to continue.

(Maria, first year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)
To reiterate the extent of errant pupil behaviour, it appears that casual relief BTs were more surprised than any other mode of teacher. CRT Bruce states, “public schools are a battle, and they are far worse than I ever thought”. CRT Lata adds to Bruce’s concerns:

Seventy per cent of the class they just want fun, thirty per cent they want to study. But then, like, four [or] five students they are so destructive that they damage the whole [class]. In my background the students are not like that, they are more disciplined, and the students listen to the teacher, they are not as disruptive, not destructive, even if they don’t want to study.

(Lata, casual relief teacher)

A further aspect, which was not anticipated by BTs, was the realisation that managing student behaviour involved multiple roles. Phoebe from Paulson has come to realise that “you have to be a babysitter, you have to be a teacher [and] you even have to be a parent sometimes”.

Another aspect that was not expected for BTs was the heavy workload and the large amount of administration duties some of them had to endure. Tracy provides a good example of the unexpected high level of work and administration duties in her job:

I didn’t expect the workload and the administration that it [teaching] has, I thought I’d be more time focused on actual curriculum, but I see that it’s not like that, there’s a lot of red tape. I thought it’d be fun, it’d be challenging, yeah, and it has been all that, I just probably didn’t foresee the workload. Our job’s not finished at, you know, 3:30 [pm] you’ve got another hour [long] meeting after that four times a week which is, you know, you’re switched off by then because you’ve had eight hours of bang, bang, bang, kids and work.

(Tracy, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Paulson)

Kriti echoes Tracy’s belief with her comment on the unexpected level of administration duties she has to perform. Kriti had “expected more teaching” and “less following up” of student behaviour and “filling out of forms”. In addition, Kriti views this as “punishment” when she is unable to complete her work within the “teaching day”:

103
It’s sometimes too much the paperwork, and filling out forms. I don’t have an issue with recording results [of students] and everything, it’s just more of the filling out the forms, just any sort of forms and things. I think I expected more just teaching on the whole. Yeah, less following up [of student behaviour] and filling out forms. Also the fact that we can’t accomplish it [her work] within the teaching day and teachers have to constantly be kept back after school to be doing it [the administration work] seems like a punishment on its own.

Another aspect that BTs were not expecting was the level of difficulty in finding and retaining employment. For example, Maria has recently been informed that her 12 months fixed-contract position probably won’t be rolled over:

Well, I know it’s short term [her employment] because I’ve talked to the principal and he said that there probably won’t be a job for me here because the people I was replacing are coming back next year so it’s definitely short term. [I feel] a little bit sad because I do like the students here, most of them, and I am settling in quite well.

However, a few BTs thought that teaching was better than they had expected. Glenda presents an account of this:

Teaching has actually been better than I had expected, the actual teaching is great. I love it and the making the difference, that’s pretty amazing, but all the fiddly bits, no. I was always extremely shy and had no confidence; I think it’s made me challenge myself, which is really good, so it’s actually changed me as a person, I’m doing things that I haven’t been brave enough [to do] before. Also, I think that I’m a good teacher and the kids respond really well, so that gives me satisfaction and I enjoy them [the students] most of the time, all of them some of the time, most of them most of the time.

(Glenda, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Nelson)

Moreover, a minority of BTs indicted that their teaching expectations were met, such as knowing that it would be stressful and challenging. Despite the shortcomings, Jim still finds teaching “quite enjoyable”:

I knew it would be obviously quite stressful in the initial period and a big
challenge which it definitely has been, but there’s definitely a lot of aspects that are quite enjoyable and at the end of the day I can see benefit from that so yeah, I think it’s meeting that [his expectations of teaching].

(Jim, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Banksia)

Equally, some BTs anticipated the high workload. For instance, Betty, whose parents were both teachers, gave her a glimpse of what was in store for her as a BT:

Both my parents are teachers. I’ve always heard them talking about, you know, bringing home corrections and talking about the extra-curricular stuff that you do, so I knew what I was getting into really.

(Betty, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Rusden)

Likewise, the workload is “not a shock” for Bella because she knows “people that are teachers”:

In the classroom I’m doing what I want to be doing, and I did expect that there would be a lot of work because I know people that are teachers. So it’s not a shock, the workload isn’t a shock.

(Bella, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Rusden)

Finally, notwithstanding the downsides of teaching, some BTs still believed it was worth their while to persist because they valued building “positive relationships with students”, as demonstrated by Tina:

As a teacher like at this school, you know, you kind of at the start it’s just a bit hard to adapt and then eventually you just [do adapt] and like now I’m just really enjoying it. So I think generally I am doing what I expected to do in relation to building positive relationships with students and being able to actually teach them. You know, not just work in the discipline [aspect] and like babysit, it’s more teaching so, yeah, [and] that’s been good.

(Tina, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

A similar sentiment is put forward by Jim, despite “some behavioural issues” of his pupils which he did not expect to that extent; he still values the “opportunity to work with young people”:

Just the opportunity to work with young people, that’s what I’d hoped [for]. And to be able to build a rapport with those students and gather sort of an idea of their interests and [the] ways that you can assist those students.
That’s what I’d expected and it’s definitely there. I expected some behaviour issues and that’s probably been more than what I did expect and that’s probably been more difficult.

(Jim, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Banksia)

In summary, most BTs indicated that they expected something different before they entered the teaching vocation. The most frequently mentioned item was how surprised BTs were at the scale of errant student behaviour; followed by a heavy workload; numerous administration duties; and the difficulty in finding employment. However, a minority of BTs indicted that their teaching expectations were met. They knew that it would be stressful and challenging; they anticipated that their workload would not be easy; and despite all this they had the valued opportunity to work with young people. It appears that it is advantageous for BTs if they had a family member who went into teaching before they did, as it gave them a glimpse of what was in store for them. This helped them to form realistic expectations of the profession rather than unrealistic ones.

**Teaching a Suitable ‘Career-fit’?**

The majority of BTs indicated that teaching was a suitable ‘career-fit’ for them. In fact, 30 out of 41 (73 per cent) BTs indicated this to be the situation, whilst only eight out of 41 (19.5 per cent) BTs indicated it was not a suitable career-fit. The most popular reasons for BTs affirming that teaching was a suitable career for them, in descending order, were: the enjoyment they received from it; it was family-friendly; it offered flexible and convenient hours of work; it offered lifestyle balance and holidays; and it offered a career progression. The most frequent reasons for BTs indicating that teaching was not a suitable career for them, in order of importance, were: a heavy workload; stressful student behaviour; and too much administration duties.

Figure 6 (below) shows the entire coding process for the career-fit suitability of teaching. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any
statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 6 Beginning Teachers' Career-fit Suitability

Yes, Teaching Does Offer Me a Suitable Career Fit

I am enjoying the practice of teaching
Family friendly conditions
Flexible or convenient hours of work
Lifestyle balance & holidays
Offers career progression
I love kids
Passion for teaching area
Like to further my education studies

Not a Suitable Career Fit

Too much administration duties
Heavy workload
Can't get permanent work
I can't get some teachers
Jerry provides an example where teaching offers a good fit for a BT because it allows him to spend time with his family. As this is what Jerry values “quite a bit”, he is enjoying teaching:

 Yep, it [teaching] would [offer a good fit] because I’m quite happy with how I’ve got time to spend with my daughter at night, with my partner as well, because she is home looking after our daughter, I guess the holidays and that sort of thing are great, we’ve got time to spend with each other as a family, which I value quite a lot, which is great. I guess it’s a good fit for me because I get paid and I enjoy it.

(Jerry, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Kenworth)

Similarly, Rod believes teaching complements his “lifestyle” with the anticipation of creating a family. In addition, Rod sees holidays as a “bonus when you have kids” because it allows family trips and spending time together. A further advantage for Rod is that his school allows some flexibility in how he manages the required contact-time he is obliged to complete as a full-time permanent teacher:

 It [teaching] offers me a good fit in terms of my lifestyle. I plan to have a family and so having holidays is very good I guess, [a] bonus when you have kids and they’re on holidays, that sort of thing and you can go away and do things [together with your family]. As well as there are flexible hours: it’s not you have to get in at 8 o’clock every day and stay till 4.30 every day, you can get in [to work] as long as if you’re there between period 1 and period 6 that’s fine, you just have to make up the work later. Like, if you had to leave straight after school to go do something you can do that, you just make up [the time].

(Rod, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Port Duke)

Moreover, it seems that some BTs such as Diane, who is on a fixed-term contract, have sketched out a career path for themselves that may involve raising a family and doing CRT teaching later on. Therefore, despite Diane’s misgivings about fixed-term contract work, she still sees teaching as fitting well in her life:

 Definitely [a good fit], [I plan to] be here for another five to 10 years, I say. Then I might take a bit of a break. If I started a family, I would maybe come back to do CRT or maybe come back part-time.

(Diane, second year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Sandy Point)
Noteworthy was that 21 per cent of full-time permanent and fixed-term contracts BTs mentioned that the benefit of school holidays added to the desirability of teaching. For Kim, being entitled to school holidays was a “reward” for all her “hard work”:

I have holidays to look forward to so I can plan ahead for things that I enjoy. I don’t know how I would cope if I couldn’t plan and reward myself for my hard work. I like the fact that I have something to look forward to.

(Kim, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Lansen)

Finally, four out of 41 (9.75 per cent) BTs indicated that teaching was a ‘good fit’ because it offered career advancement and career choice. For instance, Linda was excited about all the possibilities of what teaching could offer her in the future:

The opportunities that I see in the education profession are so diverse. I don’t have to stay in a [conventional] school, if I wanted to I could to do extra courses, I could [then] go [and] work in special schools. There are just so many options and that gets me excited that I could go anywhere really. [Teaching] overseas definitely as well is one thing that my partner and I are looking at doing.

(Linda, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

In contrast, eight out of 41 (19.5 per cent) BTs indicated that teaching was not a ‘good fit’ for them. The main reason for this belief was their heavy workload. Bella doubts whether she could raise a family and manage her teaching workload at the same time. This is despite her “really enjoying” teaching:

It’s just the whole thing of workload. I see, like, other teachers that have families and I don’t know how they do it, ’cause I know how much work I do and I think if I had a family I don’t know if I would be able to do this [have children] and do that [teaching work] at the same time. I would like to say [I plan to stay in teaching for a] long time ’cause I’m really enjoying it [teaching], but as long as it fits in with my life, so as long as I can keep doing it I will, but if it gets to a point where I can’t manage it [workload], ’cause it’s not a job where 5 o’clock you go home and that’s it.

(Bella, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract, Rusden)

Noteworthy was that four out of 13 (30.7 per cent) BTs from provincial localities indicated that teaching was not a good fit for them. For example, Bill, from Kenworth,
had tendered his resignation before he presented to be interviewed for this study. He believes that it was his workload, including excessive administration duties that drove him out of his teaching position:

It’s difficult at the moment because I’ve just moved [out of my house], and I’ve tendered my resignation here [at this school]. I had to let them know officially so I’m going to be looking for another job teaching but not at this school. I’m probably not far off in going back to uni. I may be wrong but there could not be other schools that could be this bad, in terms of workload and expectations and things we need to complete by the end of each day. I hopefully will get a job in Melbourne somewhere.

(Bill, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Kenworth)

In conclusion, most BTs indicated that teaching was a suitable vocation for them, balancing well with their personal lives. The most frequently mentioned reason for this was because teaching gave them enjoyment, followed by that it was family-friendly and it offered flexible and convenient hours of work. However, a minority of BTs specified that teaching was not a ‘good fit’ for them due to their onerous workload and school administration duties; including a third of BTs from provincial areas. For some BTs, an onerous workload inhibited them to plan for a family. However, for other BTs, teaching offered family-friendly conditions and lifestyle balance for their future aspirations to raise a family. Therefore, whether teaching is family-friendly and offers lifestyle balance remains inconclusive.

**Anticipated Length of Time in Teaching**

Near the end of their interview, BTs were invited to indicate the length of time they would commit to their teaching career. Typically, BTs gave a range of timelines for their expected length of service to the teaching profession; from the very long term to the short term. In addition, many BTs were undecided of their future teaching aspirations.

Figure 7 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ anticipated length of time in the teaching profession. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not
bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 7 Beginning Teachers' Anticipated Length of Time in Teaching

How long do you plan to stay in teaching?

- A short time
  - Can not teach my desired curriculum area
- Until next year
- A long time
  - Until retirement
  - 10 years
  - About 6 years
- Not sure
  - Student behaviour is too stressful
  - I want to experience a new direction
  - Would like to travel overseas
  - Have not planned that far ahead
  - Need full-time ongoing work
For some BTs, such as Penny, Sky and Kim, their responses were unequivocal and swift, with the declaration that they planned to be teaching their whole lives or until “retirement”. Noteworthy is that all of these BTs came from Lansen, where most of the BTs had this outlook of a life-long engagement in the teaching profession. Moreover, a total of 10 out of 41 (24 per cent) BTs suggested that they planned to teach for most of their lives.

Others had medium to long-term expectations. Six BTs stated that they anticipated teaching for 10 years and three BTs indicated that they hoped to teach for six years. Johnny, a passionate science teacher from Nelson, epitomises the BTs who foresee a long-term commitment to teaching; his desire is to teach his year 7 seven students until they progress to year 12:

I’ve probably disengaged some students from science but I’m sure that I’ve inspired some [other] students to think about science as interesting. My short-term plan in this school is to see one generation go by. I started teaching here last year; I want to see that one generation graduate to year 12. I just want to see how they turn out and then probably move on to somewhere else. That’s about six years [of service].

(Johnny, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Nelson)

In contrast, seven out of 41 (17 per cent) indicated that they planned to teach for the short term. Emma, for instance, has reservations of being a teacher for the long term and has her sights on a parallel profession. Her interest in teaching was only ever going to be a springboard for her long-term goal of perhaps doing educational psychology:

Well, I never wanted to get into teaching for [the] long term ’cause I always wanted to do psychology and I always wanted to do research. Yeah, and like educational psychology, so that was kind of the aim, coming into a school was also to get an idea, like I want to do my PhD and do research. So I want to go back to univ in a few years and finish it off.

(Emma, first year, 12 months full-time contract teacher, Huntly)

Moreover, Sharon also is committed to teaching for the short term but, unlike Emma, she would like to continue with teaching for much longer. Sharon wants the security
of full-time permanent employment, after the uncertainty of multiple fixed-term contract positions and CRT work which she has found “stressful”:

If I get a permanent job (laughter), I could at least get a house loan, I can’t even get, you know, I’m just living for the year, I can’t really say it’s meeting my needs or satisfying me at the minute because it’s stressful, not even knowing what I’m doing next year (she does not know if her school will continue to employ her after her fixed-term contract expires) and I’ve been living that way for the past three years; it’s not fun.

(Sharon, third year, fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

Other BTs, such as Shane, were conditional on their anticipated length of time in the teaching profession. The conditions important for Shane were not to feel “bored” and to have a “challenge”; even though he is also the year 8 coordinator of his school:

I don’t want to keep doing what I’m doing now for the next five years, I think I’d be bored. ’Cause I think once I’m super-efficient at what I’m doing now, I might be a bit bored. I guess [in] teaching there is room to move, I could look at [teaching] another subject area as a challenge or move into leadership as a challenge.

(Shane, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Port Duke)

Other BTs were unsure of how long they would remain in the teaching vocation. In some ways, it is premature to pose the question to BTs of how long they intend to remain in teaching because they are still learning and developing the skills to become competent teachers. Phoebe, who has taught for less than three months, for instance, reminds us of this inadequacy:

’Cause you are always learning, it’s (teaching) not really like any other job where you can do it for like a year. I won’t know if it’s a career for me until I have done it for a few years.

(Phoebe, first year, 6 months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

Nevertheless, nine out of 41 (21 per cent) BTs indicated that they were uncertain in how long they would remain in the teaching occupation. The main reasons for this doubt were to do with the wayward student behaviour and the stress it caused for those BTs. Another reason was the desire to experience a new challenge outside of
teaching such as travelling overseas. Jim, for instance, has an unclear aspiration at some stage to travel overseas and combine teaching at the same time:

Yeah, and I would like to travel as well and whether that’s as a CRT teacher around the UK and that area I’d like to do that, but yeah, that’s all up in the air at the moment so I haven’t really set any straight timeframes on what I’d like to do.

(Jim, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Banksia)

Jill, from Paulson, is also uncertain on how long she will be committed to teaching. However, to help her decide, she provides the following scenario of an irritated teacher, who “didn’t have the patience for it anymore” and was “really angry all the time”. It seems that Jill foresees a day when her patience for teaching may run out as well. If that happens to her, she will know that she has “had enough” of teaching:

I’m not really sure [how long I will remain as a teacher], I’ll just see what happens. I think there was this librarian here [at this school], he’s about sixty now and he taught like pretty much his whole life and he was saying how he knew this guy where he stopped teaching when he didn’t have the patience for it anymore and he’d just get really angry all the time, so maybe that’ll happen to me one day and then I’ll know I’ve had enough.

(Jill, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Paulson)

With regard to the future aspirations of casual relief BTs, they seem to have a different perspective from those who are employed under a fixed-term contract, or a full-time permanent arrangement. CRTs Frank and Jeff see this work as not based around any career but a “temporary way of earning money”. Moreover, for Frank, his CRT work goes hand in hand with his restaurant job, and he speaks of both in the same breath: “I’m enjoying the CRT, the restaurant [work]”. Also, for Kevin, the decisive advantage of his casual relief teaching is that it gives him “the chance to explore things outside of school”.

For some CRTs the immediate context works for them but they would like secure teaching work. For CRT Sarah, the flexibility aspect of her work suits her, as she needs time to care for her daughter, but that is not enough. She needs a more reliable income stream. Sarah states, “I have a mortgage and struggle to survive
very much so financially”. She has “no choice” but to do CRT work and “would not recommend” CRT work “to anyone”. Her aspiration is for full-time teaching:

Well, I’d probably look to get back into full-time [teaching] soon because I can’t maintain this much, I’ve only been doing it for a year and I’ve used all my savings and I’ve used all my…everything’s gone so I can’t maintain it anymore.

(Sarah, casual relief teacher)

Debra is in a similar position to Sarah: they are both sole parents. Debra is caught in a predicament: “I don’t really have any other option. I can’t afford full-time child care on my own so this is what I’m doing”. Full-time teaching work is a desirable option for both BTs. However, it will mean giving up their child care responsibilities and paying for a service provider.

CRT Bruce’s anticipated career trajectory is in contrast to the other casual relief teachers as he wants to be in teaching for his “whole life”. Bruce is 23 years of age, he wants to make money quickly, he values job flexibility and job variety, and has other jobs including security guard work at night clubs and on building sites, and coaching swimming. Bruce’s immediate short-term goal is to save enough money to travel overseas. At the same time, he recognises that he may have to teach full-time one day but that seems a long way off, hence for now he just wants to have “fun” with his girlfriend:

I think just for security in life, like you need your super (superannuation), you need a house, I want all that. But at the moment, like my girlfriend wants to go overseas, I want this, I want that, so we’re all over the shop (idiom for meaning completely disorganised) at the moment. We’ve both just finished uni, we’re both still having a lot of fun so we’re doing just fun stuff and, you know, in a good week the money’s really good. And if you want to have a week off [from CRT work] you can just say “see ya” and go away.

(Bruce, Casual Relief Teacher)

Furthermore, most CRTs provided vague remarks when they were invited to comment on their anticipated length of time in teaching. For instance, three CRTs said, “as long as it takes”, two CRTs stated, “don’t know”, two CRTs indicated,
“probably another year”, and one stated that he expected to be teaching his “whole life”.

In conclusion, BTs characteristically provided a range of responses to their anticipated length of time they would commit to teaching. Some BTs indicated that they wanted to serve until they retired from the workforce. Others suggested that they wanted to teach for the short term and that teaching was only a stepping stone for them to re-train into another profession. However, many BTs were uncertain just how long they would remain teaching. The main reason for this uncertainty was the errant student behaviour and the stress it caused them. Still other BTs expressed a desire to experience other pursuits in their lives, such as travelling overseas, with the possibility of combining CRT work as well. Moreover, some CRT BTs did not see their teaching qualification as a basis to build a career, but as a “temporary way of earning money” (CRT Frank). Most BTs who worked on a casual relief basis struggled for an income; hence they needed to supplement it by taking on another job. For instance, CRT Sarah struggles to meet her mortgage repayments and to look after her daughter. Her length of commitment to the teaching profession remains uncertain. However, CRT Bruce wants to teach his “whole life” and “in a good week the money is really good”.

**Reasons for Entering the Teaching Profession**

BTs provided 25 separate reasons for their decision to enter the teaching occupation. These reasons ranged from the most popular motive, “I get on well with kids and I love working with them” to one of the least frequent, “Teaching offers convenient hours of work”.

Figure 8 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ reasons for entering the teaching profession divided into adaptive and maladaptive motivation. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 8 Beginning Teachers' Reasons for Entering the Teaching Profession

Adaptive Motivations: promotes lasting engagement in teaching

- I get on well with kids & love working with them
- I always wanted to be a teacher
- I like helping people & being in a helping type career
- I grew up in a family of teachers so this influenced me
- I had an inspiring teacher(s)
- I worked with youth in another capacity
- It started with coaching
- It started with tutoring
- I love my domain area
- I work with youth in another capacity
- My previous career path was not right for me
- School holidays are rewarding
- Didn't get into desired course
- Got into desired course
- I wanted to give something back
- Fairly decent pay
- I wasn't sure so I did teaching

Maladaptive Motivations: promotes disengagement or surface commitment in teaching

- Adaptive Motivations: motivates lasting engagement in teaching
It is worthwhile to separate BTs’ motivation for entering the teaching profession in to two types – adaptive and maladaptive – in order to gain further insight. Adaptive motivations are those that make possible “a lasting engagement in a task or activity”; while maladaptive motivations are those that promote “disengagement” (Sinclair et al., 2006, p. 1138) or surface level commitment to a task or a goal. Table 6 shows that the majority of BTs entered the teaching profession for adaptive reasons while a minority of them entered for maladaptive reasons: 77 per cent and 23 per cent respectively.
Table 6 Adaptive & Maladaptive Motivation for Entering the Teaching Profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adaptive Motivation</th>
<th>Maladaptive Motivation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I get on well with kids and love working with them</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>I always wanted to be a teacher</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>I like helping people &amp; like to be in a helping-type profession</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>My previous career path was not right for me</td>
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<tr>
<td>I grew up in a family of teachers</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I worked with youth before in another capacity</td>
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<tr>
<td>I had an inspiring teacher(s)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coaching youth in sport influenced my decision</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>My prior tutoring work influenced my decision</td>
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<tr>
<td>I love my domain area(s) such as science</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wanted to make a difference &amp; give something back</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School holidays are rewarding</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching offers fairly decent pay</td>
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<tr>
<td>I have a strong interest in leadership</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>I have good experiences of my school days</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>I love science but could not work in a laboratory</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be a role model for students</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was not sure so I did a Diploma of Education</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching offers convenient hours of work</td>
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<tr>
<td>To improve on some of my teachers I had in my school days</td>
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<td>I like being around people</td>
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When the interviewer asked “Why did you choose to go into teaching?”, BTs typically offered multiple reasons for their decision to become a teacher, not just one, and this is reflected in the frequency of responses in Table 6. For example, Danielle provides four reasons, adaptive and maladaptive, for her choice to become a teacher: firstly, teaching represented an occupational change largely because she was not “fulfilled” and “found it difficult to get work” (maladaptive); secondly, her desire to “share” her “passion for art and design” (adaptive) with others fitted well within the teaching field; thirdly, her “love” of children and working with them (adaptive); and lastly her fondness of being in the school environment (adaptive):

I originally wanted to be a designer and an artist and I found it difficult to get work, I didn’t really feel fulfilled in the job, sitting around and doing whatever someone told me, it wasn’t my cup of tea. So I found that moving into teaching, I could share my passion for art and get people excited about art and design. So, I’ve just felt so at home ever since doing that. So, I just want to share my passion for art and design and hopefully get other people excited about it. I love children and working with children, they are so much fun; I like to be a bit silly and have fun. I love the fulfilment of them learning something new, they found a new technique. I think you learn your foundations from school and your morals from school and I love school and staying in school, so this is my way of staying in school (laughter).

(Danielle, casual relief teacher)

Noteworthy was that there were no patterns of responses that distinguished BTs who were employed on a full-time, fixed-term contract or casual relief basis.

In conclusion, BTs had a large variety of reasons for their decision to enter the teaching occupation; these decisions may be separated into adaptive and maladaptive motivations. The three most popular adaptive reasons were: firstly, “I get on well with kids and I love working with them; secondly, “I always wanted to be a teacher; thirdly, “I like helping people and like to be in a helping-type profession”. The most popular maladaptive reason was “my previous career was not right for me”. Additionally, many BTs gave multiple reasons, both adaptive and maladaptive, for their decision to enter teaching. However, the majority of BTs had adaptive motives to want to become teachers.
**Induction and Orientation**

BTs had a variety of opinions in relation to the induction and orientation they had or had not received from their schools. This study found that 23 out of 41 (56 per cent) BTs had negative experiences and 18 out of 41 (43.9 per cent) BTs had positive experiences to do with their induction and orientation experiences.

Figure 9 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ induction and orientation experiences. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 9 Beginning Teachers' Induction and Orientation Experiences

- Induction & Orientation Experiences
  - Positive Induction & Orientation Experiences
    - Prior induction experience with another school
    - Weekly or regular meetings
    - Spent 2 to 3 days with induction
    - Spread out over a long period of time
  - Tough finding housing
    - Overlooked because of prior work at school
  - Need more time
    - Poor quality
  - Underserved
    - Replaced previous teacher at short notice
  - Rushed or brief
    - No induction & orientation
There were several negative experiences: no induction and orientation at all; a hasty and brief induction and orientation; and BTs being overlooked for induction and orientation because they had formerly worked in some other capacity at their school or they started later in the school calendar year. On the other hand, a substantial number of BTs were satisfied with their induction and orientation. There were various aspects which led to BTs developing positive experiences: a staggered induction and orientation; prior induction and orientation experience with another school or at their current school; prior work experience at their current school in another capacity; and spending two to three full days dedicated to induction and orientation.

The following questions were put to each BT with regards to their induction and orientation experiences: “How would you describe your induction and orientation at this school? Was the induction and orientation you received what you needed?” A considerable number of BTs indicated that they were not pleased with their induction and orientation experiences. Eight BTs, who were employed on a fixed-term contract or permanent basis, indicated that their induction and orientation was rushed and brief. Indeed, 12 out of 41 (29 per cent) BTs said they had no induction at all, and of these, eight were employed on a casual relief basis. Kevin typifies the standard practice for CRTs starting out in a new school:

It all happens very quickly (the induction and orientation process) and I guess when you’re going into a new school it's always a bit stressful, so you kind of get in there, you get a bunch of papers thrust at you and then you run off to whatever classroom you’re supposed to be. So yeah, starting off at a new school is never a particularly good experience, and after a few times it gets more comfortable but it certainly can be difficult.

( Kevin, casual relief teacher)

Danielle echoes the experiences of Kevin; although she was appointed for a period of six weeks at her school as a CRT rather than for one day, she still finds the induction and orientation process daunting:

Pretty hazy (the induction and orientation process), it’s very much going in blind and trying to organise and figure out yourself, I don’t really know much,
where things are. I never got really fully told, you know, what this is, where this is, “this is what we do on this day” you know, what happens in school. I just get up and go and figure it out [myself]. It would be hard if you were just coming in for one day...can imagine it would be crazy.

(Danielle, casual relief teacher, Huntly)

Sarah, another CRT, stresses the importance of schools providing instructional material, which spells out basic rules and procedures pertinent to that school to help induct and orientate that casual relieving teacher. Given that CRTs have a limited time to familiarise themselves with schools and become operational, they need to ‘hit the ground running’:

The schools, some of them, give you booklets and the ones that give you booklets with the bell times and the procedures and everything like that, that helps a lot. If they don’t give you that, then you don’t know what’s gonna happen and some schools don’t give you anything.

(Sarah, casual relief teacher)

When schools do not provide this basic resource to aid CRTs, they may rely on students for direction, with unhelpful consequences:

You ask the kids [in the absence of instructional material of procedures and rules] and then the kids lie.

(Sarah, casual relief teacher)

Moreover, another CRT, Lata, raises a more serious scenario for the lack of induction and orientation:

The CRT, they don’t have protocols, like the regular teacher [has] to manage the behaviour [of students] and for the CRT there is no information, so if something happen[s] in the class the teacher will be more in risk.

(Lata, casual relief teacher)

The lack of induction and orientation was not exclusively relevant for CRTs – some BTs on fixed-term contracts and full-time permanent positions missed out as well. All these BTs began mid-term and not at the start of the school year, when conventionally fresh teachers are inducted and orientated to their new school. Bill was one of these BTs:

I came in half way through [the year], I replaced a teacher who left because of
stress leave, because of the learning team he had, he was having trouble with a difficult group of students and I was sort of thrown into the deep end. So it was a bit scary, most definitely, I felt under prepared, I didn’t go through any real induction processes as such.

(Bill, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Kenworth)

Moreover, Jim illustrates the process when a BT is quickly appointed by the school:

It was very rushed, I was sort of offered the position on a Thursday and I began on the Monday and it was a full day of teaching on the first Monday so I basically was given a folder of “this is what you need to do and we’ll see you Monday”, so it was, yeah, that made the process really difficult.

(Jim, first year, fixed-term contract teacher, Banksia)

Similarly, Glenda was appointed to her teaching position only a few days before the school term. In addition, she had already worked at her school in another capacity as a tutor; these factors all resulted in her being overlooked for induction and orientation:

I kind of missed it (induction and orientation) because I was put on a day and a half before school started, but I’ve worked here before part-time as a tutor, so I didn’t officially have an induction – I missed out. I actually sat on this year’s induction and orientation as a KLA (Key Learning Area) leader and I’ve found out some things that I didn’t know, even though I’ve been working here for a year. I think for the first six months it made it harder (missing out on induction and orientation), just not knowing if I was doing the right thing sometimes, not knowing where to go for things, that sort of thing.

(Glenda, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Nelson)

Phoebe provides another example of a BT being overlooked for induction and orientation seemingly due to having worked at her school in another capacity and not beginning her employment at the start of the school year. Prior to her selection for a fixed-term contract position she had worked for three days as a CRT at her school. In addition, Phoebe replaced a teacher who had suddenly resigned:

My induction was classed as those three days where I came here and worked as a CRT. I had a meeting with, you know, the Assistant Principal here, [for] a little bit, and she sort of loosely went through the school. I met with someone
else who looks after the graduates (BTs), we had a one hour meeting and he gave me a few booklets and said “read this”. And then I met with my Head for one hour and he gave me a few books and said “good luck” as well, and that was it, and then I was off and going...I feel like I needed more absolutely; there’s been times with policies and different rules and the way we do things, there was things I didn’t know about that I had to make up on the go...I think the grads (BTs) that started at the beginning of the year definitely got more (support, induction and orientation), definitely got more.

(Phoebe, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

Having prior school experience, in another work mode, also appears to have worked against Sharon with regard to her induction and orientation. To make matters worse Sharon replaced a sick teacher during mid-term and was employed as a CRT while teaching VCE maths because the school did not know when the original teacher would be returning from sick leave. Therefore, Sharon had to live with the daily uncertainty of insecure employment while teaching the most academically demanding year level at her school:

I think the hard part was, I was expected to, you know, teach year 12 (maths) methods, teach year 11 (maths) methods and teach year 10 advanced (maths) and prepare for all that, as well as being classified as a CRT, so I would do all that as well as teach five periods a day, it was a lot to take on...I just wasn’t inducted or anything, because it wasn’t clear how long I was going to stay here for.

(Sharon, third year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

In fact, from the total of 33 fixed-term contract and permanent full-time BTs, seven (21 per cent) of them had to be hired quickly after the unexpected departure of the former teacher. Furthermore, three out of five BTs, all on fixed-term contracts, were from Oak Bank; they all missed out on their induction and orientation programs due to being hired quickly and not starting at the beginning of the year, after the abrupt leaving of the former teacher. With sudden appointments by schools to meet abrupt departures, these BTs all had a rushed and cursory induction and orientation. The net result is that the early stages of their employment are marked by stress and uncertainty instead of confidence and assuredness.
On the other hand, 18 out of 41 (43 per cent) BTs indicated that their experiences of induction and orientation were positive. Sabrina from Nelson seems to typify the practice of a fulfilling induction and orientation to a new school:

Yep, really good (induction and orientation), I went in [to the school] at the end of last year, when I did get employed, and came in there and saw how the school worked, and sat down met the teachers, also we met them again, I think it was the last week of school, when there wasn’t as many classes were running, so we went in there with all the teachers, they were able to talk to us. That’s when we laid out all the work, and did all those plannings, that’s when they showed us around, where all the store rooms were for the sports gear, took us around tours of the school, gave us, like, welcome packs with folders, name badges and everything like that.

(Sabrina, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Nelson)

There are three main characteristics of Sabrina’s positive induction and orientation experience: firstly, there was a long time period from her appointment to her teaching position to actually starting work (perhaps three months); secondly, she met and engaged with the other teaching staff on multiple occasions at the end of school calendar year, when the atmosphere is more relaxed; and lastly, she participated in curriculum planning for the following year, giving her some control in the teaching material she arranged to deliver to her students and making her feel part of the team. The sum of all these experiences equates to an easier transition to a new work environment, where the BT feels confident and assured within the new surroundings.

Moreover, BTs who had positive experiences of their induction and orientation indicated that their program was spread out over a long period of time. Bella echoes Sabrina’s satisfying induction and orientation:

We had a couple of orientation days, one or two the year before, I think it was like in December or November, and then we had three days of curriculum days, so I think with all of that…plus I kept in contact with the school over the [summer] holidays (about a six to seven week period) so I think all of those contact days eased the anxiety.

(Bella, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Rusden)
Three BTs also added that weekly or regular induction meetings helped to ‘iron out’ issues, such as student management and becoming registered with the Victorian Institute of Teaching (VIT) as a formal requirement to practise teaching in Victoria. Two BTs had gone through the process in becoming registered with VIT at another school and therefore felt confident in the induction process at their current school, while five out of 41 (12 per cent) BTs stated that having prior work experience in another capacity helped them ease into their school. Unlike for Glenda, Sharon and two other BTs, prior school experience was a benefit for Ruby, not a disadvantage with respect to induction and orientation. She states that doing her pre-compulsory teacher training at the same school where she was later employed was an advantage with regard to her induction and orientation:

[It was] excellent, really, really good (the induction and orientation). 'Cause I did my internship here I kind of already knew everything, yeah.

(Ruby, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Huntly)

Lastly, five out of 41 (12 per cent) BTs indicated that spending two to three days devoted to induction and orientation was beneficial. Indeed, it appears that some BTs would obviously like more time for induction and orientation with their new school. For instance, Kim from Lansen, despite spending two days in her induction and orientation, indicated that she “would have liked to spend more time [in induction and orientation]”. However, there comes a point in time when the question, ‘What is enough induction and orientation for the needs of BTs?’ needs to be raised. Bella realises this point; while she was “feeling quite anxious” before starting at her new school, schools can only do so much in terms of induction and orientation with the rest being up to the BT:

Yes. I don’t think you can ever be one hundred per cent prepared until you actually step into that classroom on your own. So they can talk and talk and talk, it’s not the same when you’re in there (the classroom).

(Bella, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Rusden)

In conclusion, CRTs were the most disadvantaged in regard to the provision of an induction program: all eight casual relief BTs indicated that they had a very brief or no induction and orientation from their schools. Moreover, often CRTs would be overlooked by schools in providing them with basic rules and procedures to help
them perform in a proficient manner. Some BTs on fixed-term contracts and full-time permanent positions were also overlooked for induction and orientation, especially those who did not begin their employment at the start of the school calendar year. Indeed, three out of five of these BTs, all on fixed-term contracts, were from Oak Bank; they all missed out on their induction and orientation programs due to being hired quickly and not starting at the beginning of the year, after the abrupt departure of the former teacher. The net result is that the early stages of their employment were marked by stress and uncertainty instead of confidence and assuredness. Schools need a dedicated induction and orientation program tailored for those BTs not employed at the beginning of the school year, when such programs are typically administered. On the positive side, 18 out of 41 (43 per cent) BTs indicated that their experiences of induction and orientation were positive. The hallmarks of a positive induction and orientation process seem to be: a longer rather than shorter time frame; multiple time points when the BT has an opportunity to meet with his or her new colleagues and surroundings; and the involvement in curriculum planning for cementing future teaching expectations.

Mentoring and Support from Experienced Teachers

Six aspects emerged with regard to the mentoring experienced by BTs. There were many negative mentoring experiences: absent mentors; no allocated mentors; not enough mentoring; and unqualified mentors. On the affirmative side, two aspects emerged from this study with regard to mentoring: positive mentoring experiences; and BTs feeling confident enough to not rely as much on their mentors. Finally, many BTs indicated that the support provided to them by experienced teachers was also valuable and constructive. However, some BTs indicated that they were disappointed with the lack of support provided by experienced teachers.

Figure 10 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ experiences of mentoring and support by experienced teachers. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 10 Beginning Teachers' Experiences of Mentoring & Support by Experienced Teachers

Positive mentoring experiences

Negative mentoring experiences

- No mentors for fixed-term contract teachers
- Use of unqualified mentors
- Underserved mentoring
- Undesirable experiences with experienced teachers
- Absent or sick mentors
- No mentor designated

Do not need mentoring as much as I used to

Positive experiences with experienced teachers
When the question “How would you describe your mentoring experiences at your school?” was put to them, 20 out of 41 (49 per cent) BTs said that their mentoring experience was not satisfying. When CRTs are removed from the 41 BTs, since none of them was assigned a mentor, the percentage of dissatisfaction rises to 60 per cent (20 out of 33 BTs). In addition, eight out of 41 (19.5 per cent) BTs stated that they were dissatisfied by the lack of support provided by experienced teachers, when asked “How would you describe your support by experienced teachers?”

Of those 20 BTs who were dissatisfied with their mentoring, 10 (50 per cent) indicated that their designated mentors were often not available to meet. The main reasons for mentors being absent were time constraints: difficulty in finding the time for both the mentor and mentee to meet and discuss issues. Imogene provides a typical example:

The leader for English had fantastic ideas but did not have the time [to meet]. We didn’t have [a] common time off ’cause she was off teaching year 10. Yeah, it was hard, she offered help but [it was difficult] finding that time to even do it (mentoring).

(Imogene, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract, Kenworth)

In addition to time restraints, some schools can structurally make the practice of mentoring difficult for some BTs. Phoebe highlights the problem of not having her mentor in close proximity:

I’ve barely had any relationship with my mentor, she’s at another campus. We never see each other, she’s always busy and I’m always busy.

(Phoebe, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

Glenda, a career-change BT, highlights another issue on the topic of mentoring. She is a mature aged BT aged in her 50s and was taken for granted with regard to being appointed a mentor, in the sense that she was mistakenly seen as more capable and experienced by her age alone and for the previous work she had done at her school as a part-time tutor. All these factors led to her being overlooked for mentoring and support by experienced teachers:

Being older, people think that I’m experienced and in some ways taken for granted by some people...I’m thinking that probably because I’m older too,
she (the mentor) probably thought that I didn’t need it. If I was straight out of uni I would probably get more support. I think ageism is probably the issue here unwittingly. And probably because she (the mentor) thinks that I’m pretty good in the classroom (from her previous role as a tutor). She (the mentor) probably thinks that I don’t need it (the support). I was without a mentor for at least the first term, four or five months, probably a bit longer. I didn’t speak out because I didn’t realise I was meant to have one (a mentor). Yep, it was a bit tough.

(Glenda, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Nelson)

Of those who were dissatisfied with their mentoring practices, 11 out of 20 (55 per cent) BTs stated that they went for long periods without a mentor or did not have a mentor appointed. Bill provides an illustration:

[Mentoring is] non-existent. Just because the lack thereof. I can go and ask for help from particular people, curriculum area leaders, learning team leaders, year level leaders, but there’s no person designated to sit down with me, to a particular time and go through certain things. I’m not sure why that is the case. I guess everyone is so busy from the top down.

(Bill, third year full-time permanent teacher, Kenworth)

However, one BT who did not have an official mentor was, despite this, very happy because of the support he was given by experienced teachers:

I never had an official mentor here but as I said there’s been a couple of staff members who’ve really taken me under their wing, and even leadership staff in the school, the principal staff have been fantastic, really approachable and supportive.

(Shane, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract, Port Duke)

To reiterate, almost all of the casual relief teachers claimed that they did not have an allocated mentor and not much support from experienced teachers either. Bruce and Frank provide characteristic responses, reflecting on their temporary nature as casual relief teachers:
[I have] very little (mentoring), especially when asked for it, um, it's normally disregarded and ignored. Any behaviour issues, which I find very frustrating. So yeah, not much, not much support.

(Bruce, casual relief teacher)

Pretty thin (mentoring). If you have a problem your best bet is to try and solve it and sort it out yourself even though that’s not necessarily what they tell you. Because by the time you’ve spoken to anyone or you’ve kind of managed to process a problem with a student or anything, it’s the end of the day and it’s all over. Yeah. So yeah, your best bet is to not have problems and just to deal with them yourself.

(Frank, casual relief teacher)

Another aspect that emerged was not enough mentoring. Indeed, eight out of the 20 (40 per cent) BTs who were dissatisfied with their mentoring practices stated this to be the case. Jerry highlights a characteristic example, when he describes his need for more feedback to improve his quality of teaching practice:

I would say that we could definitely have more (mentoring), although we work in pods (small teams of four teachers). Although I work with more experienced teachers, we don’t usually have another teacher who sits back and watches and makes comments, that sort of thing, provide us with any feedback. That only happens once maybe a semester. To be any real benefit, that should be happening once a month to get any regular consistent feedback. Classroom management, how I set up and deal with situations that sort of thing.

(Jerry, third year full-time permanent teacher, Kenworth)

Despite the numbers being small, another feature was the use of unqualified mentors being allocated to BTs. Of those who were dissatisfied with their mentoring practices, three out of 20 (15 per cent) BTs stated this to be the case. Brittany presents a typical example of a BT being allocated an under-qualified mentor:

My mentor was in her third year [of teaching]. She was quite young which was easy for me to approach her and ask her certain things. [However] I don’t feel like I learnt a lot from her. Just really, the basics I guess.
On the other hand, 18 out of 41 (44 per cent) BTs stated they had positive mentoring experiences. Ken encapsulates the kind of constructive and healthy mentoring practices that seem to be successful:

Yeah, very good [mentoring]. My mentor is very respected by the children and staff, has a lot of good ideas; if I have any questions, he answers them straight out or he’ll email or send me documents that I can use to teach ‘cause we teach some of the same year levels. If he does a good activity and I say, “What can I do to teach the kids about illegal drugs?”, he’ll send me a PowerPoint or something. He likes to catch up once a week at least and just have a chat, but we’re in the same office anyway so we chat every day.

Finally, several BTs stated that they were not overly reliant on their mentors as they once were, which suggests a growth in their confidence and development as teachers. With both negative and positive elements, use of mentors and support by senior teachers is a complex theme.

**Professional Development**

BTs had a range of views in relation to the professional development (PD) courses they had or had not received. There were many negative experiences: no PD offered; fewer opportunities for PD; and unhelpful PD. Numerous BTs also indicated that they were too busy for PD and it was not a priority for them. On the other hand, most BTs were pleased with their PD programs and were pleased when their school encouraged them to seek PD. In addition, many BTs indicated the PD programs they attended were helpful for their needs as developing teachers.

Figure 11 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ professional development experiences. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 11 Beginning Teachers' Professional Development Experiences
The following questions were posed at each BT interview with regard to their PD experiences: “How much professional development have you received? What kind? Is this what you expected?” Many of the BTs had positive experiences to do with their PD programs. Indeed, 17 out of 41 (41 per cent) BTs indicated that their PD courses were helpful. However, 14 out of 41 (38 per cent) BTs indicated that they were not pleased with their PD programs. Moreover, every casual relief BT interviewed (8 out of 8) said that PD was not offered to them by their school.

In response to the lack of PD offered to casual teachers, Bruce relies on developing his professional teaching skills “on the job”. For instance, he seems to have gained knowledge and skills on how to operate the electronic whiteboard through the assistance of his students:

But I pick up a lot of stuff on the job too, like the whiteboard training, I picked up really quickly. Just through myself and working with students; sometimes you say [to the students], “Oh, can you show me how to do it (operating the electronic whiteboard) at the end of the class” a lot of the time.

(Bruce, casual relief teacher)

Jeff points out a restriction of casual relief teaching per se when it comes to developing professionally as a teacher:

I think you grow as a teacher through CRT (casual relief teaching) work just by being adaptable and learning about different school environments, but you don’t develop as a professional, you know, you just grow as far as your manner with kids.

(Jeff, casual relief teacher)

Therefore, in some ways Jeff is implying that PD is irrelevant and unnecessary for those teachers who solely practise casual relief teaching. In fact, the whole notion of PD for casual relief teachers seems somewhat ludicrous and uneconomical to Frank:

That wouldn’t make sense [for casual relief teachers to be invited to do PD]. You’re only called in because they’re (the school is) short of teachers to man the classrooms. So as soon as you walk in the door [of the school] that’s what you’re set up for. So yeah, for them to call in a CRT (casual relief teacher), who they (the school) have to pay additional from their budget and then for
them (the school) to be putting them on a PD as opposed to in a classroom, it’s pretty unlikely.

(Frank, casual relief teacher)

Kevin echoes the belief that casual relief teachers are either not entitled to PD, or that schools view them as not worthy for PD:

I guess they (schools) sort of see things as you’re not teaching full-time, so you don’t need to continue learning about this kind of stuff (PD).

(Kevin, casual relief teacher)

Another issue is that, although some teaching agencies offer their pool of casual relief teachers PD, this comes at a high financial cost to some teachers. For instance, Sarah and Lata find it prohibitive to participate in PD offered by their teaching agencies with their limited budget:

No, no because, um, well, our income would be around $20,000 a year and you don’t want to be spending $500 on professional development when you probably won’t use it in the near future anyway.

(Sarah, casual relief teacher)

Yeah, but we have to spend our own money. And like in my case if they (the teaching agency) organise something during the holidays we have to pay extra money for our children to be looked after, so it’s (PD) not worth doing.

(Lata, casual relief teacher)

However, the consequences for casual relief teachers abandoning their PD may have negative ramifications for their future teaching employment prospects. Danielle recognises this concern:

When I haven’t done PD, I feel a little bit behind, I think it’s more of a concern if someone is going to employ me full-time, “Oh, she’s not that active in pursuing her teaching” (voiced by potential employer).

(Danielle, casual relief teacher)

In contrast to casual relief teachers stating they received no PD from schools, seven out of 41 (17 per cent) BTs indicated that they were exposed to limited opportunities for PD. One reason for this belief was that schools could not afford PD:
It’s not what I expected. I just thought there would be opportunity, I’m not saying there’s not, I don’t even bother applying (for PD) because I’m going to be rejected, it might cost too much. I’ve heard discussions in the staffroom that they’re not going to bother applying for this PD because it’s going to cost too much, the school has got to pay you to go to PD and they have got to pay to cover you. It’s just too much (costs) and I think we are all that busy that it (PD) is on the backburner.

(Sharon, third year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

Phoebe and Imogene echo Sharon’s view, when it comes to their schools not encouraging PD opportunities:

But yeah, there’s nothing, there’s never any signs up or posters, there’s nothing about PD, I never hear anyone talk of PD.

(Phoebe, first year, six months contract teacher, Paulson)

I haven’t had much of that opportunity at all. At the start of the year you fill out a form of the kinds of PDs you would like to do to reach your goals but it’s like another “tick the box” thing.

(Imogene, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract, Kenworth)

Almost a quarter of BTs (10 out of 41 or 24 per cent) indicated that some PD was a waste of time. Natasha believes some PD is too theory based and has little practical use:

A lot of the time I find its fantastic theory but the people aren’t seeing it happen in a classroom, they have unrealistic expectations that all the kids will respond in certain ways, they don’t see that not every kid is that perfect angel in whatever school that they did this PD in. I just didn’t find some of it very practical at all.

(Natasha, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Banksia)

The observation that some PD is removed from ‘real-life’ experiences is repeated by Alana and Peter:

There’s a lot of PD out there that’s just crap. Sometimes the people who present the PD say things that are so incredibly out of touch [of what really goes on in schools].
I’m doing Emerging Leaders (PD) every three weeks. Every three weeks on Monday, which can be a bit annoying sometimes, some of the concepts we cover are just…it’s pretty irrelevant.

(Peter, first year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

What was also related was that PD presented after school was less useful because BTs were tired after their busy day of teaching. Therefore, they were less receptive to absorbing new information. For instance, Natasha and Tracy have both indicated this to be the case:

By end of the day you're not really paying attention [to the PD].

(Natasha, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Banksia)

Well, I just find that sort of [PD], you know, sitting in a meeting after school for an hour, already really tired (from the day of teaching duties) and someone’s just talking at me about [some PD].

(Tracy, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Paulson)

It appears from the interviews that BTs have drawn a distinction between two types of PD offered to them by their schools: in-house PD and out-of-house PD. Out-of-house PD is when teachers go out of their school for PD programs. This usually means a paid day out of their work routine and seems by some BTs more desirable than going to in-house PD. Imogene and Tracy’s expectations were of more out-of-school PD being offered to them:

No, not at all, I guess I expected to go off (outside school) on numerous PDs, I know they cost a lot of money, but maybe one a term or semester, wanting to come back and be really inspired by the PD and implement what I have learnt; that hasn't happened at all.

(Imogene, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract, Kenworth)

No, I probably expected more sort of outside PDs rather than guest speakers coming in. You know, actually going and doing a full day of something, whatever it is, whether it’s behavioural strategies or [something else].
[However, we get] bits and pieces like guest speakers that might come in and they might talk about…Not even in a meeting, an hour, you know, just to sort of talk about whatever it is they’re talking about maybe for about an hour. (Tracy, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Paulson)

Another finding was that several BTs stated that they were too busy for PD; seven out of 41 (17 per cent) BTs believed this to be the case. These BTs indicated that taking time off to do PD interfered with their previously planned work schedules for their students. Linda and Ruby highlight this when work commitments obstruct the time for PD. Linda has been teaching for less than six months and consequently finds her main focus is to gain a sense of control of her classroom and hence PD is not a priority for her at the moment:

I am so streamlined in just focusing on the teaching side of it at the moment that what’s going on outside [my classroom] has no impact. I don’t feel it (PD) is as important to me yet ’cause I don’t see past the classroom and what I need to do being a graduate [teacher]. So when I do get more comfortable in just going into the classroom and whatever, I will start to look at the PD side of things. So, like leadership and things like that I have an interest in, but not yet.

(Linda, first year, 6 months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

Ruby stresses her reluctances to commit to PD when it interferes with her classroom duties:

But one of the problems [when doing PD] is when they’re run during school [hours], then I feel like, “Oh, I don’t really want to do this”. You know, I’ve got a certain plan or a timeline that I want to stick to for my classes. I don’t really want to take a day [off] to go on a PD, you know, so that’s probably just the only thing (issue).

(Ruby, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Huntly)

Moreover, two BTs who teach VCE were even more reluctant to obligate themselves to PD at the expense of their students. Sharon illustrates that her main concern is her VCE students rather than her PD:
I've also got my year 11s and 12s (VCE students), don't want to leave them; most PDs are on Thursdays, that's my busy day so it's, I'd rather be getting my kids through their [VCE] course than go to PD.

(Sharon, third year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

In contrast, most BTs had positive experiences to do with their PD programs. In fact, 17 out of 41 (41 per cent) BTs indicated that their PD experiences were positive. Moreover, 11 out of 41 (27 per cent) BTs stated that their school actively encouraged them to search for PD programs. Interestingly, BTs did not offer much elaboration on their positive experiences of PD, which supports the notion that people are more willing to speak about negative experiences than positive ones.

Summing up, BTs ranged in their assessment of their PD experiences, with approximately 40 per cent pleased, 38 per cent dissatisfied, and the remainder ambivalent or undecided. It appears that casual relief teachers are disadvantaged the most with few or no PD opportunities. With this lack of opportunity, some casual relief teachers believe they are not entitled to do PD, or they believe that there is no place for professional development within their role as CRTs. However, as one casual relief teacher, Danielle, recognised, she may be left behind if she did not actively pursue PD for future teaching prospects. In addition, some BTs indicated that they received limited PD opportunities; one explanation for this was that their school could not afford them. Another aspect was that several BTs thought that PD was a waste of time, particularly if they were too theory based. Finally, various BTs thought that PD was not a priority for them, particularly if it impeded with their teaching duties. This was particularly so for VCE BTs, where their main priority was their students rather than their own professional development.

**Workload**

The workload theme was not a straightforward issue of merely hours of work per week completed for BTs, and six sub-themes emerged: heavy workload; micro-politics intertwined with workload; heavy workload due to premature promotions; oscillating workload; manageable workload; and undersupplied workload.
Figure 12 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ workload experiences. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities (except for the entity of highly engaged persister BTs exploited by some senior teachers) but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 12 Beginning Teachers' Workload Experiences

- Workload Experiences
  - Negative workload assessment
    - Fluctuating workload for CRTs: Taming or feast
      - Need to supplement income with other work
  - Enrolled in further studies
  - Highly Engaged Persistor BTs exploited by some senior teachers
  - VCE teaching
    - Its hard only due to being first year
  - Coordinator roles
  - Positive work-life balance
  - Manageable workload
When the question “What is your workload and how do you feel about it?” was put to them, 24 out of 41 (58 per cent) BTs described their workload in a negative light. Those BTs who declared that they had too much work were either employed on a full-time permanent or fixed-term contract basis. Casual relief teachers, by their very nature, may easily regulate their workload if it becomes excessive by simply working less. A heavy workload was a concern for many BTs, seemingly regardless of how much experience they had in teaching. For instance, Brittany was in her third year and Phoebe had less than three months’ experience:

In terms of workload, it is never ending. Like today I didn’t have a lunch time, ’cause I’m in with the kids, they haven’t finished their work, I’m on a cooperation panel, this year I’m teaching subjects that I didn’t teach last year, I’m constantly making new resources.
(Brittany, third year full-time permanent teacher, Sandy Point)

[It is] constant. Yeah, ’cause you think you’re on top of it and then, yeah, it’s just never ending. I never feel like I’m on top of everything and I like to be, you know, yeah, I never feel like I’m on top of everything.
(Phoebe, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

To probe the concern of workload a little deeper, Bill describes the psychological burden he has to carry as a teacher in order to measure up to his own expectations as a teacher:

It’s stressful; it’s hard to keep on top of it (workload). You just have to cut corners, then you’re not doing your job properly and that hurts your own self-esteem, so it’s a vicious cycle; at times I feel angry, definitely. I think the most important thing that you need to understand is more the psychological weight of it than anything else. You’re always thinking about work...
(Bill, third year full-time permanent teacher, Kenworth)

Alana has a similar view to Bill in respect to work taking over her life:

Look, I really enjoy teaching, I love teaching, but I feel like it’s more my life than it’s my job. It’s all consuming, I’m recently having trouble with that...a lot of other jobs you can leave at work.
(Alana, second year 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth)
Bill, who submitted his resignation to the school administration immediately before being interviewed for this study, expressed that his teaching work was dominating his standard of living, becoming more of a “lifestyle” than a profession. This corresponds with Alana’s view of her work being “all consuming”:

You read the newspaper (in leisure time) and you think that my kids (students) will get something out of that. It (teaching) becomes more of a lifestyle than a profession. There’s always something on in the back of your mind (with regard to work).

(Bill, third year full-time permanent teacher, Kenworth)

To highlight another example, it appears that Jim (first year teacher, six months fixed-term contract, Banksia) who has worked for less than four weeks has realised that teaching is not a regular ‘nine to five’ job, where one can easily switch off after the working day. Jim’s outlook is also supported by Bella:

It would be really nice to have a weekend where I don’t have to think about work, and I know that’s very common in lots of jobs...

(Bella, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Rusden)

Those BTs who expressed that their workload was a problem for them gave a number of explanations. The main reason had to do with excessive duties outside of their actual face-to-face teaching with their students. These excessive duties, which included parent communications, various meetings and administration tasks, are illustrated by Phoebe and Betty:

Most of the time we have two or three meetings a week so I think in that way it’s a bit hard, especially when you’ve had a full day and then you have a meeting as well.

(Phoebe, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

Talking to coordinators about kids who are having issues, filling out forms that notify the coordinators that this kid might fail, calling parents, writing detentions, organising detentions, running detentions, all that kind of stuff, trying to get kids to catch up on their work. So it’s the stuff you don’t really think about that does take quite a bit of time.

(Betty, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Rusden)
At times these duties seemed unnecessarily frustrating and pointless to some BTs:

Some things, um, it just feels like you’re repeating yourself. Like we’re going through a stage where we’re looking at our curriculum and how we should map it but we did this last year and now we’ve had someone come into the school and say, “Oh, this is the way that you need to do it as a whole school”. And it’s like, “but we just did this stuff last year”, but it’s in the format that he thinks is most important, so you just feel like you’re repeating yourself.

(Rod, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Port Duke)

Sometimes [it] feels like just jumping through hoops, instead of doing things that are meaningful, like we put our grades up online and I think about the amount of time it takes me to do, often in my personal time, not time I’m allocated at school to get that done...I put these marks online. It takes me five to 10 hours, and knowing that they’re (students) not reading them and half the parents don’t read them, I wonder, it seems like it lacks purpose to me. I feel like there’s a lot of things I’m doing that lack purpose; if parents are getting online and reading it (her comments on students’ work), fair enough.

(Alana, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth)

For some BTs micro-politics is tangled with their workload. Even though the numbers are low, particularly remarkable is that four out of 41 BTs (9.75 per cent), from three different schools, believed that their work efforts were exploited by higher-ranking experienced teachers or by their school administration. For instance, Imogene who was teaching English out-of-field, naturally found the subject matter difficult and was relying on her more experienced colleagues to provide guidance and support but found the contrary:

Teaching English was very overwhelming, I didn’t have any experience in teaching English and I felt, working with four [other] teachers, that I would have the support and I would be okay but I felt like I was doing most of the teaching, most of the planning, and for a young teacher with no experience in teaching English whatsoever, [it] became very overwhelming and you kind of question, “Are the kids getting enough out of it?”. I’m personally not
trained in that area, that’s a hard thing working together with four other teachers; who steps up? I was unfortunately working with some people who weren’t as well organised as what I am. Yes, I found that a bit of a struggle. (Imogene, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth)

A similar account was provided by Brittany: she felt exploited by her literacy coordinator when planning and designing student curriculum:

Everyone has to pull their own weight but no one does. Us little guys (beginning teachers), us little plebs (beginning teachers) down at the bottom are working our arses off, and some of these Leading Teachers, who have been teaching for however many years, they are taking from us (becoming emotional and teary). There’s this literacy coordinator and I’m giving her all my year 8 stuff and I have nothing back and it’s very frustrating because, us little guys down at the bottom who are in their second or third year, creating new and innovative stuff, “Oh well, we’ll just take from them, we don’t want to really worry about it”. You know, they (Leading Teachers) don’t show up for meetings. I don’t feel supported by some Leading Teachers who are mentors. They’re meant to be leading us and there’s no direction. So you have to make your own direction. (Brittany, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Sandy Point)

Another dimension to this issue is that it appears that some BTs had been identified somewhat prematurely by their respective schools as future leaders. Again, even though the numbers are low, five out of 41 (12.2 per cent) BTs interviewed claimed that they had coordinator positions, usually reserved for experienced teachers. This added responsibility made those BTs’ workload even more demanding as Tracy, a year nine coordinator, highlights:

Like I feel like there’s never a time that I can sit at my desk and say, “Oh, I have nothing to do”, it’s like I’m constantly drowned, you know; you try to get your head above and you just cannot do it, it’s just impossible. (Tracy, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Paulson)

Similarly, five out 41 (12.2 per cent) BTs were allotted VCE (Victorian Certificate of Education) teaching positions and they claimed that this made their workload more burdensome. VCE is the highest and most demanding level at secondary school for
both students and teachers. With the subsequent completion of VCE, students then compete for university places. To highlight this higher responsibility, Betty presents an insight into her arduous workload in teaching VCE:

It’s quite overwhelming to have that many VCE students. I love teaching them, I love teaching VCE, but just in terms of the marking, especially with English ’cause I mean essays and things like that it’s just quite overwhelming sometimes, the marking and, you know, I get to work at about 7.30 [in the morning] and I work most nights.

(Betty, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Rusden)

Another observation with respect to workload was that nine out of 41 (22 per cent) BTs stated their workload fluctuated throughout the year:

It depends, it varies, it’s either really, really busy and it’s every day, full days, and that’s in term 2 and 3. In term 1 and 4 you’re lucky to get two days a week.

(Frank, casual relief teacher)

Obviously report time’s a lot more (work), when I’m marking exams it’s a lot more (work), it goes up and down. Like this weekend I might have two hours (of work) but like report time I’ll be probably all day.

(Bella, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Rusden)

Some BTs, six out of 41 (14.63 per cent) recognised that their demanding workload was only temporary and what they expected. It was only a matter of time for them to become more familiar and better equipped with their new role of being a teacher:

I think it’d be the same everywhere though, like I think the first year’s tough, but I think...like I wouldn’t say it’s this school that makes it tough, I think it’s just the first year everywhere.

(Emma, first year, 12 months fixed term contract teacher, Huntly)

Look, I’m thinking that the workload is tough only ’cause it’s my first year, and because it’s a new school there’s nothing that’s pre-set.

(Peter, first year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson Central)

Despite this, not every BT said that their workload was burdensome. Especially
noteworthy is that all four BTs interviewed at Lansen claimed that they were pleased with their workload. This may suggest that workload is an issue which could be school specific. It appears that some schools are taking better care of their BTs. Ken provides a typical response to his workload at Lansen:

Yeah, very good (workload). So graduate load I think it’s 0.8 so we get a reduced load and a couple of spare periods on top of that, it’s just…yeah, it’s very good (workload).

(Ken, first year, 6 months fixed-term contract teacher, Lansen)

Many other BTs (17 out of 41 or 41 per cent) claimed that their workload was manageable. This may be the result of having effective personal organisation skills. Ruby provides a good example of this:

For the first year, to be honest I thought I wasn’t working hard enough. Yeah, because I always got the feeling that everyone said, ‘Oh, you know, first year teaching you really push yourself’, and I was like I’m getting everything done.

(Ruby, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Huntly)

In contrast to those BTs employed under a fixed-term contract and permanent full-time permanent basis, six out of eight (75 per cent) casual relief teachers asserted that they needed more work. They hoped that they may be offered more work by their schools:

Well, most of the year’s quiet. Like I’ve spoken to my boss and she said term three’s good, there’s lots of work, you can work as much as you want, but now teachers are getting one to two days a week, I mean that’s not enough, that’s making yourself available every day, you might get one to two days’ work.

(Sarah, casual relief teacher)

Consequently, seven out of eight (87.5 per cent) casual relief teachers have stated that they supplement their income with other part-time work. These jobs included private tutoring, factory work, hospitality employment, working at a dog kennel and security work. Often this leaves casual relief teachers in a financially unstable situation. Jeff, who adds to his income from casual relief teaching by working as a grocer, laments his financial situation:
Like with the casual work, I haven’t had any work (in teaching) for the past two weeks so therefore I’m relying on my other income and that’s not huge so therefore I’m pretty broke at the moment.

(Jeff, casual relief teacher)

Furthermore, a single female casual relief teacher with children finds herself locked into a complex ‘welfare trap’. Debra becomes ineligible for government unemployment benefits if she works more than two days per week as a casual relief teacher. She has been seeking full-time teaching work for more than two years to get her out of her predicament:

I voluntarily only do (work) two days a week ’cause I’ve got two young children and mostly survive on Centrelink benefits (welfare). So my budget allows for me to enrol them in permanent child care two days a week, and if I work then it’s a bonus for me both mentally and financially, and if I don’t work then I can still afford to send them to child care for the day.

(Debra, casual relief teacher, Sandy Point)

Lastly, four out of eight (50 per cent) of the casual relief teachers stated that they were enrolled or planned to enrol in further study. These courses were intended to either enhance their employment prospects in the teaching profession or to provide a pathway for alternative professions in the future. No teacher employed under fixed-term contract or full-time permanent arrangement expressed an interest in committing to further study.

As described above, workload is an issue for most BTs but the issue is complicated and not simply focused on hours worked.

**Work–Life Balance**

Four main aspects emerged with regard to the work–life balance of BTs: lack of time for friends and family; work as psychologically omnipresent; not enough time to exercise and eat well; and, in contrast, a healthy work–life balance. Noteworthy was that most BTs teaching at Lansen expressed a positive work–life balance, suggesting school context may be a strong determiner of the work–life balance of BTs.
Figure 13 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ work–life balance experiences. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities (except for the entity of highly engaged persister BTs exploited by some senior teachers) but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 13 Beginning Teachers’ Work–Life Balance Experiences

- **Work - Life Balance Experiences**
  - Positive work-life balance
  - Negative work-life balance
    - Not enough time to cook a decent meal
    - Can not switch off from work
    - Long commute to work
    - For CRTs: difficulty finding childcare at short notice
    - Family & relationships impacts
      - It can fluctuate
      - End of term: report writing
      - Term 2 & 3 are busy

When the question “What is your work–life balance and how do you feel about it?” was put to them, 21 out of 41 (51 per cent) BTs interviewed expressed the opinion that their working life was out of balance with their personal life. In other words, their work responsibilities were disturbing their private lives. Of those 21 BTs who believed their work–life was out of balance, nine (42.8 per cent) believed their family and social relationships were being debilitated by their workload. Phoebe and Glenda provide examples where their family and social relationships have been impacted by their workload:

At the moment with work it’s like this, so I haven’t seen any friends for weeks. Yeah, I’ve been here (at work) all the time. At the moment it’s tiring and it’s stressful. I don’t have a social life at the moment.  
(Phoebe, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

This is where the problem is, this is the problem – time, Just not enough time for everything, so I’ve let a few of my fun things go, I used to be involved in the theatre quite a bit, so I’ve dropped most of that. Not on committees with my children’s school, I used to be on school council, I have dropped those. There’s just preparation (for school) every night. There’s just not enough time here (at the school), I usually do quite a bit [of work] on weekends too. That would be the one problem, the time. I get very tired, I often can’t sleep. 
(Glenda, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Nelson)

Even when BTs did find the time to go out and enjoy their personal lives, their workload was psychologically with them. Imogene and Sharon illustrate this:

Sometimes when you’re out for tea, you think, I should be home and doing work, I’ve got this deadline by Monday. 
(Imogene, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth)

My workload has impacted a lot on my social life, I am always Friday nights at home marking, always doing work on Sunday nights. I pretty much have a Saturday night [to myself] but you’re thinking about what you’re going to do [with work]. You’ve always got something to do; even on the summer holidays, you’re thinking about next year. So it’s impacted a lot.
BTs manage their work–life balance in different ways. For instance, Tracy from Paulson finds that by the time she gets home, she feels “so exhausted and refuses to pick up a book” because it would “burn her out”. To rejuvenate herself for the next working day she goes to bed early “at 9:30 [pm] every night which has never happened” to her before until she began teaching.

For those BTs who have been recruited from Melbourne to work in provincial locations in Victoria, their workload seems to have inhibited them from seeing their family and friends on the weekends. For instance, Alana finds it difficult to see her family in Melbourne:

I’m just sick of my weekends: I like to travel to Melbourne [on the weekends], having been from there, and it compromises that a lot. After school, it [work] takes time away from things that I should be doing for my wellbeing.

(Alana, second year 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth)

Furthermore, there seems to be health implications, with several BTs expressing the view that their workload is impacting on their personal wellbeing. Alana, for example, believes her workload is impacting on her diet:

I don’t always eat properly at school and at home; there’s not enough time to make yourself something decent for dinner.

(Alana, second year 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth)

Tracy from Paulson echoes Alana’s view of there being “not enough time” to eat appropriately. Lunch is often such a rushed affair during work that Tracy has to “scoff” her food quickly during her lunch breaks; partly because her school administration has decided to cut teachers’ lunch-time by “5 or 10 minutes”. In addition, five BTs have explicitly stated that their workload has restricted their opportunity for regular exercise. Madelyn and Brittany, for instance, believe their opportunity to keep fit and maintain a healthy lifestyle has been compromised by their workload:

I feel like I’m not getting enough time at the moment to do exercise, yeah, that’s an annoying thing.

(Madelyn, first year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Lansen)
[Not] being fit, that's what really worries me, weight gain, there's not enough time to exercise. That really worries me. I feel that pressure.

(Brittany, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Sandy Point)

Finally, work–life balance seems to be affected when BTs teach out-of-field, or a new area in which they haven’t taught before, such as VCE for the first time. Sharon illustrates this assertion:

I work and I have a little bit of a life on the weekend. I think this year has been a massive shock to the system, 'cause I’ve taken on year 11 methods and year 10 advanced. I understand the content but I’ve never taught it before.

(Sharon, third year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

In contrast, 13 out of 41 (31.2 per cent) BTs indicated that they had a positive work–life balance. Again, even though the numbers are low, noteworthy was that three out of four BTs interviewed at Lansen indicated that they were pleased with their work–life balance. Once more, this may suggest that workload and work–life balance for BTs can be helped by the school context. For example, school policy and the way BTs are managed and cared for by their administration may help promote perceptions of a good work–life balance. Ken, who has been employed for less than three months, provides some insights into his principal's priorities:

When I signed up for the job, Paul, the principal, asked me, you know, "What do I do outside of school?" That was some of his first questions, "What do you do outside of school, what do you do after school, what’s your group of mates (friends) like, are you living by yourself, at home?" I told him all the answers and he’s like, “That’s alright; I just didn’t want you to fizz out". 'Cause he said a lot of teachers don’t have a life outside of work. So I’ve got a good life, like footy training after school, I go to the gym or out with mates. Generally I try to do all my planning and stuff at work, 'cause I’m a graduate load I get a couple of extra spare periods so try to get the most done while I’m here.

(Ken, first year, 6 months fixed-term contract teacher, Lansen)

Clearly the Lansen principal’s approach to managing Paul seems to shape a healthy
and positive work–life balance for him.

**Out-of-field Teaching**

Out-of-field teaching takes place when teachers are “assigned to teach subjects for which they have little preparation, education, or background” (Ingersoll, 2008, p. 369). In this study 19 out of 34 (55.8 per cent) BTs indicated that at some point in the past, or at present, they taught out-of-field. All the CRTs that worked on an ad hoc basis were excluded from this figure of 55.8 per cent, since they are expected to teach or supervise classes from a multitude of fields, making their line of teaching out-of-field most of the time. However, one CRT, Danielle, was included because she was appointed to teach humanities for six weeks. The results showed that for most BTs, teaching out-of-field caused stress and anxiety, while for others it was an enjoyable experience.

Figure 14 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ out-of-field teaching experiences. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them. CRTs were excluded from this figure because they are generally required by schools to teach out-of-field for most of the time.
Figure 14 Beginning Teachers' Out-of-field-teaching Experiences

Out-of-field Teaching Experiences (not including CRTs)

Positive Out-of-field Teaching Experiences

- Easy classes to teach: Yrs. 7 to 8
- Have industry background
- Enjoying it

Negative Out-of-field Teaching Experiences

- Feeling stressed or anxious
- Feeling inadequate
- Feeling uncomfortable
- Not fair on students
- Tired, rundown or sick as a result
- Less enjoyable
- Lack of support
- It distorts my credentials

Have support & resources
To compare BT’s perceived capability to teach out-of-field subjects with the ones that they are trained in, the interviewer invited them to rate themselves from 1 to 10 (with 1 being the lowest and 10 being the highest score). BTs typically gave themselves a high rating for their aptitude to teach a subject in which they were qualified (ranging from 8 to 10). Conversely, BTs gave themselves a low score for subjects they taught out-of-field (ranging from 2 to 5). For example, Shane, a PE and science trained BT, provides a representative example for someone who was required to teach out-of-field mathematics:

At X school I taught maths for the year. That’s a hard one to answer, my capacity to teach the content – a three.

(Shane, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Port Duke)

On the contrary, Aaron, a business and Studies of Society and Environment (SOSE) trained BT, provides a confident response for subjects he is trained in:

Out of 10, well, business is my main one so probably nine out of 10, I’m pretty confident in that one. SOSE, yeah, probably the same just because, you know, that’s what I’m trained in, yeah.

(Aaron, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Oak Bank)

The majority of BTs who were teaching out-of-field indicated that it was an undesirable practice compared to those who enjoyed it: 74 per cent compared to 26 per cent. For instance, at her former school, Natasha, who is trained in English and history, found that she was “stressed-out” teaching geography and business studies:

You’re stressed-out about what’s gonna happen. How you’re gonna stay ahead, ’cause you don’t understand the content yourself. “How [are] you’re meant to explain it (the subject material) to a year 9 or 10 kid who’s looking at you?” [He is] going, “What does this mean?”

(Natasha, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Banksia)

Natasha’s way of coping with teaching out-of-field was to stay “two lessons ahead of the kids” because she did not have “that knowledge” behind her. Furthermore, Imogene, who is PE and humanities trained, found that she was “quite sick” with the “pressure” of being required to teach English:

Lots of pressure, I was stressed, becoming really run down, I was quite sick and I think I put a lot of that pressure on myself; obviously the principal
employed me to teach English, humanities and PE and he said, “This is what you’ve got to do.” I mean I had an interview for that job because I wanted to be at this school and talked myself up, “I can teach this, I know I can teach it” and obviously, it’s been a long time since I ever studied English, in year 12.

(Imogene, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth)

If Ingersoll (2008) defines out-of-field teaching as when a teacher has “little preparation, education, or background in a particular field” (p. 369), it is interesting to consider then what are some of the conditions that ameliorate this practice for BTs. A common account was that those BTs who taught out-of-field began at a junior grade level as the content was less complex and less demanding to teach. For instance, art and media studies BT, Danielle, felt unperturbed when she was assigned to teach humanities for six weeks because the students were in year 7:

When I was told that I would be doing humanities, I wasn’t that worried about it because it was year 7s, that’s quite basic humanities, not year 12 when they are getting into modern history.

(Danielle, Casual Relief Teaching, Huntly)

Kriti provides another example of a junior grade entry level of out-of-field teaching, emphasising that “It’s [a] very low level of maths”:

I was given an opportunity to work with year 7s and 8s in maths over this two years. It’s [a] very low level of maths and I don’t think I have a problem with that.

(Kriti, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Rusden)

Similarly, Diane, who is trained in visual and fine arts, teaches out-of-field English to year 7s; she knows that it would be quite a departure by the school administration to assign her a VCE English class:

I have taught English last year to the year 7s. Now they (the school administration) have asked me to teach it again. Look, I strongly doubt whether they would have a teacher from a non-English [teaching methodology] background teach at VCE level.

(Diane, second year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Sandy Point)

Not all BTs had the luxury of beginning with a junior grade when teaching out-of-field, and some BTs also claimed that they were given little support and guidance by
their school administration, both of which made the situation worse. For instance, Glenda, who taught out-of-field commerce for six months to middle school students, describes how she “stumbled through it” and felt “exhausted”, and was not confident to ask for assistance:

I went to the school website ’cause I didn’t know who to ask. I was very underprepared [to teach commerce] and I kind of feel like I stumbled through it, for the first probably month at least. I didn’t know the school enough to put my hand up and ask [for help] actually. So in the end I found out someone (another teacher) who had taught it, who gave me some PowerPoints [slides] which helped a little bit, but not a lot, and I found a text book in the library. I think it exhausted me because I had to put in so much work and I was never quite sure whether I was going in the right direction. The first probably six weeks, I wasn’t sure whether I was doing the right thing. So it was probably very emotionally draining and tiring as well and in that class there were some pretty severe behavioural issues too, so I had to deal with that as well, so that was a tough class. I probably gave up a few of my fun leisure activities, just to put into it, because this was my first teaching experience at all. I think I didn’t know that it shouldn’t have been like that. There was an ex-commerce teacher around but he didn’t communicate a lot.

(Glenda, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Nelson)

Natasha shares the same experiences as Glenda in relation to the lack of support provided by her school when required to teach out-of-field:

And you’re trying to get support from staff. I haven’t had that particular incident at this school but at my other school I was asking for support and said, “Can you send me to PDs for this [subject]? And they wouldn’t, so they just handed me a textbook and said, “Read this!”

(Natasha, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Banksia)

It is also worth contemplating the toll for those BTs that find out-of-field teaching an undesirable practice and yet persevere with it. Apart from some BTs feeling “stressed” and “exhausted”, Bill is emphatic when he states that he has no passion for teaching out-of-field subjects:

I’m not passionate about those [out-of-field] subjects in the first place; as a
result, it’s difficult planning, it’s difficult assessment, it’s difficult simple
teaching [it]. I have to teach [out-of-field subjects for] 200 minutes per week,
two lessons per week, one hundred minutes a lesson.
(Bill, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Kenworth)

Jim, who had just begun teaching for the first time and was in his fourth week,
indicated that when teaching out-of-field he felt “inadequate” and at times he had
“absolutely no idea” as to how to respond to students’ questions:

[I felt] sort of inadequate in a way I think, yeah, because you can’t meet the
students’ needs which obviously as a teacher is what you’re trying to achieve.
Sometimes you’re walking into [the classroom] and the students have got
questions and I’ve got absolutely no idea, so that makes it difficult.
(Jim, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Banksia)

Ultimately, some BTs who taught out-of-field recognised that it was “not fair on the
students”. In fact, four BTs who taught out-of-field stated this to be the case. Diane
and Shane provide typical responses:

I’m not doing them (the students) justice, I’m not from that area (English
teaching method), I know that I have a bank of knowledge a lot higher from
where they (the students) are at the moment, they would benefit more from
someone who has that knowledge of English, of course they would. There
have been times when I thought, am I doing the right thing?
(Diane, second year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Sandy Point)

To be honest I couldn’t do the job, the kids aren’t gonna learn as much in a
maths class with me as they would with someone else who’s trained in that
field. And it’s not doing my skills any justice either; I reckon I’m a great PE
teacher, terrible maths teacher so why would I stay in that role?
(Shane, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Port Duke)

In contrast to BTs finding out-of-field teaching as undesirable, some actually enjoyed
the experience. In fact, five out of 19 (26 per cent) BTs who taught out-of-field,
plainly stated this to be the case. Particularly noteworthy was their level of support,
use of a range of resources and guidance from experienced teachers. Lansen
appeared predominant in this practice of supporting out-of-field BTs, such as Kim
and Penny. Moreover, Kim indicates a long held ambition to teach maths, a subject she has little training in:

> It doesn’t bother me at all [teaching out-of-field]. If I wasn’t interested in maths and I didn’t enjoy maths at all I would have a problem with being put in a teaching maths role. I would love to be a maths teacher, maths trained; had I have done a teaching degree from the start I would’ve chosen to do maths. I have a range of resources, I don’t just stick to textbooks, there is a lot of computer resources that I can actually use.

(Kim, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Lansen)

> It’s going quite well [with the out-of-field teaching] I think, I hope. I’ve had support from the senior members who’ve taught it here in the past and the year 12 teachers of the subject are quite supportive.

(Penny, first year, 12 months fixed-contract teacher, Lansen)

Similarly, out-of-field mathematics teacher Johnny, from Nelson, is confident teaching the subject largely because he used to privately tutor maths to university students: “I would give myself a 9 [out of 10] for teaching mathematics”.

It appears that, in order to meet supply shortages in key curriculum areas such as mathematics, some schools seem to rely on teachers trained in parallel areas to meet the demand. For instance, some out-of-field BTs thought that schools “expected” them to teach maths when they had a science degree.

> No, I’m not [trained in mathematics] but I think it has become quite a requirement that science teachers are able to teach maths too.

(Kriti, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Rusden)

> It’s the reality, before I went into teaching, I talked with my older friends who are already in teaching and they told me like, “Science teachers, expected to teach maths in most schools.”

(Johnny, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Nelson)
Linda, who is business studies and health trained, does not feel “uncomfortable” when teaching maths because of her related background in mathematics:

Maths, I did some in my undergraduate: I did business so I did some statistics and economics as well, and I also tutored maths. So I’ve been tutoring maths for about two years now as well, and my actual education (own schooling) in maths as well was quite good, so like at school and stuff so I don’t feel uncomfortable in that area (of mathematics teaching).

(Linda, first year, six months fixed term contract teacher, Oak Bank).

Finally, it is worth exploring the impact of out-of-field teaching for casual relief teachers who are BTs. To reiterate, CRTs are often called upon by schools typically at very short notice to fill in staffing gaps. Such staffing gaps occur when a regular teacher is absent for one reason or another; the reasons may vary from illness, to the take up of other duties in the school or for training purposes. Therefore, the hallmarks of a successful CRT are flexibility and adaptability, and, as such, CRTs may be called upon by schools to teach or supervise students irrespective of their field of teaching. For example, Frank is history and TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) trained but has been assigned to cover subjects considerably out of his field:

Oh, as a CRT, [I have been assigned] everything, PE, economics, business studies, geography, I’ve done philosophy, Spanish, Italian, Macedonian, everything.

(Frank, Casual Relief Teacher)

It appears that casual relief teaching consists of a totally different set of job tasks from fixed-term contract or permanent teaching, such as more “classroom management” rather than actual “learning”. According to CRT Bruce, “A CRT has a different job than a regular teacher, he has to manage the class and administer a lesson if there is one left by the absent teacher”. Frank elaborates on his role as a CRT:

If and when there is some learning, that’s a bonus; it’s just classroom management. You get used to it. The first couple of days are pretty hard. Once you realise that the goal of a CRT isn’t necessarily to deliver a lesson plan [of the absent teacher], it’s to babysit and to make sure the class stays
under control rather than really try to actually achieve the [goals of the] lesson [for the absent teacher].

(Frank, Casual Relief Teacher)

CRT Jeff echoes Frank when he draws the distinction between teaching and supervision: “I wouldn’t say I taught so much as I supervised [in classrooms]”. Jeff outlines some of the tasks he has to perform related to managing the classroom:

Well, [my feelings are] it’s very logistical (CRT work), you handle the logistics of the class and the learning comes as a kind of bonus. So I’m not really that concerned with anything educational until the class is assembled and I know I’m in the right room and that I’ve done the protocols like marking the roll and getting the students’ attention and handling any business, get onto the work that’s set and sometimes that can be really straightforward, sometimes it can be almost impossible to communicate depending on the classroom environment ‘cause they really range [in behaviour].

(Jeff, Casual Relief Teacher)

Another feature of casual relief teaching is its transient nature of educating school students. CRT Kevin picks up on this aspect: “you’re in there one day and gone the next and you never really get to see what comes of everything”. However, Bruce adds a positive note regarding the fleeting nature of casual relief teaching:

[You’re] expected to be there at 8:15 to 8:30 [in the morning] and you walk out the door at 3:00 to 3:30 [in the afternoon], as soon as the bell goes, “see you later”, which is what I really like.

(Bruce, Casual Relief Teacher)

It is interesting to think about the effects of sustained out-of-field teaching for BTs who are working as casual relief teachers. CRT Sarah, who is trained in science, believes that she is “nowhere near as good as a long time experienced [science] teacher”. Similarly, Debra, who is trained in media studies and has been working as a CRT for over a year, is concerned about her eroding curriculum knowledge to teach the subject effectively:

I actually feel that if I got hired as a media studies teacher I might be really nervous (laughter). Just because I would probably have to spend a lot of time brushing up on the curriculum for it.
It seems that sustained casual relief teaching may have undesired effects for some BTs, namely, the whittling away of not only one’s knowledge of curriculum content but the practice of effective teaching and learning. The shedding away of one’s knowledge of curriculum content and skills in teaching is not exclusive to CRTs. Full-time permanent BT, Tracy, who is trained in TESOL but is not currently teaching it, believes that she “probably would’ve forgotten a lot of the skills” if her school decides one day that she is required to teach TESOL:

“It doesn’t really bother me [not teaching TESOL] apart from the fact that if they do decide to put me in there (a TESOL classroom) in three years’ time I probably would’ve forgotten a lot of the skills that I learnt [at university], so that’s a problem there. Like three years [from] now I probably wouldn’t remember [the skills and content in teaching TESOL].

In conclusion, the majority of BTs in this study indicated that they taught out-of-field, causing stress and anxiety for them. In contrast, a minority of BTs who taught out-of-field stated that they enjoyed this practice. Those BTs who were teaching out-of-field were invited to rate their teaching capacity: a lower score was noted for out-of-field subjects than for the ones they were trained in. To ameliorate the practice of out-of-field teaching, BTs frequently began at a junior level, making the content simpler and less demanding to teach. However, some BTs who taught out-of-field did not begin with a junior grade. In addition, some BTs were provided little support and guidance by their school administration, making the practice of teaching out-of-field more difficult, leaving some BTs “stressed” and “exhausted”. In contrast, some schools provided a high level of support, guidance by experienced teachers and the use of an array of resources. Invariably, this allowed the BT to enjoy out-of-field teaching. For example, Kim had a passion for teaching out-of-field maths, whereas, Bill had “no passion” for teaching his out-of-field subject. Kim was a teacher at Lansen, which seemed a leader in this practice of supporting out-of-field BTs. This suggests again that school specific policy may drive BT wellbeing and in turn their longevity in their profession. Lastly, it seems that casual relief teachers are required to perform tasks which involve a list of different skill sets, compared to full-time fixed-term contract
and full-time permanent teaching: more classroom management demands and fewer learning outcomes focused on students. Invariably, most CRTs are put in a disadvantageous position: they are required to teach or supervise students considerably out of their field of expertise, coupled with the transitory nature of the work per se. The cumulative effect is that CRTs are left in danger of losing their grasp of knowledge for subjects they are trained in and best practices for effective teaching and learning.

**BT Preparation to Meet Teaching Expectations of Their School(s)**

A majority of BTs indicated that they were sufficiently prepared to meet the challenges of their teaching expectations. In fact, 92 per cent indicated this to be the case. Specifically, BTs pointed out that they felt assured with their university training; teaching expectations were made clear by their school; and were confident in carrying out their duties in a proficient manner.

Figure 15 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ experiences of the preparation for them to meet the expectations of their school or schools. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 15 Beginning Teachers' Experiences of Their Preparation to Meet the Teaching Expectations of Their School(s)
Imogene, who teaches PE, is pleased with her teacher training and the expectations of her school, and presents a characteristic response of a BT who feels they have enough foundation to teach with assurance and enthusiasm:

Yes, I do [feel sufficiently prepared to teach in the way that I am expected to]; obviously in the PE environment I am very comfortable, I’m passionate to learn new things. I want to learn as much as I can.

(Imogene, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth)

However, a minority of BTs stated that some school expectations were not clear. For instance, Alana who teaches English and history at the same school as Imogene does believes that in her team ‘excellence in teaching and learning’ was not modelled; and she was offered “more criticism rather than encouragement”:

Sometimes I don’t care. I don’t necessarily agree with everything they (her teaching team) want done. I suppose the expectations aren’t necessarily clear. There’s this idea of ‘quality teaching’ thrown around but it’s never really made clear, it’s not discussed what that looks like. I don’t feel genuinely prepared to teach other subjects, I suppose I seek support. There’s a lot of processes here that need to be followed, I don’t know, there’s a lot to get your head around. Sometimes I don’t care; I think teaching is a kind of profession where you are often offered more criticism rather than encouragement. I tend to take that personally when, you know, you want to hear encouragement. I get some encouragement but I work bloody hard [for it] though.

(Alana, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth)

On a related topic, BTs were invited to respond to the question “Where do you go for advice and information about what and how to teach?” In descending order of frequency, most indicated that they sought assistance from their curriculum leaders, colleagues and then school principals. This suggests that accessing curriculum leaders is a prime source of support for BTs. However, it presents a problem for the BT if the curriculum leader for a subject area is a BT as well. For instance, Glenda was appointed Studies of Societies and Environment (SOSE) curriculum leader at the end of her first year and is having difficulty with an array of responsibilities with her leadership position, and this is at a time when she is also learning what it means to be a teacher:
I am the KLA (Key Learning Area) leader for SOSE. I was told that I was the best person for the job at the end of the last year. It's a little bit overwhelming at times [in that position as SOSE leader], I sometimes don’t know whether I’m meant to be doing something; for instance, people (other teachers) have been coming up the last month or so, telling me what subjects they would really like teaching in [next year]. I thought that was strange; I found out that I allot (assign) who teaches what next year [as well].

(Glenda, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Nelson)

With regard to CRT BTs being adequately prepared to carry out their duties, Jeff stresses an important difference between his type of work and other teaching modes. He states, “You can’t translate permanent teaching outcomes into a CRT environment”, highlighting that CRT work involves a different set of duties and expectations. Moreover, more often than not, CRTs have to face different rules, procedures and expectations every time they are employed to work in various schools. For instance, Lata, who has a PhD in science, regularly finds CRT work through a teaching agency, and outlines some of her work processes and expectations:

The daily organiser gives you the sheet [of paper] that “you have to take these classes” and sometime[s] in some schools they give you the, you know, the ‘code of conduct [policy]’, that’s in case of [an] emergency, what you have to do and basic information [about the school]. But sometime[s] in some schools they don’t [provide you with this information] and there is no guidance [on] how to take [the class], how to teach, how to explain, nothing. In my opinion the [teaching] agencies, they should inform the [casual relieving] teacher [well] in advance and the [absent] teacher, they should leave enough information [for CRTs to perform their duties].

(Lata, Casual Relieving Teacher)

Furthermore, CRT Jeff echoes Lata’s assertion of varying expectations and procedures by schools:

Usually the best way is to consult the faculty leader or some associate of the teacher who’s absent and they’ll fill you in [on what to do]. So there’s different rules and procedures...at different schools.
CRT Frank emphasises the limitation of time as a feature of him performing his duties:

Well, because you don’t have any time to prepare and sometimes no work is left, and if work is left sometimes you get the chance to read it and get a good idea of what happens before the lesson starts, but sometimes it’s just shoved into your hand three seconds before you go through the door. It’s very much learning on the job and improvising.

(Frank, Casual Relieving Teacher)

In conclusion, the vast majority of BTs indicated that they were sufficiently prepared to meet the challenges of their teaching expectations. Specifically, BTs indicated that they were assured with their university training; teaching expectations were made clear by their school; and were confident in carrying out their duties in a proficient manner. However, with BTs who practiced CRT teaching, their work involved a different set of duties and expectations compared with other modes of teaching. These differences were characterised by a quick call up by schools or teaching agencies; a short briefing by the daily organiser of the school; and adapting to varying procedures and expectations from school to school.

**BT’s Sense of Autonomy in Their School(s)**

A majority of BTs indicated that their school supported the way they teach. Indeed, 35 out of 41 (85 per cent) BTs stated this to be the case.

Figure 16 (below) shows the entire coding process for BTs’ experiences of their sense of autonomy in their school or schools. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 16 Beginning Teachers' Sense of Autonomy in Their School(s)

- Yes, my ideas & teaching approach is supported
  - I work with my mentor
  - I work with my peers
  - So long as I use the school's teaching model
  - Yes, but not for the yr 12 classes

- No, my ideas & teaching approach is not supported
  - CRTs: You are on your own
  - CRTs: I have no direction
  - CRTs: I depend on what work is left behind
  - Senior staff are not supportive
  - School policy restricts my autonomy
  - Limited resources
  - No one watches me
Penny highlights an example of where a BT’s teaching style and her ideas were welcomed by her school administration; sometimes when students present a teacher with a problem, a different approach is warranted:

I want to do things correctly and I want to teach the right things, but particularly in second semester it became apparent that a couple of my boys aren’t really engaging in the things that we’re doing and so I decided, well, they’re either gonna sit there and do nothing or they’re gonna do something different, even if it’s not what everyone else is doing; it’s not necessarily completely what the school has set, I’d rather have them doing something. So I made up like some assignments based around their interests, so about music in different countries and one about hunting, it’s gone down quite well, even the fact that I’ve just had the option [of an alternative] there for them and given the students the choice. But I emailed the leading humanities teachers at the school and I was like, “Hey, is it okay if I give out this hunting assignment? Is it okay that I do this music assignment instead of this assignment because my boys aren’t engaging yet”, and they’re like, “Yeah, that’s fantastic”.

(Penny, first year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Lansen)

It seems that Lansen is a leader also, when it comes to accepting the ideas and approaches of their BTs. Moreover, Ken also from Lansen, indicated that his ideas on teaching are frequently vetted with his mentor and other leading teachers before he tries them out in the classroom for himself:

If I have an idea and I’m planning, I’ll run it through my mentor or through a leading teacher, who’s sitting next to me, and ask, “Is this a good idea?”, get their feedback on it and if it’ll work (his teaching approach) and, you know, they’ll either say yes or say no. They’ve said yes so far.

(Ken, first year, 6 months fixed-term contract teacher, Lansen)

Numerous BTs indicated that they would ‘run’ their ideas by some other teacher, usually through their mentor, before implementing it in their class. Those BTs who take part in this collaborative process seem to gain much in terms of developing their pedagogical skills, and this would seem to be desirable for all beginning teachers.
However, not every BT’s ideas and teaching approaches are valued by their school administration. Alana, who believes in giving her students more choice in what to learn, so they become self-directed learners, finds herself with an obstinate administration:

I have minimal [freedom to teach my way]. I weasel my way around it. When I first arrived here, you were given your curriculum, “go and teach”, it was very much, “Here’s an activity, go and do it, here’s an activity go and do it”, so I decided to steer things in more of a self-directed learning with students and negotiated learning. When I tried to bring it up (self-directed/negotiated learning), senior staff pooh-poohed the idea.

(Alana, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Kenworth)

In addition, a school’s teaching policy may impact on how much freedom teachers have on delivering lessons. For instance, Jerry, who teaches at Kenworth, finds working in open plan classrooms “tricky” because all teachers have to teach together in teams of four called ‘pods’:

Yeah, that’s tricky now, because we’re now in shared pods, with three other teachers, we are not just classrooms of 25, we’re classrooms of 100, the rooms are big. It’s very difficult to teach in terms of the way you want to teach. There used to be so many paths [to learning that] you could lead students down on but with 100 [students in one classroom] that’s a lot more difficult.

(Jerry, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Kenworth)

Bill, who is also employed at Kenworth, echoes Jerry’s view of being limited in the way he would like to teach:

Well, there’s two important factors here: one is that I operate in an open plan classroom with three other teachers. In the complete traditional classroom I have complete freedom, in the psychology class I’m on my own and can teach how I want, but in English I’m a little bit restricted because there are three other teachers.

(Bill, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Kenworth)

Moreover, Tracy is “angry” because her freedom is limited when it comes to introducing her way of delivering the curriculum. For instance, her attempts to organise an excursion for her students is made difficult by the “leaders” of her
school, even though she is the year 9 coordinator:

Well, developing the curriculum you have a say, but the leaders, generally, it’s what they say goes. You have to go through fifty million people before it’s approved about anything. It makes me angry, it makes me angry. Excursions, the same thing, you know, they talk about shared leadership which is fine but, you know, I had a case last week where I wanted to organise an excursion for the kids, you know, and I just gave up and got upset and I said to another colleague, “You do it from now on, I’m not wasting my time!”.

(Tracy, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Paulson)

Unlike BTs who are either supported or restricted in the way they teach, there is another type of experience of “complete freedom”. However, this sense of “complete freedom” may lead some BTs to be often ignored. For instance, Phoebe, who teaches drama and English, states that “no one watches” over her classes. Her situation is compounded by the fact that her curriculum area of drama is so specialised that there are no Leading Teachers in drama at her school to guide her:

With drama I’ve got complete freedom. Well, nobody watches, I don’t even know half the time. When Russell (another teacher) came into my class, I mean he’s a science teacher but when he came [in] to my English and he gave me some great ideas, I went, “Oh, fresh eyes to see”. But no one else has watched or seems to know if I am doing okay. I assume I’m doing okay but I’m sure I could improve.

(Phoebe, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

Other BTs who experienced a similar type of “complete freedom” to the way they run their classes were casual relieving teachers. For instance, Bruce and Frank provide instances where it seems they have a great deal of autonomy to teach the way they want:

Especially in PE [there is] massive freedom. A lot of the time they [the students] just say play this game, do these warm ups or do something you’re confident in and comfortable with; yeah, with PE my motto is “just to get them moving, get them active and build on skills”. That’s the main thing, is just fitness and health.

(Bruce, casual relief teacher)
[You have] quite a lot [of freedom] actually. Yeah, you can pretty much deliver the lesson plan (from the absent teacher) however you like, and if you haven’t been left a lesson plan then it’s all up to you, so you are left a fair amount of freedom.

(Frank, casual relief teacher)

However, this “massive freedom” that Bruce speaks of is not that same experience for all CRTs. There are other CRTs who are in the same situation but view it as having “no direction”. Lata and Debra provide examples of where their casual relief teaching was farcical and reduced to child-minding:

We have no direction (sigh). [We do] whatever we want [to do in class]. Most of the people (other CRTs) they just do tricks [and] they talk [to the class]. I think those [CRTs] might be more popular, and students they don’t want to study. If you are doing tricks, you are being humorous, you know, telling them (the students) [a] story, [then] they will be happy. Yeah, and the people (the CRTs) will be called again [by the school].

(Lata, casual relieving teacher)

[I have] a lot [of freedom]. I get left on my own, do what you want basically, as long as it’s within the chosen topic; [if] you run out of time [for the planned activities], [you] play games, keep them distracted, I do what I can, [to] keep them in the room, (laughs) babysit, yeah.

(Debra, casual relieving teacher)

Therefore, it appears that CRTs depend heavily on lesson plans and the work left behind by the absent teacher in order to get through their classes. All the same, CRTs need to be mindful of the “protocols” students follow, such as the way they “communicate” with students they may not know, and being flexible by having a contingency plan if “things don’t work out”, as Jeff describes:

Really it depends on what work has been left by the teacher who’s absent ’cause some of them are very pragmatic and they leave specific instructions. Of course the way you communicate with students is a huge percentage of how the learning goes so you can have a great lesson plan and implement it
very poorly because you’re not engaging the students to start with, you’re not following the protocols they’re used to, especially with little ones, you know, they’re very used to following an order of instruction. The other thing is, though, I’ve got back up things (activities) I can do if things don’t work and that would be just some open ended exercises related to creative writing.

In conclusion, the greater part of BTs indicated that their school supported the way they delivered the curriculum to students. Also, Lansen again indicated that they were a leader when it came to accepting the ideas and approaches of their BTs. However, not every BT’s suggestions and teaching approaches were valued by their school administration. For some BTs this negatively impacted on their teaching style and their sense of autonomy as a professional teacher. CRTs, on the other hand, were commonly given a lot of freedom to teach the way they wanted to teach. However, this “freedom” that some CRTs spoke of was akin to having “no direction”, reducing their role to mere ‘child-minding’.

**Personal Safety Concerns**

When the question “What have your experiences in the classroom been like at this school?” was put to them, 26 out of 41 (63 per cent) BTs interviewed used the word “challenging” to describe their classroom experiences. Following from this, the interviewer asked the following probing questions: “Has there ever been an occasion when you thought that your safety was at risk? If so, what happened, how did you feel, was the matter resolved to your satisfaction?” Especially noteworthy is that 15 out of 41 (36 per cent) BTs explicitly believed, at some point, that their safety was at risk while carrying out their duties as a teacher.

Figure 17 (below) shows the entire coding process for the concerns BTs had for their personal safety. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 17: Beginning Teachers' Personal Safety Concerns

Experiences in the Classroom

Challenging Student Behaviour

Personal Safety Concerns

- Feeling threatened by students
- Difficulty managing parents
- Verbal abuse from students
- Fights between students
BTs that had an issue with their personal safety were initially reticent and downplaying of their concerns during the interviews, with comments such as:

Nothing overly personal. I have been…not threatened, I’m not gonna say directly threatened, but things like “if I saw you after school, sir, you don’t know what I would…I’d fight you after school…”
(Peter, first year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

Only a couple of times (when she feared for her safety in the classroom). Just one or two students who were a bit…I don’t feel safe with them in the classroom because they do try and stand over you.
(Natasha, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Banksia)

In a minor way, so I’ve had a can of Coke dropped on me at the top of the stairwell; I know the kid because he shouted something.
(Glenda, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Nelson)

However, as the interviews progressed, several BTs emphasised the encroachment of their personal space by students in what seemed to them to be pre-attack behaviour:

He beat other students and then he’d whirl around me and I was expecting to cop a punch in the face; he never did.
(Betty, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Rusden)

I don’t feel safe with them because they do try and stand over you. “Please don’t hit me” (thought went through her mind).
(Natasha, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Banksia)

The few times that I have asked for support is when students have physically got in my face and said “I’m gonna get my dad to come down here”, or “I’m gonna do this at lunchtime” or this, this, this, they physically threatened me.
(Bruce, casual relief teacher)
When a physical fight broke out between students, BTs were not only concerned for their safety but for other students as well. BTs, particularly females, often found themselves in a precarious position in deciding what to do:

I have had a physical fight in one of my classes just recently. To be honest, I found it really difficult because it was in a health class in the middle of desks, so I actually couldn’t get there and because they were big year nine boys, I couldn’t take them off each other either. So I had to do the next best thing and get another student (to help). I felt like, you know with those year nines, I couldn’t separate them. The students’ safety was a risk because I could not physically separate them.

(Sabrina, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Nelson High School)

Unlike Sabrina, Lata (Casual Relief Teacher) felt she was prohibited in physically separating students when they were fighting, thus highlighting the confusion some BTs faced in knowing what to do when a physical fight broke out between students:

And then I was writing something on the board; in that moment the guy was sitting there, he jumped on the other side, he just grabbed his neck, and it was so powerful that, you know, teachers are not allowed to physically touch the student and I just send one student to call the coordinator but then he came back saying that she’s in a meeting.

(Lata, casual relief teacher)

Some BTs, who expressed problems regarding their safety, pointed out that it occurred when they encountered students who were not known them. In other words, some BTs had difficulties with students who belonged in other teacher’s classes at school. This underlines the importance of relationship building (with colleagues, students and parents) when BTs step into their untried practice of becoming a professional teacher

I couldn’t see enough to recognise the kid (after a can of drink was thrown at her) but enough to know it wasn’t one of mine (students) because I have a very close relationship with all my students. That kind of made me feel a little bit relieved, that it wasn’t one of my students.

(Glenda, second year, full-time permanent teacher, Nelson)
No, it’s not really within my classes I have major issues, it’s when I take someone else’s extra (due to the other teachers being absent), when they are away. You don’t know the kids, one boy completely in my face told me off, I excluded him to another class [and] he got suspended.

(Sharon, third year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

Of the BTs interviewed, eight out of 41 (19.5 per cent) held the view that they were not supported by the school administration when it came to addressing their personal safety concerns. Of these BTs, most were employed on a casual basis (four BTs), followed by contract employment (three BTs) and then permanent full-time employment (one BT). When issues of student behaviour were disregarded by the school administration, this made the work for various BTs more difficult:

Just brushed off (by school administration), yeah, and say “Well, you’re only here for one day, we’re not gonna make his life...we’re not gonna suspend him (the student) or give him detentions and that because, you know, you’re gone at the end of the day, why do I have to go do the extra work now to chase this up (alleged school administration response)”. Yeah, and now they’re (students) getting used to it because like now they know they can get away with it and there’s nothing I can do because what can you do, you can say “Stop that, go to the coordinator” and they just go “No, make me”, and you can’t or you push them out of the room and then I lose my job, yeah.

(Bruce, casual relief teacher)

But if they’ve (the school) got a behaviour management system which they use in that school like the three strike policy or something like that, then following that there usually isn’t someone, a name of someone that you can actually go to anyway should that policy not work. So you’re kind of stuck until the end of the lesson and once the lesson is finished then there’s little point in really going back and bothering other teachers on some kid that’s just misbehaved. Well, because it’s already happened and the chances are they’ll just say “Oh, you know, he always acts up that one”, or “We’ll let his teacher know” or something like that.

(Frank, casual relief teacher)
Yeah, but there’s…like the teachers like that they’re coordinators and they’re team leaders, obviously they don’t have issues in their classes (with personal safety), you know what I mean, so they think, “Oh, they’re not that bad the kids”.

(Phoebe, third year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Paulson)

Moreover, 10 out of 41 (24 per cent) BTs indicated that they were verbally abused by their students. Similarly to not being supported by the school administration, most BTs who reported verbal abuse were either employed on a casual or on fixed-term contract basis:

I’ve never seen anything like it. All through uni they prepare you for things but to have four or five students just blatantly abuse you and say exactly what they think of you to your face and say you can’t do anything about it, you’re not my teacher, I found that just to be incredibly challenging.

(Bruce, casual relief teacher)

Like swearing, yelling out, being inappropriate towards other students and some…I mean I’ve been called lots of different names by kids who didn’t know me.

(Debra, casual relief teacher, Sandy Point)

Jim, who had been working for less than four weeks as a fixed-term contract teacher, seems to be lost for words and unsettled when describing a student’s verbal abuse directed to him:

I’ve been told where to go basically by a student, yeah, which was…yeah, quite…

(Jim, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Banksia)

Together with verbal abuse, several BTs have reported that objects were thrown at them by students:

He just exploded on me, got up and swore at me and threw a pen, it was my pen, I don’t know whether it was meant to hit me, he threw it and just totally swore at me in my face, it was quite, you can’t act scared, you’ve got to take it and be the adult in the situation.

(Sharon, third year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)
When I first started someone threw a sandwich at my head; that was good fun (being ironical). I’ve had kids stealing the remote control from the TV and running out of the classroom. One kid wouldn’t stop jumping off a table.

(Frank, casual relief teacher)

Furthermore, as well as feeling not supported, Brittany almost felt like she was being blamed for her students’ behaviour:

I had phones thrown at me and called all names under the sun; it was my fault (when at her previous school).

(Brittany, third year, full-time permanent teacher, Sandy Point)

Along with being verbally assaulted by students, some BTs experienced verbal slander from their parents. All the BTs who experienced verbal assaults from parents were either employed on a casual or fixed-term contract basis:

They (students) see you in that school setting where they know that they are pretty much invincible and the parents ring you up and they abuse you. You sit in the staffroom and you hear staff saying that parents were abusing them ‘cause their son’s in detention and it’s just like what is wrong with these people, you know?

(Bruce, casual relief teacher)

So the dealings with parents can be a bit rough at times because they often can think the sun shines out their child’s behind.

(Linda, first year, six months fixed-term contract teacher, Oak Bank)

Diane had become aware of the value of having good relations with parents of school students. She had also realised the limitations of casual relief teaching in establishing effective rapport with parents:

If you haven’t got the parents on side, you’ve got Buckley’s (no chance). My skills are getting better (dealing with parents). When you are doing CRT (Casual Relief Teaching) work, you don’t get that sort of relationship (to deal effectively with parents).

(Diane, second year, 12 months fixed-term contract teacher, Sandy Point)

A particularly striking finding was made between employment mode and personal safety. Twice as many BTs employed on a contract basis experienced personal
safety concerns than those on full-time permanent basis: eight compared to four. Lastly, there appears to be a relationship between the socio-economic profile of schools (as measured by the Index of Community Socio-Educational Advantage; ICSEA) and the prevalence of safety issues. Nine of the 15 BTs that had a concern with their personal safety were from schools that were substantially below the average ICSEA value compared to none who were from substantially above the average ICSEA scale.

In summary, a majority of BTs interviewed stated that their classroom experiences were “challenging” (63 per cent). Especially salient, of these BTs, 36 per cent explicitly held the view that at some point their safety was at risk while carrying out their duties as a teacher for their respective schools. Almost 20 per cent of BTs expressed the view that they were not supported by their school administration when it came to addressing their personal safety concerns. Of these BTs most were employed on a casual basis, followed by contract employment and then permanent full-time employment. These results indicate that BTs who are employed on a casual and fixed-term contract basis require the most support by their respective school administrations to ensure that they can safely carry out their duties. Furthermore, it appears that BTs employed in schools in more challenging circumstances were more likely to feel at risk for their personal safety.

**Career Change BTs**

There were a total of nine BTs who identified themselves as being career changers. This total represented 22 per cent of the entire sample of BTs. Of these nine career change BTs, three were employed on a full-time permanent basis; three were on fixed-term contracts; and three were hired as casual relieving teachers. The age of career change BTs ranged from 21–25 years to 51–55 years, with the most frequent age group being 31–35 years and the least common age groups being 51–55 years and 21–25 years with only one representation in each.

Career change BTs held an assortment of occupations prior to making a switch into teaching, including: youth and community work; integration support; retailing;
bricklaying; science research; human resource management; real estate agency; and in hospitality. Table 7 shows the reasons why the participants in this study made the change into teaching and separates their motivation into adaptive and maladaptive (Sinclair et al., 2006). Moreover, even though the sample is very small, career change BTs favoured adaptive reasons less than maladaptive ones for their decisions to switch into teaching: 46 per cent and 54 per cent respectively. This is in contrast to non-career change BTs, who entered teaching mostly for adaptive reasons (77 per cent). However, due to the sample size of career change teachers being very small \( (n = 9) \) more research is needed in this area, to test the claim that individuals favour maladaptive motives for their switch into teaching.
Table 7 Adaptive & Maladaptive Motivation for Career Change Beginning Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adaptive Motivation</th>
<th>Maladaptive Motivation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I thought that teaching would be easier than my former work</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wanted to mainly work with young people</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I love my domain area, e.g. English</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wanted to make a difference with students</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wanted to be in a helping profession</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a passion for teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching offers convenient hours, holidays and the pay is good</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family-friendly reasons, I could look after my disabled daughter</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was an easy &amp; logical step to take after completing my Bachelor of Arts degree</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There was too much office work in my previous job</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Adaptive Motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Maladaptive Motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Principals’ Interviews: Support Structures for BTs

A total of nine interviews were conducted with school principals in relation to their BTs, with only one principal not able to be interviewed. Principals were invited to comment on two interview questions: “What support structures do you have for your BTs?” and “What are some of the challenges you have noticed with your BTs?” This section will focus on the support structures for BTs from the principals’ perspective.

Figure 18 (below) shows the entire coding process for the principals’ views on support structures offered to BTs at their respective schools. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation.
Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 18 Principals' Views: Support Structures for Beginning Teachers in Their Schools

- Orientation handbook
- Appointed a professional learning team
- Provide specific workshops
- Appointed a "buddy"
- Experienced teacher

Induction Program

- Appoint a Mentor
Noteworthy was that only five out of nine (55 per cent) principals mentioned the word ‘induction’ as a process of introducing BTs into their school. However, all principals described how they inducted their new teachers without the need to speak of the term induction. A total of eight out of nine (89 per cent) principals indicated that all BTs were appointed a mentor. Banksia was the only exception; instead, they provided a “professional learning team”, which is made up of a panel of experienced teachers.

Mentors were typically allocated to BTs for one year. However, as BTs become more settled and familiar in their new surroundings, principals hope that other significant relationships will flourish. This expectation is outlined by the principal from Huntly:

I believe it becomes self-sustaining, what I say to these people (beginning teachers), “We’ve appointed an official mentor, that we believe will be the right person, to be able to support you, but in the meantime you are going to pick up a number of other mentors naturally through your involvement through the organisation”.

(Huntly principal)

CRTs, on the other hand, were not assigned a mentor. “That’s a lot more difficult; what we do is invite them in to be part of our PD program”, disclosed the principal from Huntly.

Aside from mentors, some BTs were also allocated a “buddy”. A total of three out of nine (33 per cent) principals stated that they used buddies to support their BTs. There are varying definitions of what a “buddy” might entail. The principal from Lansen states that a buddy “is generally an experienced teacher, an expert teacher, someone with at least four to five years’ experience”. However, BT Brittany, from Sandy Point, claims she has acted as a buddy for another BT at her school. The principal from Banksia admitted that the meaning of a buddy “could vary” at times, but their prime role, at his school, has to do with the “nitty-gritty such as where’s the photocopier? Or what do I do with this sheet of paper?”

Nelson and Kenworth principals indicated that, in order to ease the transition of their BTs, where possible, they invite them to their school the previous year. The
Kenworth principal outlines the reasons for this practice, such as “to see how the school runs” and “get a visual of it”:

If they (BTs) come in at the beginning of the year we’ll catch them before the end of the previous year. Have them come through the school, to see how the school runs, get a visual of it, see the classes they may be teaching and the leaders who will be in their learning areas or domains.

(Kenworth principal)

However, sometimes BTs begin their employment halfway through the year and then the induction process becomes problematic for them. This is because, conventionally, new teachers are inducted and orientated to their school at the start of the school year. The principal from Oak Bank recognises this issue, describing their induction program as a "bit of a hit-and-miss" when BTs do not begin work at the start of school calendar year.

To further support BTs, with respect to their workload, the Kenworth and Rusden principals indicated they have a “lower allotment” teaching load. “If they’re new to teaching they will have a lower allotment, we actually give them a little bit lower than what the [official] agreement is to try and give them that support” (Kenworth, principal) and this allows BTs to “spend time with their mentors” (Rusden, principal). This is balanced against Port Duke’s policy of allocating its mentors a “time allowance so they can actually work with the beginning teacher”; hence giving an opportunity for the mentor and BT to “work through issues” and for the development of a “positive working relationship”.

An added way to support BTs was to provide specific workshop sessions, such as how to effectively relate to parents. Both Huntly and Paulson principals indicated that they used such programs:

Usually we have programs, like you can’t get everything done the first couple of days, so we might have parent–teacher [meeting] coming up, so how do you handle parent–teacher conversations? You get a difficult parent, what do
you do? So we actually pick topics [and] get them (BTs) for 15 minutes with those topics.

(Paulson principal)

Although all BTs may receive a staff handbook, outlining vital information, just two principals mentioned this during the interviews: Port Duke and Banksia principals.

The staff handbook contains the following useful information to assist BTs:

Beginning teachers, they receive a summary of the staff handbook, I suppose a transition pack, that's got information about the nitty gritty, bell times, who's in positions of responsibility, timetable, information about student management [and] those sorts of nitty gritty.

(Banksia principal)

Other ways of assisting BTs include having all the teachers work in one room, in the hope that “opportunity” for support “occurs unofficially” (Banksia principal).

Furthermore, the management at Paulson regularly surveys their BTs to find out whether they “are meeting their needs”:

We survey them (BTs) and seek their input back through the staff-support person about how they’re going and what they’ve been doing. We make sure we survey them (BTs) and find out, a couple of times a year, whether we are meeting their needs; quite often we find that it’s good information, we find ways of improving it [the support for BTs].

(Paulson principal)

The administration at Rusden provides the opportunity for “team teaching” as a means of supporting their BTs. In addition, Rusden actively promotes “the idea of reflection” amongst their BTs:

We also promote the idea of reflection; as a principal, you’ve got to work with what you say, my staff bulletins I put out, some of them are political, they’re all reflections, hopefully people do read [them]. The key to it is, I want them (BTs) to reflect, I like symbols, when I talk to them about family and attachment they know what I mean (through the messages on walls of his office). Okay, we can’t do it on our own; you are going to be the person that helps and influence [the student].
Furthermore, Rusden believes in “not throwing” their BTs in the “deep end”. Similarly, Paulson does not agree with the ‘sink or swim’ approach either to developing their BTs. However, for Port Duke, when after all the “theory and advice” does not seem to work for BTs, they “have got to let them sink or swim”.

In conclusion, schools seem to be very similar in their approach to providing support to their BTs. The overwhelming majority of schools provided a mentor and approximately a third also provided a “buddy”. However, there were conflicting definitions of what a “buddy” was meant to be and do. All schools had some sort of an induction program: Huntly was more structured in its approach as opposed to Port Duke, who “tended to be a little general” in their method. Some schools, such as Kenworth, thought it would be of value if, where possible, they invited their BTs to their school the previous year, “to see how the school runs” and “get a visual of it”. However, Oak Bank disclosed their induction process was a “bit of a hit-and-miss” when BTs do not begin work at the start of the school year. Rusden and Paulson did not agree with the ‘sink or swim’ approach into inducting their BTs into their new school. However, for Port Duke, when after all the “theory and advice” does not seem to work for BTs, they “have got to let them sink or swim” because perhaps they “are not cut out for teaching here”.

**Principals’ Interviews: Challenges with BTs**

Principals outlined a range of challenges that they had with their BTs. The most frequently mentioned challenge was to retain them, with four out of nine (44 per cent) principals indicating this to be the case.

Figure 19 (below) shows the entire coding process for what the principals’ believed were the challenges for BTs at their respective schools. The size of the shapes indicates the level of agreement or coding that took place in that entity and is proportional to other entities but does not bear any statistical representation. Therefore, the larger the individual shapes, the more participants indicated that entity as being significant for them.
Figure 19 Principals' Views: Challenges for Their Beginning Teachers

- BTs need to develop relationships with students
- Retention of BTs is a challenge especially for provincial schools
- BTs victims of the 'travel bug'
- BTs are poached to other schools
- BTs want to move back home to the city
- BTs need right information & training
- Matching the right mentor
- Building leadership capacity
- Burnout is a big issue to increasing workload
- Making Sure BTs are Supported
- Attracting talented BTs in Maths & Science
- BTs need to cater for a diversity of students

Principals' views: Challenges for their BTs
Retaining BTs seems to be foremost in the minds of principals from provincial locations. For instance, the principal from Nelson states that he loses his BTs to the “travel bug”, or they just “want to move back home”. There are also typical characteristics of “Gen Y” teachers who seem to want frequent change in their lives:

Look, the other thing with particularly young people (BTs) these days, I suppose typical of the Gen Y and some of the young generations, is keeping them, maintaining them. We get some fantastic young teachers come here but the travel bug hits them or, particularly if they come from another district, they want to move back home, which is natural; trying to get them to stay and get more than a couple of years [out of them].

(Nelson principal)

Nelson is “finding it hard to staff certain [subject] areas” to the extent that they “have had four or five permission to teach staff (unqualified and unregistered teachers) in the last couple of years” according to their principal. In the same way, another provincial school principal, at Lansen, claims that their BTs, who “come from a bigger place, like to return to that place after four or five years”. However, their “biggest issue” is to do with other schools “poaching” their BTs:

They quite often come from a bigger place, and they probably like to return to that place after four or five years. The biggest issue we’ve got is that they’re very good and people look to pinch them, so hanging on them is the issue, in terms of other people (schools) poaching.

(Lansen principal)

Following on from that, Huntly, which is in a relatively wealthy metropolitan location and has the highest ICSEA value in this study, has similar problems in attracting and retaining the right teachers. Its problems are especially acute in recruiting and retaining suitable maths and science teachers; this is a “huge concern” for the Huntly principal. To alleviate this concern, the Huntly principal has his “feelers (antenna) out for people from other schools” where it is “more challenging” to teach and entice them to work in his school. Therefore, this study demonstrates that there are schools which lose talented BTs due to poaching, and there are schools that see poaching as a way of helping their school to get the talented teachers they require.
Principals had various strategies for retaining their BTs. To counteract their BTs leaving for greener pastures, the Nelson principal actively encourages them “to get involved in the local community” and “develop networks within staff”. This same practice occurs at another provincial school, Lansen.

Another major challenge for principals in relation to their BTs was to make sure that they were continually supported. The Paulson principal expands on this point:

I think the main challenges [for BTs] are to make sure that your support processes, mechanisms and programs are in place and continued. That’s a big challenge, don’t let it drop away and keeping it going and making sure that they don’t drop away, the person (beginning teacher) feels supported.

(Paulson principal)

Likewise, the challenge for the Rusden principal is for their BTs to “not feel vulnerable [and] excluded”. Equally, an important task for the Nelson principal is to keep his BTs “as happy as they can and feel supported as much as they can, so they have a positive experience”.

Another challenge, particularly for Paulson, was to as accurately as possible match their BTs with suitable mentors. This is made difficult when the school does not know much about their BTs when they first arrive: “Matching with the right mentors, that’s a challenge. You’ve got to know about them (BTs) but you don’t know that when they first get here (Paulson principal).” The consequence for a mismatch between mentor and mentee is that the BT may be left unsupported and vulnerable.

Another challenge for principals with regard to their BTs was their workload. Indeed, according to the Huntly principal, “the biggest challenge” he can see is “the teachers can get worn out very very quickly” because of an “increasing workload”. Similarly, the Oak Bank principal acknowledges that heavy workload of her BTs often comes as a surprise to them, with the public perception that teaching is “from 9:00 am to 3:30 pm”:

They (BTs) are often very tired; to start with, the day to day of just that grind. A lot of people have the idea that teaching is from 9:00 am to 3:30 pm and it's
all fine. It’s that going home and doing the preparation, doing your work, it’s coping with meetings; it’s coping with a whole range of things, and just the day-to-day, chopping and changing classes, getting to know kids. Most people who work with kids on a regular basis would say it’s quite demanding and quite draining because teaching is much more than imparting the information.

(Oak Bank principal)

Moreover, the Huntly principal is mindful that his school “cannot afford to burn these people out, to the point when they turn around to say, ‘I’ll go and do something else’”. Furthermore, to explain this “steep learning curve” (Oak Bank principal) many BTs face, the Port Duke principal explains that there is often a mismatch between the “expectations” and the realities of teaching made by BTs.

I think the expectations, I think there’s a big step up from being a student-teacher, to having someone in the classroom with you, basically supervising you, even though they may be sitting at the back of the room, it creates an artificial environment. There’s a huge step for walking in your first classroom, and you’re it (laughter). You are, if you like, the bunny in the headlights (laughter), you’re on your own, and if you actually freeze in the headlights, you’re actually going to get run over (more laughter).

(Port Duke principal)

Another challenge principals had with regard to their BTs was their ability to cater for a diversity of students. Two principals stated that this was a concern. Lastly, the Kenworth principal stated that “they don’t have too many downsides” with respect to his BTs. However, many BTs indicated at Kenworth that they will not be returning next year to their teaching positions.

In conclusion, principals had the most challenge in the retention and recruitment of BTs. This was particularly evident with provincial schools, with Nelson finding it “hard to staff certain [subject] areas” (Nelson principal). Another provincial school in Lansen found their “biggest issue” was with other schools “poaching” their BTs. Meanwhile, the Huntly principal stated that retaining maths and science teachers was a “huge concern”. The next chapter discusses the main findings in this study.
Chapter 5 Discussion of Findings

This study explored the research question: How are the different pathways of permanent full-time, fixed-term contract, and casual relief work teachers associated with their career trajectories in Victorian government secondary schools? To answer this question, this chapter will focus on three areas in light of the interview questions and past findings from other studies. These three parts are: firstly, the elements that contribute to the retention of BTs; secondly, the elements that hinder the retention of BTs; and, finally, policy recommendations and areas for further research.

**Elements that Contribute to the Retention of BTs**

The following elements, which contribute to the retention of BTs, will be discussed: preference for full-time permanent work; a suitable ‘career-fit’ between individual BTs and their school; a manageable workload and a healthy work–life balance; positive induction and mentoring practices; positive PD experiences; the support and guidance provided when teaching out-of-field; the sense of autonomy and discretion in the workplace; and the adaptive motivations for entering the teaching profession.

There are many factors that may contribute to the retention of BTs in their respective schools. As a starting point, BTs’ preferred employment mode is a worthwhile theme to begin with, because their preference for full-time permanent teaching was overwhelming, with 37 out of 41 (90 per cent) BTs indicating this preference. Only two out of 41 (4.8 per cent) BTs preferred fixed-term contract teaching; one BT had a preference for CRT work; and one BT was in favour of part-time permanent teaching.

**Preference for Full-time Permanent Work**

There were many reasons why most BTs desired full-time continuing employment. The foremost reason was for job security, with 31 out of 37 (83.8 per cent) BTs who preferred permanent full-time work mentioning this. Also, 19 out of 37 (51 per cent) of BTs believed that it would assist them in either purchasing a home or meeting mortgage repayments for their existing home. This overwhelming preference for full-time continuing employment is supported by economic theory; people will seek to maximise their wellbeing by allocating time across paid and unpaid activities and will prefer work arrangements that will enable the highest possible level of wellbeing.
(Becker, 1965). Also, the human need for a higher wellbeing in the workplace is supported by motivational theorists such as Porter (1962).

Additionally, Shomos, Turner and Will (2013) state that, for Australians aged between 25–54 years, “income security, such as full-time permanent work, is likely to be preferred” (p. 26) from other forms of work. A new finding from this study was that 23 out of 26 (88 per cent) of BTs aged between 21–25 years also preferred full-time permanent work. This age group of 21–25 represents a significant cohort in this study of 63 per cent (26 out of 41 BTs). Therefore, it is noteworthy that such younger BTs also value income security. With income security these younger BTs indicated that they could not only purchase a home and meet regular mortgage repayments, but have greater stability in their lives and be considered as a more valued teacher by their school administration, and hence become candidates for career advancement. The findings in this study also seem to support various commentaries on the so-called Generation Y, the generation of teachers born in the 1980s, who want in particular to “seek new challenges and fast promotions, and expect high levels of job satisfaction” (Manuel & Hughes, 2006, p. 12). These features of promotions and higher levels of job satisfaction seem to be characterised primarily within the full-time permanent mode of work or internal labour markets (Evetts, 1989; Linbeck & Snower, 2001; Loveridge, 1983).

From this study it seemed that fixed-term contract BTs were working harder than full-time permanent ones; some even appeared frantic when describing their workload. For example, a few fixed-term contract BTs stated that they were “kept on their toes” and repeatedly had to “prove” themselves as worthy teachers. There is a type of paradox in the employment context of those who seek full-time permanent teaching and those who already have it: there exists a dichotomy and complexity in this issue. It is worth speculating as to whether the motivation for and ultimate attainment of full-time continuing employment in teaching is in itself something maladaptive. Sinclair, Dowson and Mcinerney (2006) describe a maladaptive motivation as one which facilitates a “disengagement in a task or activity” (p. 1138). It is interesting to consider if, having once attained full-time permanent teacher status, job
complacency will naturally follow. Following from this, some research suggests (Productivity Commission, 2006) it is possible that non-permanent workers could be motivated by a lack of job security to work with a greater effort than permanent employees, in the hope of increasing their value as employees and therefore their chances of permanent employment with their present employer, or finding employment with another job provider. However, at the other end of the spectrum, the existence of occupational embeddedness (Ng & Feldman, 2007) may be a real issue for some teachers, who have become entrenched in their positions. Such teachers are likely to exhibit maladaptive behaviours, be working on a full-time permanent basis and become stuck in their jobs, similar to a “net or a web” (Ng & Feldman, 2007, p. 1104). Whatever the case may be, it is difficult to conclude that the motivation for permanent full-time teaching is one that will eventually promote disengagement or less productivity. Therefore, the very strong preference for full-time permanent work by BTs may be less to do with them developing job complacency and more to do with them being included into the social fabric of the school. However, more research is needed to better determine the differences in motivations between fixed-term contract and full-time permanent teachers.

**Suitable ‘Career-fit’ between Individual BTs and Their School**

Another factor that contributes to the retention of BTs revolves around a suitable ‘career-fit’ (Liu & Johnson, 2006; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Winter et al., 2004). The point about school contexts needs stressing: “no two schools and no two teaching positions are the same” (Liu & Johnson, 2006, p. 325). Therefore, it is imperative that a BT finds a suitable school which matches their expectations, needs and wants. The majority of BTs stated that teaching did offer a suitable career-fit for them, with 30 out of 41 (73 per cent) BTs indicating this. The reasons BTs gave, in order of importance, were: the sheer enjoyment with the practice of teaching; family-friendly conditions; and flexible or convenient hours and holidays. The first reason, that teaching is per se an enjoyable pursuit, would be seen as an intrinsic and an adaptive motivation (Sinclair et al., 2006), thus able to instil a “deep and lasting engagement in a task or activity” (Sinclair et al., 2006, p. 1138), suggesting that this is indeed what schools and recruiting bodies would hope for in their BTs.
Furthermore, intrinsic motivation has been identified as a key driver in the recruitment and retention of teachers (OECD, 2005). However, the remaining reasons – family-friendly conditions, flexible hours and holidays – suggest that they have extrinsic and maladaptive motivation, thus indicating that these BTs may show patterns of “disengagement or superficial engagement” (Sinclair et al., 2006, p. 1138) in their teaching duties in times to come. In other words, BTs may be enjoying teaching for all the wrong reasons if school holidays and flexible hours of work are the only aspects they have to look forward to. However, the teaching profession is unique from other lines of work in that it can offer many weeks of paid holidays, especially for permanent employees. Therefore, teaching provides a distinctive attraction for many prospective teachers who may use their holidays for travel pursuits – a desire numerous BTs identified in this study, and may accordingly act as a method for retention, thus in some ways contradicting the motivational model purported by Sinclair, Dowson and Mcinerney (2006).

The second most frequent reason for BTs believing that teaching offered a suitable career-fit was because it offered family-friendly conditions. However, the teaching hours of Monday mornings to Friday afternoons, are, in reality, extended well beyond that and may include evening, weekend and holiday work for some teachers. Therefore, BTs may soon come to realise, if they have not done so already, that teaching hours may in fact become noticeably family-unfriendly. This finding supports past research; those who entered teaching with the belief that it provided time for family were less likely to be pleased with their career selection (Richardson & Watt, 2010; Watt & Richardson, 2007).

That said, a few female BTs have indicated that they intend to start a family in the future and they recognise that their work structure can be made favourable with the flexibility of being able to come back part-time or as a CRT, after their maternity leave. This practice is supported by Watson’s (2005) assertion that people with children might require more flexibility with childcare, so their work preference may change in favour of part-time permanent or casual forms of work. Furthermore, this appears to be the case in Germany, a similar Western economy to Australia, where
A prominent feature of its teaching workforce is the high proportion of women who work part-time and on a casual basis: 33 per cent and 11 per cent respectively (Halasz et al., 2004).

**A Manageable Workload and a Healthy Work–Life Balance**

Another important consideration in relation to BT retention is their workload and work–life balance. In past studies, workload has been identified as the reason, in some cases the single most important factor, for BTs to depart from their teaching positions (Buchanan, 2010; Farber, 2010; Smithers & Robinson, 2003). However, not all BTs in this study were over-worked; to reiterate, 17 out of 41 (42 per cent) BTs indicated that their workload was manageable. Noteworthy was that four out of four (100 per cent) BTs at Lansen believed this to be the case, therefore indicating that workload issues may be school specific. This appears to be a new discovery to come out of this study: that schools within the same education system can differ markedly when it comes to how BTs manage their workloads, to the extent that, in a particular school, workload was not an issue at all. Consequently, and not so surprisingly, all the BTs from Lansen indicated that their work–life balance was satisfying. Additionally, further investigations are called for to ascertain why there are variations in BTs’ workload and work–life sense of balance from school to school.

**Positive Induction & Mentoring Practices**

Another factor which contributes to the retention of BTs is their positive induction experiences (Ingersoll, 2012; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Kapadia et al., 2007). When the numbers of BTs who are teaching on a casual basis are omitted, since CRT work tends to have rudimentary or no induction programs in some cases, then 18 out of 33 (54 per cent) BTs indicated that their induction experiences were positive. Even though the numbers are small in this study, this is lower than the findings from an earlier study of over 1300 BTs across Australia, where 70 per cent of the respondents rated their induction program from good to excellent (Australian School Principals Association [ASPA], 2007). It seems that, lower levels of satisfaction in the induction process are shown from this study; however, further research needs to
occur into which aspects of induction BTs find the most and least useful. For example, the principals in this study identified specific workshops that aided BTs to communicate effectively with parents. In addition, Youngs, Holdgreve-Resendez and Qian (2011) found that coherence of a school’s curriculum and instruction plays a key role in supporting BTs.

Noteworthy was that a few BTs indicated that they appreciated a staggered induction process, where the duration is over a longer time span rather than a day or two, as well as weekly or regular induction meetings. This finding supports previous research in that the larger and more intensive the induction package, the greater the intention of beginning teachers to remain in teaching (Ingersoll, 2012; Kapadia et al., 2007).

**Positive Professional Development Experiences**

With regard to how BTs experienced their mentoring process, approximately half of the BTs indicated that their experiences were positive. This finding supports studies from the US which suggest that mentoring programs may encourage steadiness and the retention of beginning teachers in schools; those BTs who have been successfully mentored were less likely to migrate between schools (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004b; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004)

Professional development programs or seminars act as an important component in the overall induction packages for BTs. Other components of an effective induction program may include mentoring, collaboration with colleagues and the assistance from a teacher aide. Ingersoll (2012) argued that as the number of components in the induction package increased for BTs, “the likelihood of their turnover decreased” (p. 50). Therefore, PD programs are another element that may contribute to the retention of BTs. Many of the BTs in this study had positive experiences to do with their PD programs. Indeed, 17 out of 41 (41 per cent) BTs indicated that their PD courses were useful, in so far as the content assisted their progress into becoming competent teachers. Additionally, these BTs indicated that their school encouraged them to seek out PD programs to meet their own specific needs.
Support & Guidance Provided when Teaching Out-of-field

When assigned to teach an area that BTs were not trained in, the practice of out-of-field teaching occurs. Moreover, out-of-field teaching takes place when teachers are “assigned to teach subjects for which they have little preparation, education, or background” (Ingersoll, 2008, p. 369). In this study 55.8 per cent of BTs, excluding CRTs, indicated that at some point in the past, or at present, they taught out-of-field, while it has been reported that 27 per cent of BTs were presently teaching out of their expertise in a nation-wide online survey, involving over 1300 participants (ASPA, 2007). This is a concern because the rate of out-of-field teaching amongst BTs appears to have doubled in less than seven years, particularly in light of the federal government’s increased calls for raising the standards of teaching (Gillard, 2010).

The findings of substantial BTs teaching out of their expertise in this study further confirms earlier research into out-of-field teaching by Ingersoll (2001a), where “recently hired teachers are more often assigned to teach subjects out of their field than more experienced teachers” (p. 43). Notwithstanding the scarcity of research to suggest that out-of-field teaching may aid in the retention of teachers, some 15 per cent of BTs stated that they enjoyed the experience; hence this may be a new discovery to come from this study. All the BTs who were enjoying their out-of-field teaching indicated that they also had support from colleagues and had resources at their disposal. Several BTs suggested that they were allotted an easier or less demanding grade in order to teach their out-of-field subjects, such as junior levels of years 7 and 8, and this helped to ameliorate their lack of training and education in those subjects. This finding again endorses past research by Ingersoll (2001a), where “junior high classes are more likely to be taught by out-of-field teachers than are senior high classes” (p. 43). Other BTs somewhat confidently relied on their prior industry experience in order to satisfactorily teach out-of-field. Also, the practice of casual relief teaching almost entirely relies on out-of-field teaching (Jenkins et al., 2009; McCormack, 2005; McCormack & Thomas, 2005); therefore, for some BTs out-of-field teaching is the norm rather something uncommon.
The Sense of Autonomy and Discretion in the Workplace

Another factor that contributes to the retention of BTs is their sense of autonomy and discretion in the workplace as reflective practitioners; where they feel they have an input in developing curriculum, and their ideas and teaching style are supported by their school administration (Cole, 1997; Sumson, 2003; Wiss, 1999). Moreover, work environments that restrict BTs’ ability to innovate in their work are strongly associated with burnout (Goddard & Goddard, 2006). In this study, 35 out of 41 (85 per cent) BTs indicated that their ideas and teaching style were supported by their school administration, thus confirming past research. However, a majority of CRTs indicated that they had too much freedom when carrying out their duties; to the extent that their school administration paid little attention to their work and provided only cursory direction. As a consequence, this resulted in feelings of professional isolation by some CRTs; this finding confirms Lunay and Lock’s (2006) study on the practice of casual relief teachers in Western Australia, where they experienced alienation in their workplace.

A critical stage for BTs in light of their retention prospects is when they are just being socialised into their new workplace; this period is characterised by reality shock (Veenman, 1984). Reality shock is often marked by survival and discovery; it may also include the collapse of well-meaning ideals, formed during teacher training by the abrupt arising of daily classroom realities (Manuel, 2003; Weinstein, 1988). In this study, however, a contradictory finding was made: a majority of BTs indicated that they were sufficiently prepared to meet the challenges of their teaching expectations. In fact, 92 per cent indicated this to be the case. Specifically, BTs pointed out that they felt that their university training served them well; teaching expectations were made clear by their school; and they were confident in carrying out their duties in a proficient manner.

The Adaptive Motivations for Entering the Teaching Profession

Another important consideration with regard to the retention of BTs is their reasons for entering the teaching profession. Altruistic, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations have been emphasised as the chief reasons for individuals deciding to enter the teaching profession (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992). In seeking to understand the
motivations for individuals who enter the teaching profession, Richardson and Watt (2010) emphasise that different sociocultural contexts “shape teaching motivations” (p. 141). For instance, intrinsic reasons were more important in the Netherlands, France, Australia and the UK. These countries confirmed that the most often given reasons for choosing to enter teaching were a desire to work with young people; to make a social contribution; and potential for intellectual satisfaction (OECD, 2005), while research from dissimilar sociocultural contexts like Zimbabwe (Chivore, 1988) and the Caribbean (Brown, 1992) discovered that extrinsic motivations such as job security, career prestige and salary were important drivers in choosing to enter the teaching profession.

The findings from this study indicate that the highest ranked reasons (from a list of 25) for candidates wanting to become a teacher were: “I get on well with kids and love working with them” and “I always wanted to become a teacher”: 22 per cent and 19.5 per cent respectively. These two reasons are both intrinsic and have an adaptive motivational frame, therefore confirming previous studies for candidates choosing to become teachers (OECD, 2005; Richardson & Watt, 2010). Other reasons reflected similar motivations; for instance, “I like helping people and being in a helping-type career” and “I had inspiring teachers”. These two reasons rated highly also: 19.5 per cent and 12 per cent respectively.

Furthermore, career change BTs in this study (n = 9) indicated similar motivations in choosing teaching from the rest of the participants. Among their motivations were: “I wanted to work with young people”; “I wanted to make a difference with students”; and “I have a passion for teaching”. It appears the findings from this study support previous research into the motivations of career change teachers, in so far as they are more often than not motivated by intrinsic and altruistic reasons (Anthony & Ord, 2008; Williams & Forgasz, 2009), although pragmatic reasons may also influence their choices to become teachers; for instance, the perception of time for family was an important consideration for career change teachers (Richardson & Watt, 2005). However, in this study only one career change teacher mentioned that she switched into teaching for his family-friendly reasons.
**Elements that Hinder the Retention of BTs**

It is timely now to shift to the second part of this chapter, the elements that hinder the retention of BTs. The following elements which hinder the retention of BTs will be discussed: BTs’ belief that their school administration values full-time permanent teachers more than fixed-term contract and casual relieving teachers; an unsuitable ‘career-fit’ between individual BTs and their school; an unmanageable workload and an unhealthy work–life balance; the micro-politics intertwined with exploitative workplace practices; the premature promotions into leadership positions and for some the teaching of VCE; personal safety concerns from students and their parents; adverse induction and mentoring experiences; negative PD experiences; the lack of support and guidance provided when teaching out-of-field; the absence of autonomy and discretion in the workplace; the maladaptive motivations for entering the teaching profession; the principals’ views on the challenges for the retention of their BTs; the length of time BTs see themselves remaining in the teaching profession; and finally a concluding statement.

**BTs’ Belief: School Administration Values Full-time Permanent Teachers More than Full-time Fixed Term Contract & Casual Relief Teachers**

As a starting point, BTs’ preferred employment mode is a useful theme to begin with: to reiterate, 37 out of 41 (90 per cent) BTs indicated that their preferred form of work was full-time permanent teaching. One aspect that hinders the retention of BTs is the belief that their school administration values those who are working full-time permanently more than other forms of employment. Of those BTs who preferred full-time permanent teaching, seven out of 37 (19 per cent) believed this to be the case. This supports previous studies in so far as full-time permanent employees are characterised by higher levels of job satisfaction; greater access to promotional opportunities; clearer career progressions; are afforded various conditions such as holiday leave; being regarded as *insiders* (Evett, 1989; Linbeck & Snower, 2001; Loveridge, 1983).

A finding to come out of this study was the aversion BTs had towards reapplying for
their same fixed-term contract teaching position once their old contract had expired. This was exacerbated by a sense of commitment imbalance from their school, particularly if fixed-term contract BTs were dedicated in their roles and their school could not indicate their contract would be renewed. For instance, for new school programs to become established, it often takes many weeks of dedicated team effort; it seemed perplexing and disheartening for some BTs to help to develop school curricula for the future when the likelihood of them continuing with their employment remained uncertain. As a consequence, BTs who worked under this arrangement indicated fixed-term contract work was particularly stressful.

An Unsuitable ‘Career-fit' between Individual BTs & Their School
Another element which may thwart the retention of BTs is the degree of ‘career-fit’ (Liu & Johnson, 2006; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Winter et al., 2004) between the BT’s expectations and those of their school. A total of eight out of 41 (19.5 per cent) BTs indicated that teaching was not a ‘good fit’ for them. The main reason for this belief was their heavy workload. Numerous studies have indicated that a heavy workload was a contributing factor, in some cases the single most important reason, for BTs to depart from their teaching positions (Buchanan, 2010; Farber, 2010; Smithers & Robinson, 2003). Noteworthy was that 31 per cent of BTs from provincial localities indicated that teaching was not a good career-fit for them either; again they cited a heavy workload including excessive administration duties as their main concerns. This finding supports previous studies on the retention difficulties of BTs in provincial schools across Australia (Frid et al., 2008; Gehrke, 2007; Roberts, 2004).

The Micro-politics & Exploitative Work Practices by Senior Ranking Teachers
The heavy workload claim of BTs warrants further examination. In particular, the micro-politics intertwined with a number of BTs’ workloads, which is a new finding to come from this study. Even though the numbers are low, particularly remarkable is that four out of 41 (9.75 per cent) BTs, from three different schools believed that their work efforts were being exploited by higher-ranking experienced teachers, or by their school administration itself. For instance, in a team teaching context with senior teachers, two BTs were upset that they were doing most of the teaching and planning to the point where it became “overwhelming”; another BT from a separate
school indicated that her senior teacher was “taking” curriculum planning work from her and she was not “getting anything back”. Furthermore, a particular BT even felt that she was “carrying” the workload of her senior teachers.

It is worth theorising why this practice of work exploitation by some higher-ranking experienced teachers over inexperienced ones takes place at all. To begin with, one must accept that the workplace of schools is ever increasingly busy, with growing demands by stakeholders such as governments, regulators and parents (Bartlett, 2004; Brownhill, Wilhelm, & Watson, 2006). Therefore, work becomes the unit of exchange in schools – a precious commodity which participants can readily exchange to build credibility and standing. Worth noting is that the participants who have the most need for credibility and standing are the BTs in their new work environment; this is due to their embryonic human capital (Becker, 1975) – the store of competences, knowledge and personality embodied in their ability to perform labour. Conversely, those with the least need for credibility and standing are the senior teachers in their work environment due to their established human capital; some may even be characterised by occupational embeddedness. Such participants may potentially exhibit other maladaptive behaviours and become wedged in their jobs (Mitchell et al., 2001; Ng & Feldman, 2007; Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012). Therefore, there is a needs imbalance between these two cohorts of inexperienced BT and job embedded experienced senior teacher, which is the heart of this exploitative practice. Not all BTs stated that they were “carrying” their senior teachers’ workload; ostensibly they were highly capable and devoted BTs such as the “highly engaged persisters” (Watt & Richardson, 2008, p. 417), who have been characterised by their intention to teach for their entire careers, due to their passion and calling for teaching. It is these two typologies placed together – the highly engaged persister BT and the job embedded senior teacher – that may give rise to this exploitative work practice. In order to fully understand the scope of this problem, perpetrated by some senior teachers exploiting the work production of certain BTs, further research is required in this area.
Premature Promotions into Leadership Roles & Teaching VCE

In relation to workload, another aspect which may hinder the retention of some BTs is their ostensibly premature promotions into leadership positions, such as year level co-ordinator roles. Such positions are traditionally reserved for senior teachers after many successful years working in the profession. There is an average of 27.7 years of teaching experience for these positions (McKenzie et al., 2011), indicating the depth of experience many who hold leadership positions have acquired, however, some BTs still find themselves promoted to these positions, perhaps ahead of time. Again, even though the numbers are low in this study, five out of 41 (12.2 per cent) BTs interviewed specified that they had coordinator positions. Once CRTs are excluded from this figure of 12.2 per cent (since coordinator roles do not exist for them), the figure of BTs in leadership positions rises to five out of 33 (15 per cent). The findings from this study lend support to the ASPA (2007) questionnaire, where over 1300 BTs were surveyed nationwide: 26 per cent of them assumed leadership roles such as teacher in charge of a faculty/department, year level co-ordinator or a learning area.

Most BTs in this study indicated that their leadership roles were adding pressure to their workload. Generally speaking, BTs are grappling with the more fundamental aspects of teaching, such as learning how to teach, becoming familiar with their students and their curriculum areas, building relations with colleagues and parents, and so forth. Therefore, in general, early promotions of BTs into leadership positions may likely hinder their retention. Furthermore, the reasons why BTs are in leadership roles in the first place warrant further investigation. It is interesting to ponder whether this is due to the lack of interest from qualified candidates, given that only “60 to 65 per cent of school leadership positions are attractive to more qualified applications” (McKenzie et al., 2011, p. 102). Equally, due to the lack of interest in London schools, for example, many job vacancies remain vacant for head teacher and senior management positions; the pressures of these jobs have become too great and the remuneration unattractive (Troman & Woods, 2009).

Similarly, another aspect which may hinder the retention of BTs is their elevation to teach VCE. The 15 per cent of BTs, who were assigned to teach VCE in this study,
indicated that this made their workload more burdensome; this appears to be a new
discovery to emerge from this research. To reiterate, VCE is the highest and most
demanding level at secondary school for both students and teachers. With the
subsequent completion of VCE, students then compete for university places.
Therefore, the stakes are high for both students and their VCE teachers.

**An Unmanageable Workload & an Unhealthy Work–Life Balance**

Another consequence of an excessive workload is the degree to which BTs can
maintain a healthy work–life balance; this is likely to hinder their retention (Farber,
2010). In fact, 21 out of 41 (51 per cent) BTs interviewed indicated that their working
life was out of balance with their personal life. In other words, their work
responsibilities were disrupting their private lives; to the extent that 42.8 per cent of
such BTs believed their family and social relationships were being negatively
impacted by their workload. This is exacerbated for BTs who have been recruited
from Melbourne to work in provincial locations in Victoria; the added long commute
on the weekends to keep in touch with their family and friends impacts on their
leisure time. Research is not plentiful on the work–life balance of beginning teachers;
however, the findings in this study agree with Richardson and Watt (2010) who
called for an unambiguous separation of life at school and leisure time; with the
importance of “emotional distancing, recovery and regeneration” (p. 164) to keep
burnout and early career attrition at bay.

Moreover, the blurred lines between work and leisure time seem to have made work
for some BTs psychologically omnipresent. In other words, some BTs have indicated
that they cannot switch off from their work while they are supposedly in leisure time,
and for them this is a problem. One example is, walking down the beach and coming
across a sea shell and thinking this would add to an interesting lesson back in the
classroom.

More concerning is that some BTs have suggested that their workload is negatively
impacting on their health. For some BTs, there does not appear to be enough time to
exercise and eat well. More often than not, teachers are subject to a tight lunchtime
schedule with added duties and student activities to attend to; consequently, some have to “scoff” their food down. When BTs return home from work, a number have reported that they cannot find the time to exercise or to cook a “decent meal” because of lesson preparations and marking students’ work. These claims of negative health impacts of a poor diet and the lack of exercise due to an excessive workload appear to be a new finding to emerge from this study. Other consequences of a negative work–life balance may result in maladaptive behaviours such as teachers reporting sick while “actually avoiding an excessive workload” (Rosenblatt et al., 2010, p. 248). The work–life balance of BTs needs further investigating; it may act as an early indicator for their attrition.

At the other end of the spectrum, all the casual relief teachers in this research indicated that they experienced a fluctuating workload; ranging from no work, under-employment, and to working five days per week. This is a reflection of their itinerant nature of work, where they have to constantly seek work from school to school, unlike their permanent and fixed-term contract colleagues. One CRT in this study indicated that he had worked for 30 to 40 different schools. This finding is well above the highest recorded number of 20 schools a particular CRT had worked for in another study (Jenkins et al., 2009), which was considered surprising. This may indicate a greater extent to which some CRTs are prepared to go to find work. However, further research is needed in this area to affirm this assertion.

Despite this, for the greater part of the school year, most CRTs in this study were struggling to find work. In fact, seven out of eight (87.5 per cent) casual relief teachers have stated that they were required to supplement their income with other part-time work. These jobs included private tutoring, factory work, hospitality employment, working at a dog kennel and security work. This appears to be a new finding to emerge from this research, since other studies into casual relief teachers’ work do not cover this practice. The retention implications for such BTs are that the teaching profession runs the risk of losing them to other lines of work.
**Personal Safety Concerns from Students & Their Parents**

Another factor which is likely to inhibit the retention of BTs is their personal safety concerns when it comes to interacting with students and parents. When relating with students, a total of 26 out of 41 (63 per cent) BTs in this study used the word “challenging” to describe the behaviour in their classes. The word “challenging” was used as a euphemism for the difficulty in managing their students’ misbehaviour. This finding lends support to a study on teacher stress, which noted that a result of managing student misbehaviour was a subsequent predictor of burnout (McCormick & Barnett, 2011).

Following from that, and more seriously, 15 out of 41 (36 per cent) BTs believed, at some point, their personal safety was a risk from students, while carrying out their duties as teachers. For instance, some BTs in this study have faced pre-attack behaviour from their students: when students encroached on their personal space with the perceived intention to cause physical harm. In addition, some BTs have said that students have threatened them with physical injury. Furthermore, 10 out of 41 (24 per cent) BTs indicated that they were verbally abused by students; most of these victims were CRTs and fixed-term contract teachers, with one full-time permanent teacher.

There have been comparatively few studies, with other areas in education research, on the perpetration of violence against school teachers by students (Chen & Astor, 2009). Perhaps the reason for this is that it is unintentionally regarded as a taboo subject: the act of a student causing physical harm to a teacher seems unmentionable because it is an affront to the long-established view of teachers fulfilling a nurturing role with children. Nevertheless, relatedly, student threats and acts of violence are a well-known concern, especially for US schools (Nekvasil & Cornell, 2012; Sulkowski & Lazarus, 2011; Tisak, Wichorek, & Tisak, 2011). Moreover, in 2009, 31.5 per cent of US high school students reported that they had been in a physical fight in the previous year (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2010). Even though the Australian context in schools is different from those in the US, when a physical fight broke out between students, BTs in this study...
were not only concerned for their own safety but for other students as well. Often female BTs as well as CRTs in this study found themselves in a precarious position in deciding what action to take when physical fights erupted between students in the classroom.

In relation to violence against teachers, the findings from this study are consistent with the views of Kapuppi and Porhola (2012), who define violent and intimidating behaviour by students as a form of bullying: “a communication process in which a teacher is repeatedly subject, by one or more students, to interaction that he or she perceives as insulting, upsetting, or intimidating. Bullying can be verbal, non-verbal, or physical in nature” (p. 1061). Therefore, the retention of such BTs is in jeopardy the longer this sort of bullying by students remains unaddressed by the school establishment. Furthermore, the findings from this study are consistent with research which shows violence against teachers increases their fears of personal safety (Astor, Meyer, Benbenishty, Marachi, & Rosemond, 2005; Fetherston & Lummis, 2012). The consequences are that teachers may exit the teaching profession entirely if their fears for personal safety remain unaddressed (Fetherston & Lummis, 2012).

Additionally, the findings in this study show that CRTs were the least supported by their school administration, compared to other forms of employment, when reporting personal safety concerns and bullying perpetrated by students against them. This comes as no surprise, since CRTs are generally viewed as “here today and gone the next” (Jenkins et al., 2009, p. 63). Furthermore, a striking discovery was made between BTs’ mode of employment and their personal safety. More fixed-term contract BTs (eight out of 20) had issues to do with their personal safety than full-time permanent BTs (four out of 13): 40 and 30 per cent respectively. Casual relieving teachers also had a high reading, with a total of three out of 8 (37.5 per cent) BTs expressing similar concern. However, since the numbers in this study are low, further investigations are required to determine whether BTs’ form of employment does make a difference to their personal safety perception, while at work.
Equally, there appears to be more personal safety concerns for BTs from schools with lower socio-economic profiles than higher ones. However, more research is needed in this area because more schools from lower socio-economic profiles participated in this study than higher ones.

In addition to BTs being bullied by students, some BTs experienced verbal slander from aggressive parents. Again, research on this practice is not plentiful but studies suggest that such aggression directed towards teachers by parents does occur. As a result, this sort of hostility directed towards teachers can be detrimental to their retention (Farber, 2010).

In order to fully understand the scope of student violence and bullying against teachers in Australia, future research needs to address the issues that have been put forward. Further studies are especially needed regarding the types of supports and preventions offered to fixed-term contract and casual relieving teachers, because they are the most vulnerable to student and parent aggression.

Adverse Induction & Mentoring Experiences
Another factor that may hinder the retention of BTs is any adverse induction experiences. This study found that 12 out of 41 (29 per cent) BTs had negative experiences, while 11 out of 41 (26.8 per cent) BTs were ambivalent towards their induction process. The types of negative experiences were: no induction and orientation at all; a hasty and brief induction and orientation; and BTs being overlooked for induction and orientation because they had formerly worked in some other capacity at their school or they started later in the school calendar year. This finding lends support to studies which show that there is a direct relationship between BTs’ involvement in induction programs and their retention (Ingersoll, 2012; Kapadia et al., 2007). Therefore, the absence of an induction program or a hastily put together one is likely to hinder the retention of BTs.
A key aspect of the induction process in schools is the mentoring BTs undertake (Harrison, 2008; Hobson et al., 2009; Wong, 2004). However, in this study there were many negative mentoring experiences, including: absent mentors; no allocated mentors; not enough mentoring; and the use of unqualified mentors. These findings support the findings from Rickard and Banville (2010), in their use of the term “underserved” (p. 250) to describe mentors who are routinely absent to meet with their BTs. The use of unqualified mentors (Marable & Raimondi, 2007) could lead to unnecessary tensions with BTs; and subsequently may result in the early departure of novice teachers (Hobson et al., 2009; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004a; J. S. Long et al., 2012).

Furthermore, one BT in this research was upset that her mentor was on another campus and consequently they hardly ever met. This finding supports studies which suggest that an important consideration for effective mentoring was the level of proximity between mentor and beginning teacher. The issue of proximity is highlighted by Iringa-Bistolas, Schalock, Marvin and Beck (2007): in a rural US setting, they found that beginning teachers who had their mentors in the same building “had their informational, instructional and emotional needs being met at higher levels than participants whose mentors were separated from them in another building” (pp. 19–20). It seems, at times the most obvious factor of proximity, when it comes to the right pairing between mentors and beginning teachers, may be overlooked; the consequence is that it may needlessly hinder the retention of BTs.

**Negative PD Experiences**

To reiterate, professional development programs or seminars act as an important component in the overall induction packages for BTs. Ingersoll (2012) argued that as the number of components in the induction package increased for BTs, “the likelihood of their turnover decreased” (p. 50). Thus, PD programs are another element that may contribute to the retention of BTs and therefore adverse experiences of such programs may hinder their retention. This study showed that 38 per cent of BTs held negative views: no PD offered; fewer opportunities for PD; and
unhelpful PD. Also, numerous BTs indicated that they were too busy for PD and therefore it was not a priority for them.

For BTs who were undertaking casual relief teaching, eight out of eight (100 per cent) of them indicated that PD seminars were not offered to them by any school they had worked for. This finding agrees with past research in that CRTs are consistently overlooked for professional development, owing much to their itinerate nature – moving from school to school to gain work (Jenkins et al., 2009; Lunay & Lock, 2006; McCormack & Thomas, 2005). Moreover, since PD programs come at a cost, schools may be reluctant to offer them to their casual teachers.

A new finding to come from this research is that some CRTs believed that PD was not worth doing. In fact, the whole notion of PD for casual relief teachers seemed somewhat ludicrous to certain CRTs because it was their job to just “man the classrooms” and “you don’t develop as a professional [by doing this job]”. Furthermore, one CRT claimed he developed his professional teaching skills while “on the job”; for instance, he has gained knowledge and skills on how to operate the electronic whiteboard through the assistance of his students. In addition, certain CRTs indicated that PD offered by various teaching agencies came at a high financial cost, making it unaffordable to complete with their limited budget.

The low priority these casual BTs have for their PD may be a reflection of their equally low status and the low expectations from their school communities. In fact, according to Lawn (1995), the prevalence of the casualisation of teachers has given rise to “unskilled teaching” (p. 354). Despite some CRTs believing that PD is a worthless pursuit, it has been argued that they in fact require additional skills than those of permanent teachers to accomplish their work successfully (Duggleby & Badali, 2007). For instance, in the behaviour management of students, CRTs may benefit from “more reactive and immediate behaviour management strategies” (Jenkins et al., 2009, p. 65). This is required due to their transient nature, which does not allow the opportunity to build strong connections with students; with strong rapport comes better behavioural management practices. CRTs may also benefit
from knowing what their legal rights and responsibilities are with students and ways of avoiding “fateful moments” (Giddens, 1991, p. 112) which may adversely influence their future lives and identity as developing teachers and, at the same time, their retention.

In contrast to casual relief teachers indicating they received no PD from schools, seven out of 33 (21 per cent) of BTs who are fixed-term contract and full-time permanent indicated that they were exposed to limited opportunities for PD. Despite not being able to directly compare BTs, this appears less than the latest Staff Survey, indicating that secondary school teachers spent on average eight days in professional learning activities (McKenzie et al., 2011). Hence, limited opportunities for PD may likely hinder the retention of BTs.

New findings to emerge from this study with respect to PD was that 10 out of 41 (24 per cent) BTs indicated that they were too theory based and had little practical use. Also, seven out of 41 (17 per cent) BTs stated that they were too busy for any professional development, especially if it interfered with their planned work schedules for their VCE students. The PD programs BTs attend should be relevant to their needs in their particular growth stage rather than a ‘tick-box exercise’ for the school administration. Finally, BTs who teach VCE must see a direct gain from taking time off from their busy work schedules to complete PD programs; if not, then it is a mute exercise.

**The Lack of Support & Guidance Provided when Teaching Out-of-field**

Another element which is likely to hinder the retention of BTs is out-of-field teaching. To reiterate, when assigned to teach an area that BTs were not trained in, the practice of out-of-field teaching occurs. Moreover, out-of-field teaching takes place when teachers are “assigned to teach subjects for which they have little preparation, education, or background” (Ingersoll, 2008, p. 369). In this study 18 out of 33 (54.5 per cent) BTs, excluding CRTs, indicated that at some point in the past, or at present, they taught out-of-field, whereas it has been reported that 27 per cent of BTs were teaching out of their expertise in a nation-wide online survey, involving
over 1300 participants (ASPA, 2007). This is a concern because the rate of out-of-field teaching amongst BTs appears high.

However, it seems that out-of-field teaching is a more common practice than not, as shown by the latest Staff in Australia’s Schools Survey (McKenzie et al., 2011). For example, in the teaching of secondary school subjects, the lowest attainment of methodological training is in the areas of information technology, physics, and maths: 42.5 per cent, 56.9 per cent and 60.4 per cent respectively (McKenzie et al., 2011). In other words, only 42.5 per cent of information technology teachers (years 7/8–10) have completed university training in that area. Similarly, only 56.9 per cent of physics (years 11–12) teachers and 60.4 per cent of maths (years 7/8–10) teachers are formally qualified in those areas across Australia. Therefore, in reality, BTs enter existing teaching contexts where out-of-field teaching is widespread.

Furthermore, the heart of the debate around out-of-field teaching lies in the lack of consensus around the definition of a “qualified teacher” (Ingersoll, 2001a, p. 42). Debate also exists on how much education and the types of training teachers should undergo, to be considered ‘qualified’ in a teaching area (Bulman, 2008; Ingersoll, 2001a, 2005). For instance, in Australia, “there is no single definition of the discipline-specific background necessary for teachers of senior school science” (Harris, Jensz, & Baldwin, 2005, p. 16). This lack of consensus adds to the difficulty in pinpointing suitably qualified teachers to staff secondary schools in Australia. Difficulty in identifying suitably qualified teachers may add to the challenges in retaining talented ones, who are likely to make a tangible difference to student outcomes.

Furthermore, the negative consequences of BTs who teach out of their expertise in this study are numerous. The majority of BTs, who were teaching out-of-field in this study, indicated that it was an undesirable practice compared to those who enjoyed it: 74 per cent compared to 26 per cent. When describing their experiences of teaching out of their expertise, some BTs indicated that they were “stressed-out”, “stumbled through it” and afterwards they felt “exhausted”. This was especially the case with those BTs who received no or little support from their school community.
These findings support past studies on similar undesirable outcomes of out-of-field teaching (ASPA, 2007; Bulman, 2008). Moreover, with some teachers, student outcomes may become questionable when out-of-field teaching takes place; one BT lamented that, “It’s not fair on the kids”. It is interesting to ponder why out-of-field teaching essentially occurs at all; Ingersoll (2008), who is a leader in this area, concludes that it is not so much a supply problem but a “misassignment” problem in the hands of school principals: “some principals find that assigning teachers to teach out of their field of expertise is more efficient and less expensive than the alternatives” (p. 371). Whatever the explanations may be for BTs to teach out of their area of expertise, it appears likely that it may hinder their retention.

**The Absence of Autonomy & Discretion in the Workplace**

Another factor that may hinder the retention of BTs is their perceived lack of autonomy and discretion in the workplace as reflective practitioners. A sense of independence and personal discretion are important elements for BTs as they feel they have an input in developing curriculum, and their ideas and teaching approach are reinforced by their school administration (Cole, 1997; Sumsion, 2003; Wiss, 1999). Furthermore, work locations that limit BTs’ ability to innovate in their work are strongly associated with burnout (Goddard & Goddard, 2006). In this study, six out of 41 (14 per cent) BTs indicated that their ideas and teaching style were not supported by their school administration. For instance all the BTs from a provincial school found teaching vast numbers of students in an open plan classroom “tricky” and “limiting”; all teachers were mandated to teach together in teams of four called “pods”. Their traditional visions and hopes of developing their students through their individual teaching styles were abandoned; this was highlighted by a BT giving his resignation to his school after the completion of his interview for this study.

**Maladaptive Motivations for Entering the Teaching Profession**

With regard to career change teachers in this study, factors that may hinder their retention are related to their motivations for entering the teaching profession. This study only identified a total of nine career change teachers, therefore the sample is small. Nevertheless, career change BTs indicated several maladaptive motivations,
which appear to be not healthy for their longevity as teachers. To reiterate, Sinclair, Dowson and Mcinerney (2006) describe a maladaptive motivation as one which facilitates a “disengagement in a task or activity” (p. 1138). Some of the maladaptive motivations indicated by career change BTs for their switch into teaching were: “I thought that teaching would be easier”; “It was an easy step to take after my BA”; and “Holidays and convenient hours of work”.

These maladaptive motivations seem to support the findings of previous studies. For instance, Watt and Richardson (2007) used the Australian colloquialism of “bludging” to describe the public perception of teaching. This relates to individuals “adopting the laziest approach” and, with regard to teaching, “bludging could be based on people’s perceptions about the length of the teacher’s working day, as well as school holidays” (Watt & Richardson, 2007, p. 173). However, the perceived teaching hours of 9 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. Monday to Friday are in reality extended well beyond that and may include evening, weekend and holiday work for some teachers. Indeed, teachers’ workload and responsibilities may become unmanageable (Abbott-Chapman, 2006; Bartlett, 2004; Buchanan, 2010). Therefore, the maladaptive motivations identified for some of the career change teachers in this study may well hinder their retention.

**Principals’ Views: Challenges for the Retention of Their Beginning Teachers**

The principals in this study recognised several challenges for the retention of their BTs. A prime challenge was attracting and retaining BTs talented in teaching mathematics and science. This need by school principals is supported by various studies (Bulman, 2008; Ingersoll & Perda, 2010; OECD, 2005). Moreover, the attraction and retention of mathematics and science teachers was more pressing for provincial principals; again, this point of view is well supported by past research (Lyons, 2009; O’Neill & Fildes, 2007). There is even more challenge in recruiting and retaining teachers, of any type, in remote schools across Australia (Motley et al., 2005; Roberts, 2004). A new finding to come from this study was that principals practiced poaching talented BTs from other schools. This practice is synonymous
with the catchphrase “war for talent” (Michaels et al., 2001, p. 1), used among business circles.

Mankins, Bird and Root (2013) describe talent as an “organization’s scarcest resource” and the difference between the best employee and the rest is “enormous” (p. 75). They estimate that across all job categories, the top employees are approximately four times as productive as the average ones, irrespective of the type of industry, geographical location and organisation (Mankins et al., 2013). Therefore it would seem that some school principals in this study recognise high performing BTs have a special role to play in their schools; not only for their ability to teach certain curriculum areas but for the leadership they may provide in the future. The challenges then are in the ways principals can nurture and retain talented BTs, once they are recruited.

Performance and Development Culture Accreditation (PDCA) is a program used to develop and manage talent amongst the teaching profession; by improving the quality of teaching and ultimately student outcomes. The importance of teacher quality in achieving student outcomes is backed up by numerous research findings (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Hanushek, 2011; Rivkin et al., 2005). Therefore, for Victorian schools, the PDCA program has a key role to play in addressing the retention of talented BTs and raising student outcomes.

Another major challenge for principals with regard to their BTs was their workload. Indeed, according to the Huntly principal, “the biggest challenge” he can see is “the teachers can get worn out very very quickly” because of an “increasing workload”. Similarly, the Oak Bank principal acknowledges that the heavy workload of her BTs often comes as a surprise to them with the public perception that teaching is “from 9:00 am to 3:30 pm”. The heavy workload of some BTs has been well documented, in contrast to the public misperception that teaching offers ‘easy hours of work’ (Abbott-Chapman, 2006; Bartlett, 2004; Buchanan, 2010). Therefore, along with the implementation of a PDCA program, principals and senior teachers need to regularly
monitor the workload stress of their BTs to mitigate the chances of them burning out. Furthermore, principals will be well served by ensuring that their BTs carve out a proper time for their personal lives, for their replenishment and rejuvenation.

**The Duration BTs Perceive Themselves Remaining in the Profession**

Another factor which may influence the retention of BTs is their career expectancy or the length of time they project to be teachers. The results from this study show that 15 out of 41 (36 per cent) BTs indicated that they planned to teach for more than 10 years. This differs with the career expectancy projections of BTs found by Manuel and Hughes’s (2006) Australian study. Although their study used questionnaire responses to gather data from 79 participants, unlike the structured open-ended interviews used in this research, they found that more than “two-thirds of the sample intended teaching for at least 10 years after being appointed” (Manuel & Hughes, 2006, p. 5). If one takes Manuel and Hughes’s (2006) findings as a reference point, it appears that the number of BTs who plan to teach for 10 years has dropped by approximately a half since the year 2006 (66 per cent compared to 36 per cent).

However, further research is needed in BTs’ career projections, to have more confidence in this assertion that less of them intend to stay for the long term of 10 years. Nonetheless, it is interesting to speculate on what the consequences may be for BTs who want to be in the teaching profession for a shorter time. One consequence is that schools and bureaucracies have to make managing BTs, especially talented ones, a greater priority. Another point of attention is that policy makers may need to reconsider the assumption that teaching is a life-long vocation, in light of the smaller numbers of BTs intending to remain in their work for any extensive period of time; this is a topic that past researchers have been debating (Dwyer & Wyn, 2001; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2011; Manuel, 2003). Additionally, teacher training institutions would benefit from training pre-service teachers to work in multiple settings, instead of one traditional classroom (Pietsch & Williamson, 2007). This is needed due to the prevalence of fixed-term contract casual relief teaching (Lawn, 1995), and the practice of teachers switching from one employment form into another. Related to this is the indication that CRTs were finding teaching work in
increasing numbers of school sites. For example, one casual relief BT indicated he obtained work in up to 40 different schools.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, the evidence from this study indicates that the amount and quality of support BTs receive from their school helps determine whether they have a stress-free or difficult start to their teaching. Support, for example, includes induction processes, mentoring and worthwhile PD. There appears to be a hierarchy of support measured out by schools for BTs: the most supported BTs are those who are full-time permanent, then individuals who are on fixed-term contracts and lastly casual relief teachers. Sincere support and guidance can make a dramatic difference to BTs, even when they are assigned to teach in areas where they have little knowledge and training. For instance, all the BTs who were enjoying and flourishing in their out-of-field teaching indicated that they also had support and guidance from their school community and had resources at their disposal. Otherwise, most BTs indicated that out-of-field teaching was an unwelcomed practice causing them to feel “stressed-out” and uncertain throughout the lesson, leaving them “exhausted” afterwards.

In addition, the potential for ‘fateful moments’ or ‘critical incidents’ appears lower for those BTs who are full-time permanent positions compared to those who teach on a fixed-term contract and casual basis. For example, evidence from this study shows that critical incidents involving various forms of abuse perpetrated by students appears less frequent for full-time permanent BTs compared to fixed-term contract BTs and CRTs. It is ironic that CRTs who are the most vulnerable to critical incidents receive the least support from their school administration.

Furthermore, BTs’ concern for their personal safety appears more frequent in disadvantaged schools. However, this claim requires further investigation. Critical incidents, such as threats to personal safety, should be properly addressed and stamped out for the sake of retaining BTs. This is so because critical incidents disturb the orderly development of a teacher. As a consequence, it may compel such teachers to question their fundamental values and beliefs that motivated them to
enter the teaching profession in the first place. Moreover, such events have negative implications for their identity as teachers. Having said that, it is important to stress that the ‘critical’ property of incidents lies not to a great extent in the incident itself, but in the ways each individual teacher interprets them. In other words, what may be critical for one BT may not be critical for another one. However, teacher violence committed by students would be considered by most as critical in nature.

Education authorities need to be truthful and forthcoming with prospective teachers; cautioning them that teacher violence and various forms of abuse perpetrated by students and some parents is a real issue, particularly in some lower socio-economic schools. This assertion is supported by findings from this study, in which 34 per cent of BTs indicated that student behaviour was more unruly than they expected. Moreover, 36 per cent of BTs in this study believed at some point they were fearful for their personal safety from students while carrying out their duties as teachers. If BTs are required to teach in schools where there are consistently known instances of teacher violence and abuse committed by students and parents, then that workplace should be deemed hazardous. As a consequence, ‘danger money’ or ‘danger pay’ should be awarded to teachers as extra pay to compensate for the risks involved to their physical and mental health. This initiative would be in keeping with employees from other hazardous occupations, such as the mining industry.

The overwhelming employment preference for BTs in this study was for a full-time permanent arrangement. This choice reflected a need for job security and to assist a majority of them to purchase a home or meet existing mortgage repayments. This desire for full-time permanent work may also be a reflection on the current difficult economic times people live in due to the global financial crisis. However, it appears that the education system cannot afford to have all BTs starting on a full-time permanent basis, as it would be too costly and create more inefficiency in the teacher labour markets. That said, certain schools appear to be unfair with some of their employment practices with their BTs on fixed-term contracts; as such, ‘commitment imbalance’ is a term to emerge from this study and occurs when BTs are devoted to and succeeding in their jobs but the school cannot reciprocate in kind
by indicating future employment for them. This issue of commitment imbalance requires further investigation because it is at the heart of teacher motivation and retention.

Workload and work–life balance are key issues facing BTs. Schools that monitor their BTs’ workload stress and help to address this issue may do well in retaining them. Otherwise, the most talented and committed of the BTs are candidates for poaching by other schools, being exploited by job embedded senior teachers, or face burnout and leave the education system altogether. In addition, many BTs in this study believed that teaching offered them a suitable career-fit because it provided family-friendly conditions. However, the teaching hours of Monday mornings to Friday afternoons, are, in reality, extended well beyond that and may include evening, weekend and holiday work for some teachers. Therefore, BTs may soon come to realise that teaching hours may in fact become noticeably family-unfriendly. Furthermore, those who move into teaching with the trust that it will provide time for their family were less likely to be pleased with their career selection (Richardson & Watt, 2010; Watt & Richardson, 2007). To avoid this disappointment, individuals could be screened before they enter their teaching course for their motivations; and recommended not to enter the teaching profession for family-friendly reasons.

Given that the ‘best and brightest’ of individuals normally do not enter teaching to begin with, and the most talented in the existing teaching pool are prone to burnout, it is imperative that schools and education institutions help retain the remaining talent. Otherwise, the consequences are too great when BTs, especially talented ones, depart early in their careers.

A total of six adverse consequences have been identified when BTs depart early in their careers. Firstly, student achievement may suffer due to the disruption of prior learning and loss of the original teacher–student relationship, which equates to a “loss of cultural and intellectual capital” (Manuel & Hughes, 2006, p. 6) from the school. Secondly, school effectiveness may potentially decline, when more resources are devoted to inducting and orientating new teachers, which in turn may
lower morale of existing staff. A third consequence is that teaching quality may potentially decline if there is not the supply to replace the departing teacher. Out-of-field teaching takes place, potentially making even talented teachers far less able.

Fourthly, it is a waste of public resources because the system suffers as a long-term benefit is not actualised from its investments in BTs. Fifthly, there is a human cost when BTs leave soon after investing time and resources to build their careers (Manuel, 2003). Furthermore, the human cost may increase for those teachers who are not prepared for the daily stressors of teaching, which can lead to “debilitating health consequences” (Richardson & Watt, 2010, p. 163). Lastly, there is a national economic impact with the attrition of teachers, particularly effective maths and science ones, which may have negative ramifications on a country’s rate of economic growth (Hanushek, 2011). Supporting this, Hanushek (2011) claims that countries that perform better on international maths and science tests have stronger growth of their economies. Therefore the retention of BTs does matter, especially talented ones.

Despite these negative consequences, Lansen secondary showed exemplary practices for the retention of their BTs in this study. For instance, most BTs interviewed from Lansen experienced a healthy work–life balance, an absence of critical incidents, meaningful professional learning activities, and a supportive and empathic mentor working within an overall collegial environment. Above all, BTs from Lansen expressed that their fledgling ideas and approaches were supported, paving the way for their growth as reflective teacher practitioners. These findings were very encouraging and suggest that all schools have the potential to emulate such methods for the well-being and the likely retention of their BTs. An area for further research is identifying similar successful schools such as Lansen and to explore the positive experiences amongst their BTs. Adding to this, it is valuable to research attributes of schools and education systems which allow BTs in all forms of employment and school settings to not only survive but to flourish. In other words, it is worthwhile to investigate the question, what does a successful metropolitan, provincial and remote school look like when it comes to the retention and thriving of their BTs in all their forms of employment?
References


Appendix 1A: Letter of Invitation to Principals
Beginning Secondary School Teacher Pathways and their Career Intentions in Victoria

Dear Principal,

Your school is invited to participate in the above research project, which is being conducted by Professor Jack Keating, Dr. Suzanne Rice and Mr. Ahmet Latifoglu of the Melbourne Graduate School of Education at the University of Melbourne. This project will form part of Mr. Latifoglu’s PhD thesis and has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC 1033678.1) as well as the Department of Education and Early Childhood Development.

Schools today face an increasing attrition of beginning teachers, particularly in high-demand subject areas like mathematics and science. The premature departure of beginning teachers negatively impacts on themselves, their students’ learning and their school. Your participation in this study will help to address this difficulty. Participation in the project will involve the completion of a 60 minute interview with a beginning teacher (of up to three years of experience) during June to August 2011. The interviews will ask your beginning teachers to reflect on their experiences in schools. A copy of the questions is included for your information. If possible, we are seeking to interview one beginning casual relief teacher, one beginning fixed-term contract teacher and one beginning ongoing permanent teacher. If you are willing to participate in this study we would be grateful if you could nominate some teachers who meet these categories, who we could approach to request an interview.

The confidentiality of your teachers’ responses will be protected to the fullest possible extent, within the limits of the law. Once the thesis arising from this research has been completed, a brief summary of the findings will be available to you on application to the Education Policy and Leadership Unit at the Melbourne Graduate School of Education. Findings from the study may be presented at academic conferences, and recommendations from the study concerning teacher entry into the profession may be communicated to policymakers.

Should you require any further information about the project, please do not hesitate to contact one of the researchers conducting the study: Professor Jack Keating (ph. 8344 6020), Dr. Suzanne Rice (ph. 8344 0950) and Mr. Ahmet Latifoglu (ph. 0418 9232 10). Should you have any concerns about the conduct of the project, you are welcome to contact the Executive Officer, Human Research Ethics, The University of Melbourne, on ph. 8344 2073 or fax. 9347 6739.

Thank you for your consideration of this request

Professor Jack Keating (Supervisor)
Dr. Suzanne Rice (Supervisor)
Mr. Ahmet Latifoglu (PhD Student)
Appendix 1B: Plain Language Statement

Beginning Secondary School Teacher Pathways and their Career Intentions in Victoria

Dear teacher,

I am writing to invite you to participate in the above research project, which is being conducted by Professor Jack Keating, Dr. Suzanne Rice and Mr. Ahmet Latifoglu of the Melbourne Graduate School of Education at the University of Melbourne. This project will form part of Mr. Latifoglu’s PhD thesis and has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC 1033678.1) and the Department of Education and Early Childhood Development.

Schools today face an increasing attrition of beginning teachers, particularly in high-demand subject areas like mathematics and science. The premature departure of beginning teachers negatively impacts on themselves, their students' learning and their school. Your participation in this study will help to address this difficulty.

The aim of this study is to examine the early career experiences of beginning teachers and the relationship between those experiences and their career intentions. Participation in the project will involve beginning teachers (those with up to three years of experience) being interviewed for one hour. The interview will ask the beginning teacher to reflect on their experiences at this school. At each school, we would like to interview three beginning teachers: one casual relief teacher; one fixed-term contract teacher and one ongoing full-time teacher.

The confidentiality of your responses will be protected to the fullest possible extent, within the limits of the law. Once the thesis arising from this research has been completed, a brief summary of the findings will be provided to the school. Findings from the study may also be presented at academic conferences, and recommendations from the study concerning teacher entry into the profession may be communicated to policymakers. You and the school will not be named in the thesis, in any reports or papers arising from the study. Furthermore, any identifying details will be altered.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. Should you wish to withdraw at any stage, or to withdraw any unprocessed data they have supplied, you are free to do so without prejudice. Should you have any enquires concerning this study, please do not hesitate to contact either Dr. Suzanne Rice (ph. 8344 0950) or Mr. Ahmet Latifoglu (ph. 0418923210).

Thank you for your consideration of this request.

Professor Jack Keating (Supervisor)
Dr. Suzanne Rice (Supervisor) Mr. Ahmet Latifoglu (PhD Student)
Appendix 2: Interview Questions

1. Before we get started into the particular questions. I would like to get a broad sense of your experiences. How’s it going?
2. Why did you choose to go into teaching?
3. Is teaching your first career? If teaching is not your first career, what did you do before you decided to teach? Why did you decide to make the career change?
4. How long have you been teaching for and for how long have you been teaching at this school?
5. How would you describe your school to someone who does not know anything about it?
    - What is it like to teach here?
6. What are your terms of employment at this school? For example, are you full-time ongoing, part-time ongoing, fixed term contract or casual relief teaching?
7. Is this your preferred type of employment? Why? / Why not?
8. In which subjects did you complete your teaching methods in and in which subjects have you taught in?
    - (If teaching out-of-field) What is your perceived capacity to teach subjects A & B (trained in), can you rate them out of 10, compared with the subjects C & D (not trained in), can you rate them out of 10?
    - (If teaching out-of-field) What toll, if any, does it have on you when you teach subjects C & D (not trained in)?
9. Do you feel sufficiently prepared to teach in the way that you are expected to teach here? Why?
Where do you go for advice and information about what and how to teach?

10. How would you describe your induction and orientation at this school?

(Probe) Was your induction and orientation to your satisfaction?

11. How would you describe your mentoring experiences at your school?

12. How would you describe your support by experienced teachers at your school?

- Is the mentoring and support that you received what you needed?

13. What have your experiences in the classroom been like at this school?

- Is the support that you received was what you needed?
- Has there ever been an occasion when you thought that your safety was a risk? If so, what happened, how did you feel, was the matter resolved to your satisfaction?

14. How much professional development have you received? What kind?

- Is this what you expected?

15. How much freedom do you have in this school to teach the way you want to teach?

16. What is your work/life balance like and how do you feel about it?

17. What is your work load like at this school and how do you feel about it?

18. Has teaching been what you expected? Why? Why not? What did you expect before you entered?

19. Does teaching offer you a ‘good fit’ as a career? How long do you plan to continue with your teaching career? Why?

20. If you plan to teach for a short time, what conditions would need to change for you to seriously consider spending a longer time in the teaching workforce?
Appendix 3A: Consent Form


Name of participant: ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

Name of investigators: Professor Jack Keating, Dr. Suzanne Rice & Mr. Ahmet Latifoglu

1. I consent to participate in the project named above, the particulars of which – including details of interview have been explained to me. A written copy of the information has been given to me to keep.

2. I authorise the researcher or assistant to use for this purpose the interview referred to under (1) above.

3. I acknowledge that:

(a) the possible effects of the interview have been explained to me to my satisfaction;

(b) I have been informed that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without explanation or prejudice and to withdraw any unprocessed data previously supplied;

(c) The project is for the purpose of research;

(d) I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded subject to any legal requirements.

(e) Consent to interviews being audio-taped, acknowledgement that copies of transcripts will be returned to participant for verification, participants to be referred to by pseudonym.

Signature ___________________________ Date ___________________________

( Participant)

Signature ___________________________ Date ___________________________

(Witness)
Appendix 3B: Proforma for Beginning Teachers

Beginning Teachers: Proforma

(Please note all data provided will be: de-identified, confidential, securely stored, destroyed after five years)

1. Please indicate your gender

☐ Female
☐ Male

2. Please indicate your age

☐ 21 – 25 years  ☐ 26 – 30 years  ☐ 31 – 35 years
☐ 36 – 40 years  ☐ 41 – 45 years  ☐ 46 – 50 years
☐ 51 – 55 years  ☐ 56 – 60 years  ☐ 61+ years

3. In which institution did you complete your educational qualification?

☐ Australian Catholic University
☐ Deakin University
☐ La Trobe University
☐ Monash University
☐ RMIT University
☐ Swinburne University
☐ University of Banksia
4. Which courses have you completed?

- Dip. Ed. (Pre-service)
- Postgraduate specialist diploma (e.g. TESOL)
- Bachelor of Teaching
- Bachelor of Education
Appendix 4: Tree Map of Entire Coding Process for the Study
Author/s: LATIFOGLU, AHMET

Title:
Staying or leaving? An analysis of early career paths of beginning teachers in Victorian government secondary schools

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