THE NATURE OF CARING TEACHERS AND THE FACTORS THAT IMPACT ON THEIR CARING

Submitted by

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STATEMENT OF SOURCES

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No other person’s work has been used without due acknowledgement in the main text of the thesis.

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All research procedures reported in the thesis received the approval of the relevant Ethics Committees (see appendixes K and L for approval letters).

Signed: _______________________________ Date: __________________
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ABSTRACT

Teachers who care for their students are considered to be essential to a productive learning environment for students. The presence of such teachers in classrooms is therefore important if students are to experience the best possibilities for learning. This thesis examines the nature of caring teachers and explores both personal and contextual factors that influence teachers’ caring practices, providing insight into how these teachers’ practices may be sustained. Specifically, the thesis addresses three research questions: 1) How do caring teachers demonstrate care? 2) What are the personal factors that contribute to a caring teacher’s approach? 3) What are the contextual factors that hinder and/or support a caring teacher’s approach?

The thesis presents two models: the first hypothesises that the demonstration of care includes both a personal and educational dimension; the second presents factors that may influence a caring teacher’s approach. These models were explored using a mixed method approach within three secondary, co-educational Catholic schools in Sydney, Australia. Teachers within these schools were surveyed (N = 178), 10 peer-nominated caring teachers were interviewed and observed (n = 10), students were interviewed in groups (N = 33) and colleagues of the 10 teachers were surveyed (n = 13).

Analysis of the data shows that there are a number of distinct caring practices utilised by caring teachers. These include (a) a focus on relationships with students, (b) attentiveness, (c) flexibility, (d) compassion, (e) recognition of limitations, and (f) an approachable manner. The practices of caring teachers were found to be motivated by 10 mindsets underpinned by an optimistic belief that change is possible and that help given will improve a situation. The study also reveals that the caring process involves three phases. Mindsets are found to be the first phase of the educational caring process and provide both the rationale and motivation for caring.
The second phase, called the inner response, consists of two key elements in a caring teacher’s approach. The first element is the ability to notice and recognise the need for care, while the second is concerned with an emotional response to that need, usually in the form of compassion or concern. The final phase of the caring process involves three key aspects of care demonstrated through personal qualities, commitment and caring acts. The caring acts demonstrated by the teachers in this study confirm the first model based upon the literature review which placed educational and personal care as the two key dimensions of care. However, as a result of the data analysis, the model is modified to show that relationship is at the core of these two types of care and facilitates the caring acts.

Investigation of the third research question provided much needed empirical findings with regard to the factors that affect caring. Results confirm many of the theoretical perspectives but also show that spending time with students is important to caring teachers in the support and maintenance of caring practices. Additionally, factors that hinder caring teachers include (a) tiredness and feeling drained, (b) students failing to respond to care, (c) lack of time, and (d) staff with different mindsets. Hindering factors are fewer in number than those that support. Both the hindering and supportive factors identified by the nominated caring teachers are somewhat different to those factors identified by other teachers. Based upon the results, the thesis presents a modified model of care for future research, along with recommendations related to the selection, training, induction, and sustaining of caring teachers.
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1 INTRODUCTION

Caring fulfils a basic need in all people to experience attachment, security and belonging, (1991 p. 10) and caring assists in protecting and sustaining life (Lipsitz, 1995). Further to this, people not only have a desire to be cared-for but also show a desire to care for others (Noddings, 1984; Noddings, 1992). It is reasonable to assume then, that caring is important to fulfilling important emotional and physical needs in human beings when both receiving care and giving care. Caring for students is a form of contextualised caring with its own particular characteristics and processes. A caring teacher is, according to Noddings, “someone who has demonstrated that she can establish, more or less regularly, relations of care in a wide variety of situations” (2001 pp. 100-101). The purpose of this thesis is to explore how caring teachers demonstrate care, the personal factors that contribute to a caring approach, and the factors that hinder and support their caring practices.

1.1 Caring Within the Classroom Context

In the context of the classroom where people are called to relate with each other for up to 30 hours a week, the demonstration of care impacts not only on the environment but on the long term qualities of the students. Indeed, Lipsitz (1995) reports that care is important for sustaining a productive working environment, while Glasser (1984), Perez (2000), and Rogers and Webb (1991) assert that the presence of caring teachers in schools plays an important part in developing in them a sense of connectedness and belonging. It has also been reported that students benefit both academically and personally when they are cared for by their teachers (Collinson, Killeavy, & Stephenson, 1998; Noblit, Rogers, & McCadden, 1995; O'Donoghue, Brooker, & Purdie, 1994; Schussler & Collins, 2006; Wentzel, 1997). However, while caring is
considered to be essential in a learning context and has been noted across a range of relationships and interactions (Schussler & Collins, 2006), empirical study of care in the classroom context has been somewhat haphazard.

1.2 The Need for the Study

Research findings to date suggest the study of care in the classroom context should be given purposeful and consistent attention. While the notion of care has received considerable attention in educational research over the last two decades, this research has lacked a systematic approach to examining the construct of care in an educational context, particularly outside of North America. There is a need to further understand how caring teachers are developed and how their practices are sustained in an educational climate that has intensified the workload of teachers through accountability, performance-based assessment, and the introduction of teacher professional standards (these will be discussed further in sections 1.3.1 and 1.3.2). In particular, the Australian context requires considerable research considering the limited studies conducted pertaining to how care is demonstrated and sustained. It is the intention of this thesis to add to the already established findings about teachers’ caring practices in schools, and to specifically examine the development and nature of caring teachers and how they sustain their caring practices in a demanding educational context. As Schussler and Collins (2006) assert “if care is an important quality in schools, both in its own right and because it creates conditions conducive for learning, then understanding contextual factors that facilitate caring relationships is imperative” (p. 1490). Understanding key aspects of the current educational climate will be important in positioning this research on caring, and will be discussed in the following section 1.3.
1.3 Current Educational Climate Relating to Care

Across the literature there has been concern raised about the intensified workload of teachers in recent years (Hargreaves & Tucker, 1991; Nias, 1999; Schussler & Collins, 2006) and the introduction of teacher competencies (used to measure teacher effectiveness) which exclude the importance of interpersonal qualities (Day, 2004; Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kington, & Gu, 2007; Hargreaves, 1998, 2000; Nias, 1999; Schussler & Collins, 2006). In the current climate of teacher accountability and rapid educational change, the issue of how care is developed in teachers and sustained throughout their career is of great importance, yet there has been little research in this area. The following sections briefly outline a number of key issues with which teachers are currently contending as they work with students.

1.3.1 Workload Intensification of Teachers

The nature of a teacher’s job has changed significantly in the last few decades. In a climate of accountability and performance-based assessment, teachers battle for time to attend to the myriad tasks required of them (Froude, 2005; Gomez, Allen, & Clinton, 2004; Moran, Long, & Nettle, 2002; Wylie, 1999). Froude (2005) lists a number of changes in the nature of teaching in Australia over the last two decades, namely: (a) “increased regulation and accountability in schools; (b) extended testing of student achievement and baseline data analysis; (c) an increasingly overcrowded curriculum; (d) curriculum changes imposed with little or no consultation; (e) inclusion policies requiring the integration of special needs students; (f) integration of technology across the curriculum; (g) varied vocational education pathways for secondary students; (h) growth in extra-curricular expectations on teachers; (i) increasing ‘non-
core’ tasks and more simultaneous demands; (j) an enlargement in the job through understaffing; (k) a shift in remuneration from time-based to results-based criteria; and (l) an extension of the working day” (2005 p.16) [Letter identifiers added]. These changes to teachers’ work in Australia have been similarly experienced globally (Ballet & Kelchtermans, 2003; Day, 2004; Hargreaves, 1994b; Hargreaves & Tucker, 1991; Nias, 1999; Schussler & Collins, 2006). Such pressures on teachers can make finding time for the important task of care quite difficult.

1.3.1.1 The Effect of Workload Intensification Issues

The effect of such changes has been (a) longer and busier working hours for teachers (Nias, 1999; Prichard, 2006; Wylie, 1999), (b) less time being spent in interactions with pupils (Hargreaves & Tucker, 1991; Nias, 1999), (c) omission of the school’s or teacher’s mission (Noddings, 1995; Schussler & Collins, 2006), (d) selection of more traditional teaching strategies (Bosworth, 1995), and (e) changes in the ways that individuals are treated (Cooper, 2004; Lipsitz, 1995). Each of these effects will be addressed in the following paragraphs.

Teachers’ use of time has changed significantly to accommodate all that is now required of them. For example, the integration of students with special needs, new innovations and collaborative planning and decision-making have resulted in crowded time demands (Hargreaves & Tucker, 1991). In order to accommodate these extra responsibilities and duties, teachers are working longer hours. Teachers from New Zealand report that workloads have increased markedly between 1996 and 1999 to an average working week of 51.5 hours (Wylie, 1999). Teachers in Australia and the United Kingdom are also responding to these changes by lengthening their work day (Nias, 1999; Prichard, 2006).
Time spent with students in the more informal interactions of the classroom result in better relationships with students and opportunities to show care (Hargreaves & Tucker, 1991). When this is less available due to the increased assessment, curricular and accountability responsibilities, the opportunities for affective interactions are reduced (Nias, 1999). The emphasis on accountability and academic competition also means that schools and the individual teachers have had to compromise on their ‘mission’ in order to get the job done. Use of traditional teaching strategies such as direct teaching or lecture-style communication is one method some teachers choose to ensure scores in standardised tests will improve (Bosworth, 1995). Schussler and Collins (2006) and Noddings (1995) assert that attention to such issues often results in the exclusion of everything else, including the school’s mission and values.

Finally, as a result of academic competition, treatment of the individual has altered to guarantee the best intellectual outcomes. Cooper (2004) asserts that “Norms are emphasised over individuality and the emphasis on caring for the individual is reduced” (p. 21), whilst Lipsitz (1995) states that individuals are rewarded for achievement rather than focusing on schools as caring communities.

These adaptations, adopted to accommodate the intensification of the teacher’s work, mean that building relationships with students can easily be crowded out of the school day leaving little time to care for students in a meaningful way (Hargreaves & Tucker, 1991). Developing understandings of teachers who have been able to maintain a caring relationship with students while adjusting to these changes in the current climate is an important key to understanding how teachers can be supported in these times.
1.3.2 Teacher Professional Standards

In recent years the development of teacher professional standards to enhance both teacher quality and the status of the teaching profession has been another layer of responsibility and work with which teachers have had to contend (Brock, 1998; Day et al., 2007; Lipsitz, 1995). The most concerning issue in the development of teacher competencies is the suggestion that teaching is a technical task that can be quantified and measured (Day, 2004; Day et al., 2007; Schussler & Collins, 2006), implying that teaching is no more than a list of skills. Furthermore, the lack of attention to the emotional component of teaching, which is considered central to teaching (Day, 2004; Hargreaves, 2000; Nias, 1989, 1996), means that good teaching is being judged by clinical standards alone, without taking into account affective aspects such as warmth, compassion, love, and understanding (Hargreaves, 2000; Korthagen, 2004). Korthagen (2004) questions whether it is possible to describe the qualities of good teachers in terms of competencies at all. Such neglect of the breadth and depth of the work of the teacher, and in particular the emotional labour expended in such an occupation (Hargreaves, 1998) will likely result in less attention paid to the emotional needs of teachers and to the support of them in their work (Gomez et al., 2004). In due course, this lack of focus on the interpersonal dimension in teaching which, according to Kelchtermans (2005), is the “ultimate ground for justifying one’s actions as a teacher” (p. 999), can leave teachers feeling vulnerable and doubting their capabilities as a teacher.

Additionally, the attainment of these standards requires tangible evidence either through documentation and/or observation. It is in the ‘measuring’ of teacher effectiveness that difficulties arise, as highlighted by Day et al. (2007):

While lip service will be given to the need for teachers who care and ‘make a difference’ to the education of the whole student, it soon focuses upon ‘standards’, ‘competencies’
and skills required of today’s knowledge workers. Moreover, in today’s results driven environment, it is those aspects of teaching and learning which can be most easily quantified, benchmarked and used as comparators which define how well teachers are perceived to do their work. (pp.1-2)

Hence, the evolution of teacher competencies or standards has been characterised by quantifying aspects of teaching rather than the whole, and to recording only those behaviours that can be objectively observed, to the exclusion of those of a more subjective nature. This may lead to researchers failing to take the opportunity to discuss a construct such as care as it is particularly difficult to define and quantify (Schussler & Collins, 2006). If the caring qualities and methods of teachers can be more clearly described and documented, such interpersonal practices are more likely to be included in competency frameworks that are currently measuring teacher effectiveness. Hence, there is a need for further examination of the nature of caring practices in the classroom.

1.3.3 Teacher Recruitment and Retention

Nationally, Australia is experiencing a shortage of teachers in particular subject areas and in some metropolitan and country locations. There are many reasons cited for this including poor pay, teacher stress and onerous duties and paper work (Dinham, 2000; Prichard, 2006; Sumsion, 2002). In addition, the newly formed NSW Institute of Teachers reports that as many as 20% of new teachers leave the profession in the first five years of teaching (NSW Institute of Teachers, 2003). Both Korthagen (2004) from the Netherlands and Day (2004) from Great Britain note similar issues in their own countries, suggesting that this is not a problem unique to Australia.

Whilst examination of the reasons for this lack of retention and recruitment is significant, it is also equally important to address those factors that encourage a teacher in his/her work even
though the workload may be overwhelming or difficult. The fulfilment of a teacher’s role and consolidation of a teacher’s identity are often enough to sustain teachers, even in these intensified workload circumstances (Brooks & Scott, 2000; Day, 2004; Kelchtermans, 1996; Noblit et al., 1995). Similarly, working with children and making a difference in students’ lives will frequently encourage, motivate and reward teachers in the profession (Barber, 2002; Day, 2004; Lortie, 1975; Nias, 1989).

Discovering more about the factors that hinder and support teachers in their caring for students will assist not only teacher training institutions in the initial training of teachers but also schools and their systems for developing teachers and retaining those in the profession who want to make a difference to their students.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

In redressing the issues discussed in the previous sections, the purpose of this research is to determine the nature of caring teachers and their practices in a secondary school context, and to determine the factors that enable them to sustain their practices in the face of time and work pressures. In order to achieve this purpose the literature surrounding caring teachers and their practices will be explored. Two models will be proposed based upon the literature review and these will be investigated in a study of a sample of teachers and students, the focus of these caring interactions.

The study will also contribute to understandings of the basis of teacher selection for teacher training institutions and employers, the enhancement of caring practices during teacher training and induction, and how teachers can be encouraged, through professional development, to sustain their care throughout the course of their career.
2 THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

The literature relevant to caring will be reviewed over the next two chapters. The first chapter will examine the contributions from those that have addressed care and/or caring conceptually whilst the next chapter will present the findings from empirical studies on care within the educational context. The theorists who have contributed to the body of literature about care may be found across a number of different disciplines, for example, Watson’s theory of care in nursing (Watson, 1979), Ruddick’s discussion about care in maternal thinking (Ruddick, 1989), Sevenhuijsen’s ethic of care in social policy (Sevenhuijsen, 2003), Mayeroff’s philosophical theory of care (Mayeroff, 1971), Gilligan’s ethic of care from a feminist perspective (Gilligan, 1982), Noddings’ feminine approach to caring, ethics and moral education (Noddings, 1984), and Fisher and Tronto’s theory of caring in relation to moral contextual theory (Fisher & Tronto, 1990). The writings of the last four theorists listed are of particular relevance to this thesis. The following section will briefly identify each of their contributions and explain the rationale for selection.

2.1 Four Major Contributions To Caring Theory

Mayeroff’s work on caring (Mayeroff, 1971) is of particular relevance as it began the most recent discussion about care through the publication of a book entitled On Caring. Mayeroff’s theory of care is expounded from a philosophical perspective. He presents a definition and process for caring that become foundational in much of the discussion about care that follows over the next three decades. Gilligan (1982), embedding her understandings about moral development in psychology, chooses to present her ethic of care as an alternative to Kohlberg’s study of moral development (Kohlberg, 1981). She argues that the male voice only is represented
in Kohlberg’s work and that there is a female voice that expresses morality differently. Her work is important in understanding the ensuing debate concerning the role of gender and how it relates to an ethic of care, despite her lack of an articulated definition of care or a caring process.

Two years after Gilligan’s initial work, Noddings published *Caring: A Feminine Approach to Ethics and Moral Education* (1984), drawing on Gilligan’s work and the work of Mayeroff (1971), Buber (1970), Kant (1983) and others in the reasoning of her arguments. Noddings’ acclaim in educational fields derives from her contribution to views about (a) teaching and learning (1984), (b) moral education for pre-service teachers (1986), (c) curriculum (1992), (d) gender (1999), and (e) educational leadership (2006), and she has become a standard citation in discussions of caring since her work of 1984 (White, 2003). Noddings argues for a feminine approach to ethics and moral education and presents a definition and process of care that have been the basis of much discussion over the last twenty or more years.

Finally, Fisher and Tronto (1990) draw together the assertions of Mayeroff, Gilligan, Noddings and others in their endeavour to present a feminist theory of care which also includes a definition and process of caring. They add more to the discussion about the process of caring despite a lack of focus within one particular discipline. While their four-phase process of care could have relevant application in the classroom due to its acknowledgement of the possibility of shared care, Fisher and Tronto remain relatively unacknowledged as a useful theory of care in education.

In sections 2.2 to 2.4, literature on the following topics will be explored: (a) a definition of care and the place of relationship, (b) the process of caring, (c) the role of reciprocity in the process of care, (d) an ethic of care, and (e) the debates concerning gender, and (f) natural/ethical caring. The writings of the four main theorists briefly described will serve as a counterpoint
throughout this explanation and will be elaborated by the contributions of others with regard to each of the key issues investigated. Section 2.5 will then outline additional conceptual findings from the last 25 years that are concerned mostly with caring within an educational context.

2.2 Definitions of Caring

Mayeroff (1971), one of the earliest theorists with regard to care, defines care in the following way: “To care for another person, in the most significant sense, is to help him grow and actualize himself” (1971 p. 1). Caring, for Mayeroff, is about the growth of another. The remainder of his treatise on care supports this notion. He states that care is a process that involves development of the person but that care also allows the direction of another’s growth to be the guide. Furthermore, Mayeroff asserts that the one that is cared-for is an extension of the ‘carer’ yet at the same time someone who is separate; the cared-for has worth in his/her own right. He emphasises that the primary purpose of care is the growth of the ‘other’. Noddings (1984) notes that Mayeroff’s emphasis on growth and his exploration of constancy, guilt, reciprocation and the limits of caring have provided a useful starting point. However, Noddings considers that the prominence given by Mayeroff to the actualization of the cared-for results in passing over too quickly the role of the carer and his/her motivations. She also asserts that his views about reciprocity need further discussion which she undertakes later in her own book (note that reciprocity will be addressed later in this chapter in more detail).

Noddings (1984) asserts a universal definition that may be applied to any situation. Rather than define caring per se, Noddings speaks of the feeling of anxiety, burden and concern that a carer experiences when caring, of having an inclination towards the one needing care and of being “charged with the protection, welfare, or maintenance of something or someone” (1984 p.
She talks of a ‘caring encounter’ - the interaction between one who gives care and one who receives care (Noddings, 2001), and by doing so places the emphasis of caring on relationships; caring is an established relation between two individuals, Noddings asserts. Her process of care (which will be discussed in section 2.3) recognises the distinct roles of the one-caring and the cared-for within this relationship.

The centrality of relationship, particularly emphasised by Noddings (1984), has been widely supported throughout the theoretical literature. For example, Gilligan’s ethic of care is likewise distinguished from the ethic of justice by the role of relationship and responsibilities (Gilligan, 1982, 1993). Further to this, the emphasis on the role of relationship as a central foundation of caring is provided by Chaskin and Rauner (1995) when they note that caring is “grounded in relationship” (p. 672) and by Thayer-Bacon (1997) who states that “caring is not just an individual virtue, caring is relational and involves others” (p. 250). Goldstein (1999) notes that the work of Noddings is embedded in both philosophy and psychology; both recognise the centrality of relationships to caring – “they share essential understandings of the contours of relationship between teacher and learner” (p.648). This relational foundation to caring is an important distinction made by the theorists.

Other definitions have not placed such emphasis on relationship. Chaskin and Rauner (1995), for example, maintain that caring is a necessary ingredient to the lives of all individuals and serves to protect and invest others. Alternatively, Fisher and Tronto (1990) provide a definition that places emphasis more on the types of activity that caring involves: “a species activity that includes everything we do to maintain, continue, and repair our ‘world’ so that we can live in it as well as possible” (p. 40). This definition covers a broad range of activities and implies that caring activities are crucial to the sustaining of human life. Fisher and Tronto report that the
world referred to in this definition includes “our bodies, our selves, and our environment which interweave in a complex life-sustaining web” (Fisher & Tronto, 1990 p. 40). Despite an apparent emphasis on activity rather than relationship in this definition, Fisher and Tronto also highlight the role of interaction in the process of care which is later explained in section 2.3.

2.2.1 Difficulties in Defining Caring

Although there have been many treatises on caring, the number of definitions presented are few. The difficulty in defining the concept of caring due to the breadth and depth of meaning that has been associated with it has been noted by a number of authors (Agne, 1999; Chaskin & Rauner, 1995; White, 2003). Agne asserts that caring is a concept that is “at once too simple, fundamental, and profound” (1999 p. 168). Yet, the need to clarify the meaning of caring is important to common understanding for all (White, 2003) and to the development of relevant research and practice in this field (Chaskin & Rauner, 1995). More often, authors have chosen to describe caring by what it looks like rather than what it is because it is an easier way to limit the concept. As Rogers and Webb note: “Our knowledge of caring is tacit: it is implicit in action. In other words, although we have difficulty in defining it, we know it when we see it” (1991 p. 177). For this reason, it is necessary to also examine the process of caring.

2.3 The Process of Caring

According to Mayeroff (1971), the caring process begins with the carer experiencing another’s potentialities and the need to grow. The carer also experiences that the other has need of their assistance in the process. Mayeroff insists that devotion is essential to caring; that the carer must devote him or herself to the cared-for and the “unforeseeable future”(1971 p. 10).
Obligations, according to Mayeroff, derive from devotion and are a convergence of what one feels one should do with what one wants to do. Mayeroff summarises the three key parts of the caring process:

1. “I experience the other as an extension of myself and also as independent and with the need to grow; 
2. I experience the other’s development as bound up with my own sense of well-being and I feel the need for that growing, 
3. I respond affirmatively and with devotion to the other’s need, guided by the direction of its growth” (Mayeroff, 1971 pp. 10-11) [number identifiers added].

The process of care outlined by Mayeroff is relatively simple but he further enhances his explanation with seven additional important characteristics of care: (a) the focus of caring must be the process not the goal; (b) the carer, not just the cared-for, grows during the caring process; (c) the carer must have the skill to care; (d) constancy is necessary to develop caring; (e) failure to care (once committed to caring) produces guilt; (f) not all caring can be reciprocated and therefore is not dependent on it; and (g) where growth is not the outcome then there is no care.

Mayeroff also illuminates his understandings about caring through the listing and explanation of eight essential ingredients of care: knowing, alternating rhythms, patience, honesty, trust, humility, hope, and courage.

Building on Mayeroff’s process of caring is Noddings (1984). She expands Mayeroff’s representation and explores in greater detail the role of the one-caring, focusing on their actions, thoughts and feelings. Noddings provides descriptions of each part of the caring process which has been represented diagrammatically in Figure 2.1.
Firstly, Noddings (1984) states that caring begins with “receiving” (p. 30). Receiving another involves reception rather than projection; receiving is a feeling that there is something wrong needing attention. This, Noddings names as ‘engrossment’ and engrossment, according to Noddings, is not empathy. Empathy requires a person to project his/her feeling into the situation of the other whereas engrossment is receiving the other into oneself. Secondly, engrossment is involuntary and reactive and quickly becomes more than just a feeling; it becomes a ‘motivational displacement’. Noddings explains, speaking of herself as the one caring, that “there is also a motivational shift” when “I allow my motive energy to be shared; I put it at the service of the other” (1984 p. 33). Engrossment and the motivational displacement are the beginning points of the caring process and occur within the one-caring.

Thirdly, the next part of the process requires the one-caring to move away from the other and ‘objectify’ or reason out the issue at hand. That is not to say that one loses sight of the other but as Noddings states “we keep our objective thinking tied to a relational stake at the heart of caring” (1984 p. 36). At this point, obligation, commitment or the ‘I ought’ becomes part of the caring process. When a possible solution presents itself to the carer it then becomes a question of whether the obligation of seeing the response carried out will be undertaken. The ethic of care motivates the carer; the beliefs and attitudes one has concerning responsibilities and care can become the reason why the one-caring chooses to act on this solution. Noddings, however, maintains that “caring, when it is the result of easy obedience to the natural impulse and to the state of engrossment already established, is not burdensome” (1984 p. 52).

Fourthly, according to Noddings (1984), the cared-for ‘recognises’ the shift in the one-caring and can choose to respond or not to respond. At this point the one-caring may not have done anything towards the cared-for but instead the sense of ‘presence’ from the carer is felt. The
cared-for must recognise the shift in the carer towards him or herself otherwise he/she could declare that no one cares and, according to Noddings, that would indeed be true.

Finally, ‘reciprocity’ represents a response on the part of the cared-for and does not need to be equal with the effort the one-caring has expended. But there does have to be an honest receiving of the care and a positive response or change. Noddings insists that such a response is important to the caring process and in fact until reciprocity occurs the caring process is not complete. Noddings explains that reciprocity is what sustains the one-caring. Here is an essential difference between Mayeroff and Noddings: Mayeroff states that reciprocity is not always possible and therefore caring cannot be dependent upon it.

Figure 2.1. Noddings’ Process of Care
Noddings’ process of care has gained significant critical attention from other writers (Fisher & Tronto, 1990; Schutz, 1998; Tronto, 1995, 1998; White, 2003), especially the role of reciprocity (Long & Sterenberg, 2007; Tronto, 1999; White, 2003). The emphasis of caring being an encounter between two people has received criticism from Schutz (1998), who reports that the uniqueness of one-to-one relations in caring reported by Noddings excludes the worthiness of one person caring for groups of people or groups of people caring for one person. The place of this type of caring remains relatively unexplored in Noddings’ work yet its relevance to classroom teachers who care for large groups of children seems obvious. The notion of observable reciprocity as critical to the caring process has been argued by both Tronto (1999) and White (2003). Before discussing the issue of reciprocity in section 2.3.1, a further caring process presented by Fisher and Tronto (1990) will be considered.

Fisher and Tronto (1990) suggest four phases of caring in which each phase operates as a precondition of the next, in other words, the first stage of caring must occur before the second stage, and so on. They also state that the whole process of care may be divided up and administered by more than one person or a group of people, supporting in part Schutz’s criticism of Noddings’ process. Each phase of the caring process will be briefly explained here:

1. Caring about – this calls for an attentiveness to the needs and imbalances of the world that require continuity, maintenance and repair. It is the phase where one selects what will be attended to and it requires knowledge of the situation and/or person.

2. Caring for – this involves a response to the needs or imbalances noticed in the first phase. ‘Caring for’ requires one to take some responsibility for initiating or maintaining caring activities but does not necessarily involve action. It is effectively the decision to ‘do some caring’.
3. Care-giving – this is the concrete work of providing care for another. It involves not only action but also the skill or competence to undertake it. ‘Care-giving’ requires the giver to have the resources, time and commitment to provide care.

4. Care-receiving – is the response of the care-receiver to the care given. The response, Fisher and Tronto qualify may not be “intentional, conscious, or even human” (Fisher & Tronto, 1990 p. 44), nor is it necessarily a positive response.

There are many similarities between Fisher and Tronto’s process of care and Noddings but there are also some distinctive differences. The first phase of care – ‘caring for’ – bears some similarity with Noddings’ engrossment phase. Both of these theorists acknowledge that there must be some attention given to observing the deficits and needs; one cannot care if one does not see the need.

There are also similarities between ‘caring for’ and Noddings’ motivational displacement in that there is clearly a decision made on the part of the carer to focus on the need. This phase in Fisher and Tronto’s work appears to also incorporate the objectifying phase of Noddings although it is not distinguished as a separate stage. There is, however, a fundamental difference between these two theories at the next juncture: ‘care-giving’ in Fisher and Tronto does not have a parallel with Noddings’ theory with regard to the ability to care. Noddings does not recognise that in order to be able to give care one must have the resources to be able to do so; one must have the time, the skill and the opportunity to care. This is an important strength of Fisher and Tronto’s description of care – one cannot care if one is not able to care; and this strength is shared with Mayeroff who equally acknowledges this important point in the process. The final phase of care-receiving differs significantly and critically between the theorists, and its ultimate
relevance to education requires due attention be given to the nature of the debate surrounding this phase.

2.3.1 The Receiving of Care and Reciprocity

Mayeroff (1971) states that when care is received reciprocity may or may not occur and that whilst caring for another may trigger a caring response in the person being cared for, the manner of the response may be different. However, Noddings insists that caring must be reciprocated or the caring cannot be completed and therefore cannot be called caring. She reports that not only should the cared-for recognise the care, but receive it and respond to it. The response must be observable to the one-caring so that it may sustain him/her to continue the caring, though it need not be equal to the care given. Tronto (1999), however, in a later publication than the original work written with Fisher (Fisher & Tronto, 1990), states: “Noddings asserts that caring is not complete unless recognized by the cared-for person (1984: 73-74) but this position is clearly wrong” (Tronto, 1999 p. 396). Tronto’s position in this matter is similar to Mayeroff; the care must be received but it may not always be reciprocated. Hence, the responsibilities of the cared-for or care-receiver differ somewhat between the three theories and yet it is an important point of contention. For Noddings a lack of reciprocity results in failure to complete care and consequently a failure to sustain the carer and risk burn-out. Yet both Mayeroff and Tronto acknowledge that there may be some instances where a care-receiver may not be able to respond to the care given and yet caring has still been extended.

The issue surrounding reciprocity and its effect on sustaining the carer is an important matter and one that White (2003) explores thoroughly in his examination of Noddings’ work. He reports that Noddings’ assertion that reciprocity must be observable to the one-caring has
architectural weaknesses, particularly when it is coupled with Noddings’ other report which states that if one does not see the possibility of reciprocation or does not experience reciprocation from the cared-for then the one-caring has the right to withdraw care (Noddings, 1984). Noddings suggests this solution to lack of reciprocity as a protective mechanism against ‘burning out’ and as a means of ensuring that the one-caring is sustained. White argues that there are situations where the caring may be received yet may not be recognised or may not be observable to the care giver. He provides examples concerning students at high school who may choose not to demonstrate a response to caring for fear of criticism from peers, or a student who might choose not to miss a class as response to the caring given. A teacher in this circumstance would not realise the response has occurred. White argues:

	Something is perilously wrong with the notion that, if I do not see the results I am looking for, I may withdraw my caring. I would argue that it is the person who is least able to show a response who is most in need of caring. (White, 2003 p. 308)

However, Noddings’ report with regard to sustaining the one-caring is as equally valid as White’s assertion, and if the caring he/she provides is not observably demonstrating benefits for the cared-for then what will sustain the one-caring? Exploring the ethic of care may provide some answers.

2.4 An Ethic of Care

An ethic of care gives explanation for why people choose a certain course of caring and is the foundation for decision making when assisting others. Many theorists have examined the ethic of care as a means for determining its perspective and positioning within decision making and judgments. The ethic of care is a moral orientation, argues Hargreaves (1994a), Noddings (1984; 1992), and Elbaz (1992) and, they report, it is important to understand the moral basis upon
which people make decisions about caring. Examples of educational decisions made on the basis of an ethic of care are: (a) ensuring that students have as few transitions as possible in the course of their schooling (Newberg, 1995); (b) maintaining continuity of purpose, place, people and curriculum for students (Noddings, 1992); and (c) choosing to spend time with a student with a view to getting to know them better (Thayer-Bacon, 1997). These decisions and courses of action spring from an ethic of care that has been adopted with regard to students in schools. Gilligan’s use of the term “ethic of care” and her reasons for determining a new perspective are given in the following paragraph.

The result of such a shift in perspective in moral theory involves “the concept of self, the idea of relationship, and the notion of responsibility” (Gilligan, 1993 p. 208). Gilligan constructed an ethic of care to represent this shift. She proposed that an ethic of care and responsibility represents women’s moral thinking more substantially than an ethic of justice and rights from Kohlberg’s work which, in the past, reflected men’s thinking. An ethic of care, according to Gilligan (1993), promotes decision making from within the perspective of relationship and the responsibilities women feel with regard to the integrity of that relationship. An ethic of justice and rights rests on principles of right and wrong and guides the decisions in moral thinking from a different perspective. Gilligan insists that whilst the ethic of care is more often associated with the women’s voice and the ethic of justice with the men’s, this distinction is not absolute nor is it biologically driven. Instead, they are simply two moral orientations that are viably and equably represented in moral thinking. The ethic of care and how it determines judgments and decision making are of concern here.

The literature points to a relationship between the care ethic and morality. Thus, for example, Sumsion (2000) in her reflections about caring as an academic in teacher education reports that
an ethic of care is a moral undertaking. This report is supported by Noddings (1986) and Rogers and Webb (1991) who propose models of teaching care to prospective teachers in higher education sectors. From the perspective of social work, Meagher and Parton (2004) report that an ethic of care is based upon four shared assumptions. The ethic of care (a) places interdependence of humans and their responsibilities to each other at the centre; (b) recognises the equal moral worth of all persons; (c) emphasises caring as a moral disposition; and, (d) recognises that caring is a process that fosters growth. These four assumptions align readily to the theories of care provided by Gilligan and Noddings, demonstrating that there is application of an ethic of care to different disciplines.

Tronto (1998) poses a slightly different orientation to this issue by reporting that caring must be taken out of the moral debate and transformed into a theory of care with broader perspectives. She reports that in broadening the position of care by removing the moral boundaries and viewing it instead from a contextual perspective will assist in restoring ethics to its original meaning, that is, knowledge about how to live a good life (Tronto, 1987, 1998). She also maintains that an ethic of care must be disassociated from the gender debates which have been the focus of much discussion since the publication of Gilligan’s and Noddings’ work.

2.4.1 The Gender Debate

In the first instance, Gilligan asserted in 1982 that there was a need for a different voice in morality other than those previously posed by Kohlberg (Gilligan, 1982). Hence, Gilligan (1982; 1993) advocates an ethic of care and responsibility (which has roots in feminine attributes and moral reasoning) as an alternative to an ethic of justice and rights (which has traditionally been the moral path of the men). Noddings (1984) agrees with this perspective but both Gilligan and
Noddings would add that this does not mean all women care or that men don’t care (Gilligan, 1993; Noddings, 1986). In fact, Gilligan (1993) asserts that different voices come from different experiences that are not necessarily representative of different genders. Noddings attributes the feminine voice to caring but clearly states that the dichotomous split between male and female does not necessarily occur in caring. For Noddings, like Gilligan, caring is feministic because of experience not because of gender (Noddings, 1984).

Whilst Noddings and Gilligan both single out the feminine voice in an ethic of care, Thayer-Bacon (1997) suggests that female and male roles are interchangeable. Thayer-Bacon reports that both men and women share in the responsibility of raising children and assisting their growth and on this basis she notes that: “Caring is not a feminine activity, it is possible for anyone to be caring” (p. 250). This view is further explored by Tronto who pleads for an ethic of care that is not gender based, but instead for theorists to move towards a feminine theory of care (Tronto, 1987). Fisher and Tronto (1990) suggest that a discussion needs to continue the gender debate in a different manner, “speaking to the ways in which caring often entails and perpetuates the oppression of women” (p. 37). A shift in focus is required to centre on the activity of caring itself not the people enacting caring. Further to this, however, Tronto notes that when it comes to the caring process men ‘care about’ and women ‘care for’; women get involved with the actual care-giving whilst men administer it (Tronto, 1999). The debate concerning gender and the ethic of care has not come to a definitive conclusion and further discussion regarding this issue will no doubt continue. Like gender, another contentious matter has also been raised with regard to the ethic of care – that of natural caring and ethical caring. This will be explored in the next section.


2.4.2 Natural and Ethical Caring

Noddings makes a number of statements about the origin of the caring activity. Firstly, Noddings states that caring is born of natural inclination, but acknowledges that ethical caring (caring born out of an obligation) does exist (1984). Secondly, she asserts that natural caring is superior because it energises the giver as well as the receiver and is therefore most desirable (1988). Caring requires us to be in relation with each other notes Thayer-Bacon (1997) and therefore she reports that Noddings’ statements regarding natural and ethical caring are correct. Also in full support of the place of natural caring are Ruddick’s views based upon maternal thinking, which she declares is one aspect of ‘womanly’ thinking (Ruddick, 1999).

The debate about the superiority of natural caring is important if we are to understand why people care. Some of the arguments raised are that caring is a learned practice (Schutz, 1998), that caring is often laborious, requires hard work to pursue and cannot always be dependent on love (Fisher & Tronto, 1990), and that caring may be based on motivations other than a natural inclination (White, 2003). Furthermore, natural and ethical caring might both be necessary to ‘get the caring done’ (Goldstein, 1999; Nias, 1999). This last notion is borne out by Davis’ (2005) reflections about her own teaching when she notes that whilst there were definitely times when she cared for students because of who she was and what she wanted to give, there were also times (with particular students) that she needed to make a rational decision to care.

Contributing to the debate concerning the roots of caring, White (2003) asserts strongly that separating the ethical from the natural is dangerous. He explains that Noddings’ preference for natural caring does not allow for those times when care may rest on both a relationship with the recipient of care and on principle. He uses the example of Abraham and Isaac (which Noddings also uses to illustrate an aspect of her caring model) to exemplify his alternative perspective.
White states that when God asked Abraham to sacrifice his son, Isaac, Abraham responded in both faith and obedience as part of his relationship with God resulting in Isaac’s reprieve from death. This, White reports, is a successful outcome of principle and relationship working together. The debate about the role of natural and ethical caring, like gender, has not arrived at a conclusion but is important to understanding more about the motivation that inspires caring.

To clarify the main arguments that have characterised the caring discussion, Table 2.1 shows the four main theorists and their contributions to this dialogue.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theorist</th>
<th>Definition of caring</th>
<th>Relationship at centre of caring</th>
<th>Process of caring</th>
<th>Ethic</th>
<th>Caring is associated with gender</th>
<th>Natural or ethical caring</th>
<th>Reciprocity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mayeroff</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Yes but not essential or always possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gilligan</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Moral ethic based on relationships</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Doesn’t comment</td>
<td>Doesn’t comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noddings</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Moral orientation</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Natural over Ethical</td>
<td>Yes is essential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisher and Tronto</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>A theory of care rather than an ethic</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Yes but not essential or always possible</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.5 The Conceptual Contributions Concerning Educational Caring

The contributions in the discussions covered in sections 2.2 to 2.5 have focused on understanding the main arguments proposed by Mayeroff (1971), Gilligan (1982), Noddings (1984) and Fisher and Tronto (1990). There is also a significant body of theoretical work that discusses the role of caring specifically within educational environments. The remainder of this chapter will address this particular body of work. Topics explored include (a) how people develop as carers and caring teachers, (b) how teachers demonstrate care to their students, (c) the impact of caring practices upon both students and teachers, and (d) the factors that impact on teachers’ caring approaches.

2.5.1 Development of Caring People and Caring Teachers

The development of caring capacities in teachers is the result of a number of factors that influence the formation of not only the ability to care but also beliefs about caring and what it means to be a caring teacher (Agne, 1999; Arnstine, 1990; Chaskin & Rauner, 1995; Thayer-Bacon, 1997). To illustrate this point, Agne (1999) reports that good teaching is a result of who people are and what they believe rather than what they do. So, if caring teachers are a necessity for all classrooms, as is asserted by Knobloch (2002), then there is a need to look to how people develop caring capacities and their beliefs about care. Agne (1999) asserts that caring people are ‘other-oriented’ and this is the foundation upon which they make their decisions and determine their actions. How do people become caring and ‘other-oriented’? Arnstine (1990) quotes Noddings when she says that the roots of our caring are in the memories of being cared-for (Noddings, 1984). In other words, we develop caring people by caring for them first. This notion is
supported by Chaskin and Rauner (1995) who state that family is the most common and oftentimes the first influence in which a human being learns about care. Where families fail, continue Chaskin and Rauner, supportive systems such as schools may play a nurturing role. By modeled care, and receiving care, human beings learn to care.

However, a cultivation of caring values and dispositions is also important. The view that caring dispositions need to be fostered is supported by Arnstine (1990) and Thayer-Bacon (1997). Thayer-Bacon notes that all people have the capacity to care but how they have been cared for, or not cared for, will affect whether they are able to care for others. The right experiences, report Meagher and Parton (2004) and Arnstine (1990), will develop the caring disposition so that it is functional.

The main arguments that have been presented by the writers above are that all humans have a capacity and disposition to care, but that the experiences of being cared for will be important to the development of such capacities into functional caring behaviours. The result, Agne (1999) asserts, is that highly effective teachers have either developed deep caring capacities before entering the profession, and having experienced success in this state will continue to perpetuate it, or that through a committed analysis of the teaching/learning process and the use of careful observations and experience they have acquired a deep caring state during their teaching process. Either way, these deep caring capacities are useful in their work as effective teachers.
2.5.2 The Role of Teacher Beliefs, Identity and Commitment in Caring Teacher Development

Understanding more about teacher beliefs and attitudes concerning the importance of care is one way that will assist teacher educators and school executives in developing teacher dispositions that are reflective of caring values (Knobloch, 2002). Furthermore, if teachers’ understandings about care are supplemented by genuine modeling of caring practices by teacher educators then the beliefs about the importance of caring will be stronger and more consistent (Goldstein & Freedman, 2003). However, there is more to caring beliefs and genuine modeling in developing a caring teacher, reports Agne (1999). She states that those teachers who have a high sense of self-efficacy and an internal locus of control will also be able to better demonstrate care to their students. In other words, caring beliefs need to be accompanied by beliefs about the teachers’ own ability to make a difference.

Six tacit beliefs of primary teachers that reflect ways in which care is exercised have been identified by Nias in 1997 and then later in an expanded version in 1999. The beliefs Nias (1999) identifies are as follows: (a) care as affectivity – liking children, enjoying being with them and ensuring pupils’ well-being; (b) care as responsibility for learners – teachers accepting moral responsibility for student learning by actively engaging the whole child; (c) care as accepting responsibility for relationships throughout the school – actively engaging with others in the school’s community with a view to encouraging relationships between people; (d) care as altruism, self-sacrifice and obedience – caring because of the charge laid upon the teacher by the historical roots of the profession; (e)
care as over-conscientiousness – tireless commitment to a job that will never be finished and placing own needs second; and (f) care as commitment and identity – teachers investing heavily in their work and their sense of who they are as teachers through care. Bearing in mind that Nias’ work is set within a primary school context, her identified beliefs provide valuable insights into what motivates teachers in their care of students.

The reference to commitment and identity in Nias’ last belief has also been acknowledged by others. Sumsion (2000), as a teacher educator, reports that her moral identity is grounded in caring, whilst the need to shift teacher identity away from grade or subject and instead move towards working collectively with other teachers on whole groups of students for long periods of time has been the call from Newberg (1995). Korthagen (2004), through his work on change in teachers’ professional development, noted that teacher identity, mission, and beliefs – comprising the innermost core of teacher thinking – largely affected the outermost behaviours and competencies of teachers. Beliefs about teaching, Korthagen reports, may have developed through a teacher’s own schooling and will affect the way in which he/she will behave as a teacher. Although there is a large body of work around teacher and professional identity (see, for example, Brooks & Scott, 2000; Day, 2004; Day & Kington, 2008; Day et al., 2007; Kelchtermans, 1993, 1996; Nias, 1989; Schempp, Sparkes, & Templin, 1999) there is little about how these identities are affected by beliefs about care.

Despite the lack of research into caring teacher identities, Hargreaves (1994a) suggests that a commitment to caring is one of the central reasons for teachers entering primary teaching. Lortie (1975) explains that this commitment is exemplified by teachers being ready to allocate scarce resources to the children in their classes. Consistent with
this, Sumsion (2000) acknowledges that caring is a part of her own identity as a teacher educator, however she also challenges the way in which her profession develops notions of commitment to caring that do not necessarily empower students or help them become less in need of care.

Although professional identity and beliefs about care and commitment are important to the development of caring teachers, so too is the way in which they are trained in teacher education courses. Both Rogers and Webb (1991) and Noddings (1992; 1995) provide frameworks that assist teachers in the development of caring practices for use in their classrooms. Whilst there are differences between these two teacher education models, the elements that are in common are ‘modeling’ of caring practices from the teacher educators, student teachers ‘practising’ their caring in the field when on professional placements, and ensuring that when student teachers have been able to demonstrate care, the teacher educators ‘confirm’ their behaviours. In these ways Rogers & Webb and Noddings anticipate that teachers will develop into caring teachers by bringing together their dispositions, beliefs, and commitment to care. The ways in which care is demonstrated are examined in the following section.

2.5.3 The Demonstration of Care

The demonstration of care has been discussed by theorists across a range of areas: (a) the role of relationship, (b) teaching strategies, (c) classroom management, (d) types of content, and (e) disadvantaged students. The role of relationship as central to caring has been made clear in the key theories previously presented and indeed relationships emerge as a prominent feature of the demonstration of care. Forming genuine relationships with
students is identified as a key characteristic of caring by Lumpkin (2007). Chaskin and Rauner (1995) note that caring is “grounded in relationships – the kind of relationships good teachers have cultivated for years” (p. 673). Similarly, in a discussion about the ethic of caring in teacher education, Dempsey (1991) (as cited in Rogers and Webb, 1991) states that teachers’ definitions of care encompass how they interact with students and develop relationships with children. This is affirmed by Noddings (2001) when she states that the meaning of care is about forming relationships with students as a basis for all the interactions within the school context.

This dimension of relationship is emphasised in the work of Salovey and Mayer (1990), as part of the interpersonal skills that constitute emotional intelligence. They list five emotional intelligences as a result of their work (a) knowing one’s own emotions, (b) managing emotions, (c) motivating oneself, (d) recognizing emotions in others, and (e) handling relationships. It is this last intelligence – handling relationships - that has relevance here in teachers caring for students.

From a higher education perspective, Sumsion (2000) describes three strategies of caring for her tertiary students, the first of which is relevant here and is called ‘deliberative relationships’, sourced from the work of Tom (1997). Deliberative relationships derive from reflective practice and are characterised by pausing, asking questions of oneself and then acting responsibly. It is about thinking long-term and making decisions based upon what is best in that light rather than immediately solving the problem or issue. Sumsion provides an example of when a student phones her late at night to discuss a practicum placement problem and Sumsion, instead of spending the next hour or two trying to talk through the issue, chooses to briefly reassure the student
and then arranges to meet the following day when it is more convenient for both of them. Sumsion reports that this type of relationship allows the student more opportunity to utilise his/her own resources and possibly in the process become self-empowered. Maybe too, it is a way of channeling the carer’s energies in ways that do not deplete him/her rapidly. However, teachers have other ways in which they demonstrate care to their students such as their selection of teaching strategies.

Selecting teaching strategies that will encourage students to share, collaborate and develop their personal skills is an effective means that teachers choose to demonstrate care (Doyle & Doyle, 2003). The use of theories such as Gardner’s (1983) Multiple Intelligences and other cooperative learning strategies are suggested here as possible strategies that will assist in caring for students. Lumpkin (2007) supports this notion by advocating active learning techniques and using multiple instructional approaches which challenge students whilst enabling them to work in a socially supported structure.

The empowering of students in their own learning is also translated into the caring classroom management practices (McLaughlin, 1992a; 1992b). McLaughlin notes that reconciling the issues surrounding care and control requires promoting self-discipline and developing rapport with the students. Negotiating the difficult territory between these two seemingly dichotomous approaches must be undertaken through students and teachers working together in curriculum, organizing classroom activities, setting rules and goals and so on. In this way care and control are shared and participants are empowered. However, care may be also demonstrated through what teachers teach their students as well as by how they learn.
Teaching students about care throughout the whole school curriculum is suggested by Noddings (1992; 1995) as an important way in which teachers can demonstrate care to their students. By integrating caring themes across the primary or secondary curricula students can examine key issues within subject areas in the light of caring. This is intended as an important means for encouraging caring practices, from not just the teacher but also the students as they explore themes of care from within their subjects.

Techniques for working with students from disadvantaged backgrounds are particularly in need of caring practices. This has been noted by both Perez (2000) and, more recently, Sanacore (2004) in their exploration of how caring may be especially demonstrated to the culturally diverse or culturally disadvantaged. Sanacore advocates a supportive and nurturing environment that will provide an effective environment for learning, whilst Perez advocates ensuring stability through groups staying together for at least three years and through teachers getting involved in extra-curricular activities outside of class time.

The notion of students and teachers staying together for years of education is not new to the educational caring literature. Noddings indicates this idea initially in her work in 1984 but then later expands the notion of extended continuity between not just people (teachers and students) but also places, purposes and curriculum in 1992 in her work on the challenges of caring in schools. Noddings asserts that this constancy is equivalent to fidelity in a caring relation (1986) and is a significant way in which teachers can demonstrate care.

Finally, at a higher education level Sumsion (2000) suggests two other useful strategies for enacting care within the slightly different educational context to schools.
Sumsion advocates that as teacher educators, caring may be demonstrated through transparency of practice and through presence. She describes transparency of practice as being explicit and honest with students in sharing dilemmas and beliefs about teaching that will assist them in growing as teachers themselves. The notion of transparency leads into the final strategy she endorses, that of presence. Presence, she describes as being genuine with students in her care, sustaining attention to them and being totally committed.

The approaches outlined above point to a variety of ways in which care may be demonstrated by teachers. Such care affects both parties – students and teachers - as outlined in the following section.

2.5.4 The Impact of Care

The demonstration of care by teachers to students has an impact on both parties (Campbell & Neill, 1994; Day, 2004; Doyle & Doyle, 2003; Goldstein, 1999; Hargreaves, 1994a, 1994b; Lumpkin, 2007; Newberg, 1995; Nias, 1997, 1999; Noddings, 1986, 1995, 2001; Perez, 2000; Rogers & Webb, 1991; Sanacore, 2004; Sumsion, 2000; White, 2003). A review of international, empirical literature by Hattie (2003) showed that the quality of the teacher is the second most important source of variance in student learning, students being the first source. To examine the impact that caring teachers have on students is important for understanding more about ways in which teachers can positively influence students. For the students, it seems that care results in mostly good outcomes, but for teachers, according to the theorists, there are more reports focused
upon the negative effects. The consequence of caring practices on both teachers and students will be discussed in the following two sections.

2.5.4.1 The Impact of Care on Students

Students in the most general terms benefit from care simply because the goal of caring is growth and through teachers’ care, students grow (Noddings, 1986). More specifically, students benefit academically through enhanced teaching practices that are the result of caring (Day, 2004; Doyle & Doyle, 2003; Goldstein, 1999; Lumpkin, 2007; Newberg, 1995; Perez, 2000; Rogers & Webb, 1991; Sanacore, 2004; White, 2003). They also benefit emotionally and socially (Doyle & Doyle, 2003; Noddings, 2001; Perez, 2000; Rogers & Webb, 1991) and they learn how to care for others (Noddings, 1995). Only one researcher reports that caring for students results in a less than positive outcome for students (Nias, 1997). Each of these areas will now be examined.

Firstly, there are a number of theorists who report that caring for students enhances teaching practices and student academic performance. Good teachers are identified by the construct of care (Day, 2004) and their teaching practices result in effective learning (Lumpkin, 2007; Rogers & Webb, 1991). Both Sanacore (2004) and White (2003) report that caring teachers enhance literacy learning due to their commitment to carefully planned appropriate strategies. Newberg (1995), based on his understanding of the practice of keeping students together for several years in the Waldorf education system (a practice endorsed by Noddings (1986)), reports that more students educated in this way gain acceptance to college.
In a comparison of Vygotsky’s (1978; Vygotsky & Luria, 1994) zone of proximal development (ZPD) and Noddings’ (1984) caring encounter, Goldstein (1999) draws similarities between them showing how they both enhance the knowledge-making process. This increases the intellectual growth and development of students. She reports that it is the understanding of relationship in both theories that enables such learning to occur.

More specific academic outcomes are identified by Perez (2000) and Doyle and Doyle (2003). Both assert that teacher caring for students improves student attendance and standardised test scores. Perez comments that, particularly for students who are culturally diverse, being taught by caring teachers who give priority to relationships is an added bonus. In addition, Perez (2000) and Doyle and Doyle (2003) note that student behaviour improves as a result of care. The effect on the social and emotional well-being of students will be explored further in the next paragraph.

A sense of security, fulfillment and belonging is experienced by students who are recipients of teacher care (Perez, 2000; Rogers & Webb, 1991) and this encourages student commitment to schooling (Perez, 2000) as well as their sense of empowerment (Noddings, 2001). The effects of caring on students in this way has longer term benefits than just the immediate school context in that it also teaches students how to care for other people (Noddings, 1995). This is a valuable outcome from teachers’ caring practices as society will benefit from this result too.

The only argument raised in opposition to the well-supported benefits of care for students comes from Nias (1997). Nias argues that when a teacher commits to care for the whole child, as is advocated by Noddings (1986), the attention of the teacher to the
various aspects of student development becomes divided. The result is that whilst a teacher concentrates on the emotional and social well-being of students their intellectual growth could gain less focus and attention. As Nias (1997) notes:

Teachers who enjoy their pupils’ company and have a good relationship with them may unthinkingly give priority to affective rather than cognitive aims. Those who work unstintingly for the ‘whole child’ may, similarly, unwittingly overlook children’s right to intellectual challenge and extension while wearing themselves out in pursuit of unattainable aims. (p.20)

Nias warns of an imbalance of priority that may lead to neglect of the very task with which teachers are charged – that of teaching students.

2.5.4.2 Impact of Caring for Students on Teachers

In contrast to the benefits for students, teachers appear to gain little when caring for children. Whilst we are assured that caring for another person is life affirming (Thayer-Bacon, 1997), negative impacts of caring are broadly acknowledged. It has been asserted that caring (a) intensifies workload (Campbell & Neill, 1994; Sumsion, 2000), (b) imposes responsibility (Sumsion, 2000), (c) leads to possible burn-out (Nias, 1997), (d) deprives female academics from promotion or rewards (Sumsion, 2000), and (e) may be a source of guilt for many (Hargreaves, 1994a, 1994b; Mayeroff, 1971; Nias, 1997, 1999; Noddings, 1984). Both Nias (1997) and Campbell and Neill (1994) advise that an ethic of care contributes to the overload that teachers experience due to self-imposed expectations to be caring towards their students. This, Nias states, may lead to the wearing out or burn-out of a conscientious teacher.

At a higher education level, Sumsion (2000) also notes that caring may lead to an imposed responsibility and an intensification of workload. From her reflections
concerning an emotional experience with a student needing support, Sumsion clearly suffered emotional anguish over her own decision-making because she genuinely cared for the student. Given that this type of interaction with students in tertiary institutions is not valued on a promotional or reward basis, caring can become particularly arduous for academics.

The boundless nature of both teaching and caring means that it is difficult to say when anyone has cared enough. When other pressures such as accountability and external expectations are brought to bear on a caring teacher not all needs of the students can be met (Hargreaves, 1994a). This, Hargreaves describes, is a guilt trap for teachers. He states: “the commitment to goals of care and nurturance is a significant source of depressive guilt among teachers” (p.145). Aligned with this, Nias confirms her own experience in her study of primary teachers in 1989 (Nias, 1989). This notion of guilt and care, however, is not new.

Mayeroff (1971), like Hargreaves (1994a) and Nias (1997; 1999), mentions that commitment to the recipient of care can lead to guilt when care remains unfinished, neglected or diminished in some way. The guilt, Mayeroff says, comes from the betrayal of the conscience. Noddings (1984) agrees with Mayeroff stating that “in caring we risk guilt, either through accidents while caring is sustained or through the lapse of caring” (p. 39). Feeling guilty that one has not cared enough for the students can become demotivating and may possibly lead to a sense that one’s career purpose has been lost (Hargreaves, 1994a; Hargreaves & Tucker, 1991). The question remains whether teachers then should stop caring entirely to avoid the possibility of guilt. Fortunately, there are other benefits for teachers that may balance such concerning outcomes.
Whilst Nias (1997; 1999) has been unambiguous in her assessment of the difficulties faced by teachers in caring for students she also readily acknowledges that teachers enjoy their pupils and gain satisfaction from working with them in this way (Nias, 1997). Noddings (1984) also reports that the caring relation sustains the carer provided the caring relation is complete. Further empirical investigation concerning the balance between the teacher efforts expended in caring and the rewards of care would be of great benefit to understanding how caring may be sustained. The final section of the review of theoretical literature will address factors that hinder and support caring practices.

2.5.5 Factors that Impact on Caring Practices

Many factors have been cited by theorists as barriers or supports to caring. Logically some of the supportive factors are simply the reverse of the hindering factors. The following two sections illuminate the main arguments for both types of factors and illustrate how these factors create or do not create conditions for caring practices.

2.5.5.1 Factors that Hinder Caring

Factors that hinder caring have focused largely within school settings. However, some factors have been identified within a more general framework of care that is not restricted to school issues. Conceptually, there have been a number of assertions made concerning how caring may be affected by defining care differently. Fear, according to Agne (1999), is the opposite to care and is therefore a barrier to care. The fears to which Agne refers are, for example, fear of expending too much energy with no gain, fear of inconvenience, and fear of rejection. These fears may stop a person from showing care as they pause to
consider how caring for another will affect them. Agne reports that caring is the antidote for fear. Noddings (2001) is concerned about peoples’ understanding of the meaning of care; that some people misrepresent caring as being nice which can result in poor behaviour and low achievement. Tronto (1998) considers that conflict and issues of power between care-givers and care-receivers, or in other aspects of the care process, may result in a break down of care. Failing to have the ability or skills to care is also a concern of Fisher and Tronto (1990) and has been identified by Mayeroff (Mayeroff, 1971) as a cause for caring failure. The process of care becomes interrupted when these attitudinal and competency factors negatively impact upon it.

Within an educational context causes of impaired caring have been identified as (a) school structures (Arnstine, 1990; Hargreaves, 2003; Newberg, 1995; Noddings, 1988), (b) external pressures (Arnstine, 1990; Davis, 2005; Noddings, 2001), (c) lack of emphasis on relationship (Davis, 2005; Noddings, 2001; Rogers & Webb, 1991), (d) lack of supportive colleagues (Arnstine, 1990), and (e) cost-cutting resulting in restructuring (Hargreaves, 2003).

The following school structures affect the way in which teachers care for students: (a) large schools and class sizes (Noddings, 1988), (b) curriculum decisions that result in a lack of flexibility (Noddings, 1988), (c) overcrowding (Arnstine, 1990), (d) subject-based centralisation (Hargreaves, 2003), (e) a ‘one size fits all’ attitude (Noddings, 1988), (f) interrupting children’s schooling by moving them from elementary to middle and then on to high school (Newberg, 1995), and (g) rigidity of time into compartmentalised subjects (Noddings, 1988). The result is a lack of emphasis on relationships due to these structures imposing upon the time necessary for developing interactions with students. If
relationships are at the core of teachers’ work, as reported by Rogers and Webb (1991), then decisions by educational policy-makers to move teachers away from activities that encourage development of relationships (Davis, 2005) will result in failure to achieve the necessary intimacy needed to operationalise caring (Noddings, 2001). Hargreaves (2003) asserts that cost-cutting and restructuring imposed by educational administrators will likewise have this same effect.

Added to these complexities are the external pressures that are brought to bear on schools by governments and educational authorities who insist on greater quantitative accountability and responsibility (Davis, 2005). The demands for high test scores in standardised examinations drives schools with little regard for the factors that are needed to support caring (Arnstine, 1990; Noddings, 2001). If this is coupled by a lack of a supportive community of peers then caring practices will be further impaired (Arnstine, 1990). However, there are many factors that may enhance caring as well and these will be addressed next.

2.5.5.2 Factors that Support Caring

The following suggestions will assist caring practices: (a) smaller class sizes and schools (Bowman, 2002; Newberg, 1995), (b) keeping students and teachers together for longer than annual periods (Newberg, 1995; Noddings, 1992, 1995; Perez, 2000), (c) being supported by a school community who values caring (Davis, 2005; Hargreaves, 2003; Newberg, 1995), and, (d) encouraging collective responsibility for students (Newberg, 1995). Principals rewarding and respecting caring practices has also been considered important (Noddings, 2001). Noddings furthermore suggests that if principals
model care then the result will be that teachers will respond in like ways (Noddings, 2001; Noddings, 2006). Other suggestions that are provided in the theoretical literature endorse (a) teachers and students spending time in informal, outside of class activities that facilitate relationship building (Perez, 2000); (b) increasing the time spent in schools on health programs that emphasise nutrition and well-being (Bowman, 2002); and (c) ensuring that activities, programs and curriculum within the school program target cultivation of rational and caring practices (Arnstine, 1990; Noddings, 1992, 1995). To conclude, however, there is one final factor already mentioned as a key factor in the theories of care which also has major significance for sustaining caring practices – reciprocity.

Noddings reports that the caring relation sustains us (1984) and that natural caring energises the giver as well as the receiver (1988). The process of care itself is self-sustaining provided that the caring is received and reciprocated, asserts Noddings (1984). Caring, if complete, by Noddings’ definition, will bring the necessary satisfaction to avoid burn-out and fatigue. For as Noddings observes: “Where is the teacher to get the strength to go on giving except from the student?” (1984 p. 181). As has been demonstrated above, a number of theorists, including Noddings, believe that there are additional worthy mechanisms for support available. What is needed now is empirical evidence that might illuminate these answers to how teachers may be supported and sustained in caring for their students. The following chapter will review the findings of empirical research into the demonstration and impact of care, as well as the factors that support and hinder.
3 REVIEW OF THE EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

The construct of care within the school context has been a focus for empirical research over the last two decades. The majority of the studies have been conducted in the United States and Canada providing an understanding of care from the Northern American educational perspective (Acker, 1995; Acker & Feuerverger, 1996; Alder, 2002; Bosworth, 1995; Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008; Ellett, Hill, Liu, Loup, & Lakshmanan, 1997; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2000; Goldstein, 1998, 1999; Goldstein & Freedman, 2003; Goldstein & Lake, 1999, 2000, 2003; Gomez et al., 2004; Hayes, Ryan, & Zseller, 1994; Larson & Silverman, 2005; Lindsey, 2000; Marlowe, 2006; McLaughlin, 1991; Muller, 2001; Noblit, 1993; Noblit et al., 1995; Schussler & Collins, 2006; Teven, 2001; Teven & Hanson, 2004; Weinstein, 1998; Wentzel, 1997). A few studies have also been conducted in the United Kingdom and other European countries (Collinson et al., 1998; Cooper, 2004; Nias, 1989; Vogt, 2002) but these have focused more on the nature of teachers’ work and how care has been found to be an important construct within it. Relatively few studies on care have been conducted in Australia and those that have been undertaken were centered upon how care is positioned in schools by teachers, students and society (Barber, 2002; Hansen & Mulholland, 2005; O'Donoghue et al., 1994; Shacklock, 1998; Singh & McWilliam, 2005). A summary of the empirical literature reviewed for this thesis identifying the date, methods, participants and country of origin can be found in appendix A.

Across the breadth of studies a range of educational contexts have been examined: (a) primary (or elementary) schools (Acker, 1995; Cooper, 2004; Ellett et al., 1997; Goldstein, 1998; Hansen & Mulholland, 2005; Hayes et al., 1994; Larson & Silverman,
2005; Marlowe, 2006; McLaughlin, 1991; Nias, 1989; Noblit, 1993; Noblit et al., 1995; O'Donoghue et al., 1994; Singh & McWilliam, 2005; Vogt, 2002), (b) middle schools (Alder, 2002; Bosworth, 1995; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2000; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001; Wentzel, 1997), (c) secondary schools (Barber, 2002; Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008; Collinson et al., 1998; Cooper, 2004; Ellett et al., 1997; Gomez et al., 2004; Larson & Silverman, 2005; Muller, 2001; Schussler & Collins, 2006; Shacklock, 1998), and (d) within teacher education courses (Goldstein & Freedman, 2003; Goldstein & Lake, 1999, 2000, 2003; Lindsey, 2000; Marlowe, 2006; Weinstein, 1998). Collectively these studies have provided a breadth and depth of understanding about care that oftentimes has supported various aspects of the theoretical assertions made by Mayeroff (1971), Gilligan (1982), Noddings (1984), and Fisher and Tronto (1990). Primarily, studies have acknowledged the work of Noddings and, at times, researchers have drawn comparisons with her work and their own conclusions. Studies that address the issues of gender have focused particular attention on the work of Gilligan. However, the work of Fisher and Tronto and Mayeroff has less frequently been discussed at length in the theoretical foundations or acknowledged in the empirical findings of papers despite their clear application to educational contexts.

The approach to research in caring has been inconsistent. Topics for research have varied according to researcher interests and have rarely built on the recommendations for further research suggested in the conclusions of other caring studies. The outcome is that there are generalised fragments of understandings about care that have emerged from numerous studies rather than a sense of new research building upon existing research thus developing a comprehensive picture about the constructs of care and caring. The
pockets of understandings about care are the same as those addressed by theorists, and they are the (a) demonstration of care, (b) development of caring capacities, (c) impact of care on students and teachers, and (d) barriers and supportive factors to caring in schools. Sections 3.1.1 to 3.1.4 review the findings from these studies under the areas addressed by the theorists.

3.1.1 The Demonstration of Care

The demonstration of care has been the focus of many of the studies conducted about care. These studies can be roughly divided into two groups: research that has focused upon the teacher through asking opinions of the teachers or reporting observations of teachers in classrooms (Acker, 1995; Barber, 2002; Collinson et al., 1998; Goldstein, 1998; Hansen & Mulholland, 2005; Larson & Silverman, 2005; Lindsey, 2000; Marlowe, 2006; McLaughlin, 1991; Nias, 1989; Noblit et al., 1995; O'Donoghue et al., 1994; Shacklock, 1998; Vogt, 2002; Weinstein, 1998), and research that has gathered data from the student perspective (Alder, 2002; Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2000; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001; Hayes et al., 1994; Muller, 2001; Noblit et al., 1995; Schussler & Collins, 2006; Teven, 2001; Teven & Hanson, 2004; Wentzel, 1997). The studies have focused specifically upon the demonstration of care from the perspectives of the care-giver (principally the teacher) and the care-receiver (the students) to highlight the differences and similarities of each group’s priorities. Table 3.1 illustrates these two perspectives through a compiled list of characteristics that have been identified as caring. The list is ordered according to the frequency of mentions across the studies that addressed the demonstration of care.
Table 3.1

 cloves Student Perspectives of Characteristics of Caring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher view</th>
<th>Student view</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationship building</td>
<td>Academic care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to students</td>
<td>Personal care</td>
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<tr>
<td>Academic care</td>
<td>Personal qualities</td>
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<td>Personal care</td>
<td>Commitment to students</td>
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<td>Personal qualities</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from Table 3.1 that teachers spoke of the importance of relationship building as a means of demonstrating care. Students, on the other hand, spoke more of caring moments indicating both academic and personal care (Alder, 2002; Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008; Wentzel, 1997). These moments were not necessarily associated with a relationship in the student perspective. There was consensus between both groups of participants concerning the value of academic care over personal care, however, students and teachers differed with regard to the commitment to caring; students mentioned commitment least of all caring practices. Each of these particular core characteristics will be addressed in sections 3.1.1.1 and 3.1.1.2 from the teacher and then student perspective.

3.1.1.1 The Teachers’ Perspective of the Demonstration of Care

The majority of studies reviewed have examined the teacher perspective of what is considered to be caring practices with students. Teachers have described ways of caring through a variety of qualitative techniques resulting in a list of characteristics that teachers demonstrate in their caring as shown in Table 3.1. These characteristics can be described as ways in which the teachers (a) encourage relationships, (b) demonstrate...
commitment in terms of time and energy, (c) educationally meet the needs of students and challenge them to reach their potential, (d) demonstrate care about student well-being, and (e) express care through manner and personal qualities.

RelationshipBuilding. Teachers frequently revealed that building relationships with students was a crucial way in which they could demonstrate care because it led to better caring in the long term. Fostering relationships, the teachers reported, was achieved through spending time with students and getting to know them, which resulted in knowing better how to care for students both personally and educationally (Collinson et al., 1998; Larson & Silverman, 2005; Lindsey, 2000; Marlowe, 2006; McLaughlin, 1991; Noblit et al., 1995; Weinstein, 1998). Relationships with students then enabled teacher care to be more appropriate and helpful because of an increased understanding about student needs.

The centrality of relationship building to caring practices was common to both secondary and primary teachers. For example, Acker (1995) in her study of ‘Hillview’, a primary school where students were quite difficult to manage, identified that close relationships with students in classes was one way in which teachers could show that they cared for their students. She likened the ways in which the teachers responded relationally to the students to the ways in which mothers related to their children, reporting that it was relational feminism in practice. Similarly, the importance of fostering relationships was evident in Shacklock’s (1998) study of secondary school teachers in which participants stated that relationships were central to their professional
self and were enacted within the daily life of their classrooms no matter what the age of the student.

Developing relationships was also identified in differing schooling contexts. In a cross-cultural study conducted by Collinson, Killeavy and Stephenson (1998) in which 12 secondary teachers from England, Ireland and the United States were surveyed and interviewed, three key ingredients for demonstrating care were found. Two of these ingredients are of particular relevance to this section of building relationships with students. The first focused on (a) relationships with pupils and was identified through activities such as being professional yet friendly; (b) designing activities that encouraged teacher-student, student-student, and student-teacher interactions; and (c) teachers setting aside their own personal problems whilst being open about their own fallibility. The second focused upon getting to know students through dialogue and questions, through informal interactions, and finding out about student cultures. These activities were undertaken with a view to learning more about students so as to build a foundation of respect and care. Teachers from all three countries involved in the study demonstrated these caring practices.

Other studies have focused upon uniquely difficult situations where care is demonstrated through relationship building. Hansen and Mulholland (2005) in their Australian study of beginning, male primary teachers noted that whilst being conscious of demonstrating care in ways that could be construed as potentially pedophiliac, activities that were community building in terms of establishing good relationships were still considered to be an important approach in which care could be demonstrated. Likewise Barber (2002), in another Australian study, examined a secondary school whose students
were largely disadvantaged and had many home and social problems. As a result of her research she derived clearly documented practices that included spending time with students to find out about the particular situations in which they were trying to work. Both of these Australian studies have focused upon distinctive situations, one concerning a particular type of teacher and the other a particular group of students, but to date there has not been an Australian study conducted that has concentrated on how teachers in more typical circumstances demonstrate care for their students. The following section explores a commitment underpinning teachers’ beliefs about the importance of relationship building.

**Commitment.** Commitment has featured slightly less strongly than relationship building in accounts of caring practices in a number of studies (Acker, 1995; Goldstein, 1998; Shacklock, 1998; Vogt, 2002). For example, in the study by Vogt (2002) involving 32 Swiss and English teachers, it was found that the English teachers identified commitment as the most important demonstration of care by placing it at the far end of a continuum that listed five other possible teacher caring behaviours. The continuum compared six caring practices and placed feminine related practices at one end whilst at the other end were practices which were not gender specific. By reporting commitment as a non-gender related caring practice, with examples of getting the very best from students and providing a happy and secure environment, the majority of English teachers in this study identified it as a caring behaviour. The information gathered from the Swiss teachers in this study resulted in further understandings concerning teacher identity and relationship building but were not specifically linked to care.
Time given to preparation and working with students outside of normal class time was particularly noted by Acker (1995) as an example of the type of commitment teachers made to their students. Acker’s ethnographic study involving primary teachers also revealed that teachers gave unstintingly to their students in terms of commitment despite quite difficult conditions. Equally, an Australian study on teacher professionalism (Shacklock, 1998) highlighted the priority teachers gave to spending extra hours devoted to student needs. Examples given in Shacklock’s study described giving time at home over weekends, phoning parents in the evening, after-hours meetings, counseling students, and preparation and correction.

The role of commitment and what it means to teachers professionally has been supported in Nias’ study (1989) of primary teachers in England. In this landmark research on primary schools Nias interviewed 99 teachers who worked in infants, junior and middle schools during the years 1975-1977. She selected the majority of the participants from a Post Graduate Certificate in Education where she had tutored many of them, but the remainder of the participants came from a range of other teacher education postgraduate courses from other tertiary institutions and were randomly selected. She also observed the teachers in their classrooms and interviewed them in a range of educational and non-educational locations such as schools, homes and pubs. Ten years later, in 1985, she again interviewed the majority of the first group who were now mid-career, resulting in data from 50 interviews. Due in part to the semi-structured nature of interviews that lasted from 50 minutes to up to three hours, Nias gathered substantial data. In terms of findings about commitment and care, teachers in her study clearly interpreted commitment as caring for children by taking the job seriously and working
hard. The beliefs concerning care for children were strongly held amongst teachers and appeared to drive the teachers to do their best beyond what was considered to be normal expectations.

Similarly, in a study of one primary teacher, Goldstein (1998) noted commitment in the form of extra time and energy given to individuals as well as to whole groups. In the course of a morning meeting the teacher, through her interactions with her students, demonstrated a caring encounter. It was observed that the teacher was committed to the goals of each individual by developing a range of tasks to suit the needs of all abilities. Commitment to every child was seen in recognizing the needs of the students individually and catering for those needs. Attending to the learning needs of every child is explored further in the next practice of care that focuses on meeting the educational needs of students.

*Meeting Educational Needs.* Teachers have also recognised the importance of caring for students’ educational needs by placing educational progress as a priority, taking into account individual differences, and having high expectations for students’ work. One way in which elementary teachers placed educational progress as a priority was by assisting students to reach their full potential (Noblit et al., 1995). The two teachers that were observed in Noblit et al.’s study constantly worked to gain the best possible efforts from all their pupils. This attention to the range of individual needs was one of the ways in which they demonstrated care for their students.

Ensuring the educational needs of individuals were met was also noted by Goldstein (1998) as a form of commitment. Similarly, McLaughlin (1991) saw this as a practical
means of assisting all children to learn. McLaughlin’s intensive study of one primary teacher found that focusing on individuals and ensuring that flexibility to the curriculum needs of each student in the class was a caring practice devoted to educational progress. Similarly, in a study conducted by Larson and Silverman (2005), involving physical education teachers, it was observed that attending to the particular academic needs of disadvantaged students was something about which the teachers in their study particularly cared.

Expecting quality work from students is another way in which teachers showed educational care for their students (Collinson et al., 1998). In this cross-cultural study, secondary teachers from England, Ireland and the United States who were considered to be exemplary, were interviewed concerning the beliefs that underpinned their caring practices. The teachers noted that one way in which they could demonstrate care was to expect high quality work from their students. Similarly, Goldstein (1998) found in a case study of one primary teacher that failing to accept poor behaviour but instead insisting repeatedly yet gently on complete attention to the work given was a caring behaviour.

Two studies however, showed that sometimes educational care for students was not always the priority when caring for students. In a study with pre-service teachers conducted by Weinstein (1998), participants responded to a question about how they would indicate to students that they care for them. The responses were grouped into three areas: (a) pedagogy, (b) interpersonal relationships, and (c) classroom management. The comments revealed that caring for students through interpersonal relationships was considered the primary way in which to demonstrate care. Both pedagogy and classroom management fell significantly behind in the tally suggesting that educational care and
management of students was not considered by pre-service teachers as a significant way in which to demonstrate care. The secondary respondents mentioned pedagogy slightly more often than their elementary counterparts.

A preference for personal care over academic care was also noted in an Australian study of primary school teachers in an educational district of Western Australia (\(N = 60\)) (O'Donoghue et al., 1994). The teachers in this study asserted that caring for students was important and if that meant putting the emotional well-being of students ahead of educational demands should a choice between the two have to be made, then that was how they could best care. As the next section will show, being concerned for the personal needs of students was a further way in which teachers identified caring for students.

_Caring for Student Well-Being._ Caring for student well-being with particular regard to students’ social and emotional development is another characteristic noted by teachers as a practice of care. A number of studies identified that teachers believed that caring for students involved not only finding out about their students’ lives outside of school but also assisting them with the difficulties that they faced in that arena. The strategies used ranged from talking to students about life outside of class and taking an interest in them personally (Barber, 2002; Larson & Silverman, 2005), and understanding their students’ cultures (Collinson et al., 1998; Lindsey, 2000), to caring as a parent would care (Vogt, 2002). Personal connections with students required teachers to have personalities that made them approachable to students. This notion is explored further in the following section.
**Personal Qualities that Demonstrated Care.** Qualities such as (a) flexibility (Goldstein, 1998); (b) compassion (Acker, 1995), (c) empathy (Larson & Silverman, 2005), (d) sensitivity (Marlowe, 2006) (e) responsiveness (Ellett et al., 1997; Goldstein, 1998), (f) attentiveness (Ellett et al., 1997); and (g) passion for the job of teaching (Lindsey, 2000) were all considered by teachers to be traits that assisted in caring for students. By behaving towards students in an approachable manner teachers were able to build relationships, demonstrate commitment, meet educational needs and care for student well-being. Effectively, the personal qualities of teachers often became the vehicle through which care could be demonstrated.

The caring behaviours of teachers in these studies illustrated a desire to assist students holistically thereby gaining the best possible efforts and results from them. Students, however, may interpret teachers’ actions somewhat differently and these will be explored in section 3.1.1.2.

### 3.1.1.2 The Students’ Perspective of the Demonstration of Care

Research studies regarding student perceptions of how teachers demonstrate care have been fewer in number than those addressing teacher perspectives. However, similar to those conducted about teachers’ perceptions, opinions have been gathered from a range of educational contexts including elementary schools (Hayes et al., 1994), middle schools (Alder, 2002; Bosworth, 1995; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001; Wentzel, 1997), and secondary schools (Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008; Muller, 2001; Schussler & Collins, 2006) through to tertiary institutions (Teven, 2001). Students have shared their perceptions
through (a) focus groups (Alder, 2002), (b) interviews (Bosworth, 1995; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001; Schussler & Collins, 2006), (c) surveys using ranking and sorting procedures (Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008; Teven, 2001), surveys using closed and open-ended questions (Hayes et al., 1994; Muller, 2001), and (e) surveys using both ranking procedures and closed and open-ended questions (Wentzel, 1997). A number of key practices were identified by students in the findings (as already identified in Table 3.1) and these will be explored further below.

**The Role of Relationship.** Whilst teachers recognised that forging relationships with students was important to ensuring both personal and academic care, students in the studies did not acknowledge the importance of this caring practice. Instead, students focused more upon the ways in which teachers assisted them academically and personally in daily one-off moments without the same type of recognition of these being set within an ongoing relationship per se. Nonetheless, two studies did note the role of relationship from a student perspective. Firstly, Ferreira and Bosworth (2001) asserted that relationships in the middle school classrooms tended to be uni-directional from teacher to student only and were primarily concerned with content and pedagogy. However in contrast, Schussler and Collins (2006) interviewed 16 high school students and identified five caring relationships that occurred within the school community: (a) teacher-student, (b) student-student, (c) school-student, (d) student-school, and (e) student-teacher. These relationships, reported Schussler and Collins, all contained specific practices of care and these were present and future oriented. To be future oriented meant that in the building of relationships teachers were developing the full potential of students by their actions rather
than focusing only on how the relationship could assist the present. Other insights in this study into the caring practices of teachers were then grouped into academic, personal and social concerns, which drew similarities with the other studies. The following two sections will examine what students observed about the ways in which teachers demonstrated care for students academically and personally.

**Academic Care.** Students’ awareness of the teachers’ concern for their educational progress emerged strongly in the studies seeking student perspectives. Muller’s study (2001) using longitudinal data from the National Longitudinal Study of 1988-1992 (United States) showed that students who were at risk of dropping out of high school felt more supported by the teachers who demonstrated genuine concern for their academic progress and did not give up on them. While this study was not specifically designed to explore caring practices, other studies focusing specifically on care have provided more detail about the types of support and care teachers gave students educationally.

Firstly, teachers demonstrated their care by planning work and assignments that were (a) fun (Bosworth, 1995; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001; Hayes et al., 1994), (b) interesting (Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008), and (c) provided good subject content (Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008; Hayes et al., 1994). Students in Wentzel’s (1997) study with 248 students over their time at school from year six to year eight reported that caring was best demonstrated when teachers cared about the job they were doing. In other words, teachers who demonstrated a commitment to students by teaching them well.

Secondly, the teachers who cared (a) delivered content with clear explanations, (b) were patient (Bosworth, 1995), (c) were flexible when students needed more time or
more help (Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008), (d) accepted more than one answer to a question, and (e) provided opportunities for class discussions (Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008). Other teaching strategies that demonstrated academic care were (a) checking for understanding (Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001), (b) helping students (Bosworth, 1995; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001; Hayes et al., 1994; Schussler & Collins, 2006), (c) praising and encouraging students in their work (Bosworth, 1995; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001; Hayes et al., 1994) and (d) using practical examples and stories. These were the tools in the explanation and delivery of the academic work that were employed by a teacher who cared (Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008).

Thirdly, a teacher who demonstrated care in the educational component was also considered to be fair in assessment by (a) providing constructive feedback (Bosworth, 1995), (b) basing grades on more than just homework and tests (Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008), and (c) by allowing extra time to do work or the possibility of extra credit (Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008). This fairness in the evaluation of students’ academic work was considered to be of importance to students and was an identified practice of teacher care.

Fourthly, teachers demonstrated care by letting the students know that they believed in their ability to succeed (Bosworth, 1995; Schussler & Collins, 2006; Wentzel, 1997). If this meant putting pressure on students to produce their best work then this was understood by the students in a study by Alder (2002) as a caring approach. High expectations of student work were seen as indicative that teachers cared (Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008). This is similar to the perspective of teachers who stated that caring for students meant expecting high quality work.
Fifthly, recognizing the individuality of students and tailoring assignments and work to the various needs was also viewed by students as a caring practice. Bosworth (1995), in the interviews conducted with 100 students in middle school, found that teachers valuing students as individuals was a key practice of care and this was demonstrated by acknowledgement of different needs in the classroom and the different speeds at which children can learn. Likewise, students in another study noted that teachers being attentive to needs and to student academic status as well as responding to them on an individual basis, was helpful in their academic growth (Schussler & Collins, 2006). Students, it seemed, felt cared for when their teachers recognised them as individuals.

Finally, students perceived that teachers demonstrated educational caring practices by maintaining a class atmosphere that allowed learning to occur. This caring practice appeared to be recognised by students in most phases of schooling. Ferreira and Bosworth (2001) noted that middle school students recognised a caring teacher through maintenance of an orderly atmosphere, whilst students in the primary school study conducted by Hayes, et al.(1994) listed ‘managed class well’ and ‘avoided harshness’ (1994 p. 12) as practices of a caring teacher. The use of manner was also noted by Teven (2001) in his study with tertiary students, when students commented that teachers who were not verbally aggressive were more credible as caring teachers. The ways in which caring teachers work with the students will be further commented upon as students’ perceptions about how teachers cared for them personally are documented in the following section.
Personal Care. Fewer comments were made by students concerning the personal care teachers gave to them but it was still a significant category of practices that had been raised in the student perception studies. Bosworth (1995), in her study of middle school students, called the personal care interactions ‘non-classroom activities’, however other studies have noted that this type of care also occurs within classroom time. Strategies that students noted involved showing interest in students outside school activities (Bosworth, 1995; Hayes et al., 1994; Schussler & Collins, 2006), and helping and providing guidance about personal problems (Bosworth, 1995; Hayes et al., 1994). Linked to these aspects of teacher care is assisting students with developing social skills, as observed by Schussler and Collins (2006) who listed encouraging student communication, teaching people skills, and teaching how to communicate with people as ways in which teachers showed that they cared. A teacher’s personal style with students also played a significant part in caring for students emotionally and socially. This is consistent with teachers’ perspectives of care discussed earlier.

Personal Qualities. A number of studies identified particular characteristics that teachers used with students to demonstrate their caring. These ranged from (a) being tolerant and patient (Bosworth, 1995; Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008), (b) respecting students (Bosworth, 1995; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001), (c) keeping promises (Wentzel, 1997), and (d) being polite and nice (Bosworth, 1995). However, one of the strongest characteristics that teachers used to show that they cared was to be good listeners (Bosworth, 1995; Caldwell & Sholtis, 2008; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001; Hayes et al., 1994; Schussler & Collins, 2006; Wentzel, 1997). In contrast, when teachers named specific personal
qualities they did not mention listening as a particular characteristic or practice. Instead, teachers mentioned talking with students as a practice that demonstrated their care.

Commitment to Students. Finally, three studies noted that teachers who cared were committed by (a) ‘going the extra mile’ (Bosworth, 1995 p. 691), (b) by taking time with interactions with students and parents (Alder, 2002) and (c) by not giving up (Muller, 2001). Although this caring feature was mentioned rarely by students this could be attributed to their lack of awareness about the times when teachers go beyond what may be normally expected of them. Not surprisingly, teachers mentioned this aspect of care more often.

The list of core caring features that emerged from both teacher and student perspectives was strikingly similar: (a) educational care, (b) personal care, (c) commitment, and (d) personal qualities were mentioned by both groups. The role of relationship from a student perspective appeared less convincing as it was acknowledged far less often. However, consensus was gained when both teachers and students considered that there were two types of teacher caring: educational and personal that took place in the classroom. These approaches to care were further supplemented, according to the teachers and students, by an underlying commitment to care as well as personal qualities that enabled care to take place. It is important to note however, that the majority of these observations and perspectives from both student and teacher have emerged from North America. By comparison, little empirical research from the teacher’s perspective concerning the demonstration of care has come from the United Kingdom, or other countries in Europe or Australia. Even less research has been conducted from a
student perspective in these countries. There have been no Australian studies from the student perspective of teachers’ demonstration of care. Further research into ways in which care is demonstrated within both an Australian and European context is necessary to understand the variety of ways in which teachers demonstrate care to their students.

3.1.2 The Impact of Care

According to the research, caring for students has benefits for both teachers (Shacklock, 1998) and students (Collinson et al., 1998; Noblit et al., 1995; O'Donoghue et al., 1994; Schussler & Collins, 2006; Wentzel, 1997) but there are also some issues for teachers surrounding the impact that care has upon their workload (Schussler & Collins, 2006; Shacklock, 1998). Research exploring the impact of care upon students and teachers will be presented in the following section.

3.1.2.1 Impact of Teacher Care on Students

Five empirical studies about care have shown that caring for students has benefits for either the students’ academic growth or social growth or both. One of these five studies revealed that care impacted positively on emotional and relational support for students (O'Donoghue et al., 1994), and another focused on the enhancement of learning (Collinson et al., 1998). The other three studies showed enhanced academic outcomes as well as improved emotional and/or social growth for students (Noblit et al., 1995; Schussler & Collins, 2006; Wentzel, 1997). The following paragraphs will explain the contributions each of these studies have made to understanding the impact of caring teachers have on students.
The study conducted by O’Donoghue et al. (1994) revealed that caring teachers chose to care in order to enhance emotional support for students and to assist them in the developing of relationships. The 60 primary teachers in the O’Donoghue study argued that the situations within which many of their students were currently living meant that they had a responsibility to ‘level the playing field’ by caring for them and attending to their emotional needs. Such a response to the students required forging strong relationships with them and placing the relationships at the forefront of their caring practices. The teachers believed that such an approach made a difference to the students by helping them resolve some of their emotional problems in order to concentrate more easily on academic outcomes.

However, in a cross-cultural study of exemplary teachers (Collinson et al., 1998) the impact of caring for students resulted in increased respect for students, and consequently, students respected learning. One of the findings of the study indicated that caring teachers foster dialogue with students which pushes student learning further. However, the overall conclusion showed that respect was a primary aspect of care and respect “is a vital foundation for students’ best learning and a prerequisite for effective teaching” (p. 21).

The next three studies identified positive outcomes for students in terms of academic learning as well as social growth. In 1995, Noblit et al. observed two teachers that had been identified as the best teachers in the primary school and noted how these teachers worked with particular students in their classes. Their teaching practices were documented and analysed from the perspective of caring. The researchers concluded that caring created possibilities for learning and that these possibilities occurred in a number
of areas. Caring teachers, it was asserted, (a) assisted students to recognise their own abilities and develop a sense of self-worth, (b) fostered social growth in students that enabled them to cooperate with others, (c) encouraged students to reach their full potential, and (d) created possibilities for academic growth.

The benefits for students were not just limited to academic results but to the whole of the student as a social, physical and emotional being. The authors conclude “caring fosters this teacher/student connection and encourages possibilities for learning that may not otherwise occur” (p.683).

The studies that revealed findings related to the impact of caring upon students up until this point have all been researched from the teacher or researcher perspective and therefore rest on their perception of academic and/or social growth. However, the next two studies, in contrast, use the student voice to show the benefits of caring teachers and in the case of the Wentzel study (1997) provide quantitative support to show the effect of caring teachers.

Although Schussler and Collins (2006) observed and interviewed faculty from a high school the bulk of their data were derived from three in-depth interviews they conducted with each of the 16 students in years 10 to 12 at the school. Findings from this study contributed to a number of areas of study within care, but of particular interest is the author’s assertion that there were five caring concepts evident from the student interviews, which they called ‘pervasive elements’. The concepts were: (a) opportunities for success, (b) flexibility, (c) respect for students, (d) family atmosphere, and (e) a sense of belonging. These elements supported students academically, personally and socially both in the short and long term, reported Schussler and Collins. According to the student
participants, the teachers wanted their students to succeed academically through the achievement of good grades and accomplishment beyond graduation. To enable this, the teachers were prepared to be flexible according to student needs rather than being curriculum driven. Furthermore, teachers expected high quality work from their students indicating to them that they believed that they would succeed. Such an attitude from the teachers, according to the students in the study, demonstrated respect for them in that teachers put their trust in their students’ abilities. Additionally, knowing the students well, as the caring teachers did, resulted in a feeling of connection and gave the students a sense of belonging. These pervasive elements clearly demonstrate the positive impact of caring practices on students.

The findings from Wentzel’s longitudinal study of middle school participants were a willingness to engage with classroom activities and improvement in academic and social outcomes as a result of perceived teacher caring. The data were derived from a survey administered in year six and then another similar survey in year eight. The longitudinal data were robust and revealed a significant relationship between perceived caring from teachers and students’ efforts to achieve academic and social outcomes. Hence caring teachers, have a positive effect on student learning and social growth according to these middle school students. Such a study has been helpful in determining the impact of care on student outcomes as there is very limited quantitative research in the study of care.

Students certainly appear to benefit academically, and socially and emotionally when they are cared for by teachers. However, the positive benefits for teachers, also indicated in the theoretical literature, are far less documented and will be explored in the following section on the impact of teacher care on teachers.
3.1.2.2 Impact of Teacher Care on Teachers

The impact of caring for students on the teachers who demonstrate care has received little empirical attention. Only three studies have addressed this aspect of care. The studies indicate that caring for students has both positive and negative effects. Shacklock’s study in 1998 was conducted in a secondary school situated in a provincial city in an Australian country region. Shacklock utilised a grounded narration technique for the information gleaned from the teachers in his study and while the number of staff who participated in the study remains unclear, Shacklock drew the following conclusions about the impact that caring for students had on the teachers at the school.

Shacklock (1998) found that the teachers in his study defined themselves professionally as caring and this image of self was of great importance to them. Why teachers found this image important was not further discussed in the study. Later, however, Shacklock reports that such a strong professional image can result in feelings of guilt when the ethic of care is not exercised in classroom practices. According to Shacklock, failing to provide care when a teacher believes that caring is central to his/her professional image can be quite devastating, and in the current educational climate in which intensification of workload is prevalent, failing to demonstrate care can be a frequent experience. Shacklock asserts that attempting to provide care for students can be ‘both the making and unmaking’ (p. 186) of a teacher’s professional identity.

Affirming similar reports in her study with Swiss and English teachers, Vogt (2002) notes that these participants also associated their caring ethic with professional identity. Through the use of interviews, discussion of photographs taken whilst teaching, and a
self-sketch of him/herself as a teacher, Vogt found that the discourse and visual pictures conceptualised the teachers’ professional identity and was strongly related to commitment. As was mentioned earlier, on Vogt’s continuum of caring practices, commitment was at the far end of non-gendered behaviours and was the most frequently agreed upon definition of caring teachers. The teachers equated being a caring teacher with being committed, which was also strongly related to being a good teacher. For teachers, caring for students confirmed their professional identity, which is consistent with Shacklock’s findings and commitment as a teacher. This notion of how beliefs and teacher identity affects the impact of care on teachers will be explored in the section about the development of caring teachers.

Caring for students also brings enjoyment and satisfaction (Nias, 1989). The teachers in Nias’ first study covering 1975-1977 spoke of the joy that comes from being with their students and giving to them in a variety of ways. The satisfaction from working with students appeared to sustain the teachers in their work with them.

3.1.3 The Development of Caring Teachers

The notion that caring teachers improve educational and social outcomes for students has been quite well supported in the empirical studies presented in the last section. The benefits to students provide a sound basis for the development of caring teachers as an important area of research. How caring teachers are nurtured and sustained is important to ensuring that not only will more caring teachers be available to students but that the ones that already practice caring behaviours in the classroom will continue to do so. The
development of caring teachers will be discussed in the following reporting of research on care.

Studies about the ways in which teachers develop as caring teachers, have been few in number. Those undertaken have been mostly limited to (a) beliefs and perceptions that teachers hold about care before commencing training and the subsequent change (or lack of it) to these beliefs, (b) the influence of gender on the ways in which teachers behave towards students, and (c) the beliefs held by experienced teachers. Only one study by Larson and Silverman (2005) asked teachers about how their beliefs about care have been influenced. The Larson and Silverman study and its conclusions will be explored in the following section.

3.1.3.1 Influences on Forming Beliefs About Care in Teaching

A study conducted with four physical education teachers about caring in teaching has provided some understandings about how teachers develop beliefs about care. Teachers in the Larson and Silverman study (2005) were selected on the basis that knowledgeable professionals in physical education identified each of the participants as being caring teachers. The criteria for recommendation were set by generating a list from the literature of students’ perceptions of caring teachers. Each of the teachers was formally interviewed, observed teaching and then informally interviewed again to discover the reasons for demonstrating caring behaviours in school.

The results of the study showed that the four participants (two from elementary schools and two from secondary schools) held three common beliefs about care. The first belief that they shared was about the high importance of caring and what has influenced
them to believe this. The second shared belief was that physical education was of great benefit to students and the third concerned their common interest in broadening relationships with students. It is the first belief that is of most interest here in that it gives some indication of why teachers choose to demonstrate caring practices.

All four participants reported that part of a teacher’s job is to care for students and this was the rationale for their belief that caring was important. This was clearly exemplified by the ways in which they assisted students in their physical, educational, and emotional growth and well-being. All teachers in this study also believed that the choice to behave in this manner with students was due to the example of their physical education instructors in their own teaching preparation. The role modeling of teaching that they received was paramount, according to these four identified caring teachers, to their beliefs about how caring teachers should behave towards their students. This was similarly supported by Agne (1999) and Chaskin and Rauner (1995) in the theoretical literature. Further understandings about why they considered caring to be important and why they believed caring was part of a teacher’s job were not explicated in the study. However, Goldstein and Lake (1999; 2000; 2003), Goldstein and Freedman (2003), and McLaughlin (1991) in the following section reveal more about the beliefs that pre-service teachers hold when they commence their training and how these beliefs are challenged during their teacher education programs and professional experiences in the classroom. However, there needs to be further research of the origins of care in in-service teachers.
3.1.3.2 Beginning Teacher Beliefs

The following studies have focused on the beliefs held by beginning teachers as they are confronted with their first classroom experiences as a teacher. Kerry, a primary school student teacher, in McLaughlin’s (1991) study on reconciling care and control, brought to her teaching many different beliefs about what a teacher should do. McLaughlin observed Kerry’s teaching on seven occasions and each was followed by an interview during which classroom events and subsequent feelings about those events were recorded.

According to McLaughlin (1991), before practice teaching Kerry had intentions to care and control. She wished to demonstrate care for students through relationships that were open, honest and reciprocal but she also wanted order in the classroom so that educational outcomes could be achieved. The reality was that this balance between care and control was more difficult to accomplish than initially thought and Kerry experienced tensions between what she concluded were opposites of each other. McLaughlin asserts that caring and control can transform each other but that for beginning teachers the issues need to be explored in their teacher education programs and with supportive teachers in the field. As will be explained shortly, Goldstein and Lake (2003) discovered similar difficulties for the beginning teachers in their programs.

Similarly, Goldstein and her associates over a period of five years from 1999 to 2003 examined pre-service teachers’ beliefs through a course entitled Elementary Classroom Organisation and Management. It was in this course that Goldstein worked with Lake (Goldstein & Lake, 1999, 2000, 2003) and Freedman (Goldstein & Freedman, 2003), in
analyzing e-journals of 17 to 19 students who undertook this program whilst working in schools in professional experiences. Their aim was to encourage students to think about the role of care within their teaching experiences as they learned about classroom management, effective teaching strategies and lesson planning.

In two earlier studies (1999; 2000) Goldstein and Lake discovered that pre-service teachers had three key beliefs about care: (a) essentialism, (b) over-simplification, and (c) romanticism (the latter changing to idealism in the 2000 study). Essentialism reflected the way in which student teachers believed that caring came naturally and instinctively; over-simplification of care was a belief that caring was simply about love and being nice and that this would result in a successful classroom experience; and idealism concerned beliefs about their future as teachers, for example, that (a) their preparation for classes would always be thorough, invigorating and creative; (b) lesson delivery would be individualistic, concrete, and patient; (c) time would be taken with assessments; and (d) extra help given wherever needed. Hindering factors that make these ideals less achievable did not appear to be considered in their dreams of being a caring teacher. The concerns that Goldstein and Lake held about these beliefs was that as the student teachers began to face the realities of teaching their vulnerabilities would increase leading perhaps to burnout, exhaustion, and perfectionism. The hope then was to design teacher education programs that could effect change from these more idealistic beliefs to beliefs that may be sustainable in the classroom.

The later 2003 studies (Goldstein & Freedman; Goldstein & Lake) continued the analysis of the ejournals and explored the impact of field experience on the pre-service teachers’ beliefs (Goldstein & Lake, 2003) and further understanding of the factors that
could inhibit perceptions of care in teacher education (Goldstein & Freedman, 2003). In the study by Goldstein and Lake two key tensions were identified. Firstly, the pre-service teachers’ notion of care and the development of their own professional identity experienced tension as images of teacher-self emerged differently to what they had expected. This resulted in a need to re-negotiate the territory between care and control, as in McLaughlin’s study (1991). Secondly, care and loss was identified as a tension when pre-service teachers developed close connections with students as part of their caring. This was a difficult tension for many student teachers and may have resulted in a choice to not deepen relationships with students in order to protect themselves from the inevitable sense of loss as pupils moved on.

The later study by Goldstein and Freedman (2003) had a slightly different focus concerning pre-service teachers’ understandings of care. The researchers needed to turn the spotlight on themselves in order to gain insights as to why their pre-service teachers persisted in negative and judgmental attitudes towards some of their pupils’ parents. Recognising that this attitude was contrary to what Goldstein and Freedman had been attempting to teach, they examined the teacher journal alongside the ejournal entries from students. The results showed that the nature of the teacher-student interaction and hence the role modeling of care had more impact on beliefs of pre-service teachers than simply talking about care. With regard to learning how to care, it seems that the words and actions of teachers need to be consistent if the pupils are to learn to be caring which is consistent with research in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) that shows actions matter more. Certainly, Noddings (1986) in her framework of modeling, dialogue,
practicing, and confirmation would agree that the need for both demonstration and discussion of care is important when teaching the importance of care to student teachers.

The notion that caring teacher ideals and beliefs have been formed before arriving in teacher education programs has also been supported by Gomez et al. (2004) in a longitudinal case study involving Alison, a pre-service secondary teacher, who embodied a strongly held belief that caring was about encouraging students to take responsibility for their own learning. As she was confronted with students who did not wish to do well or work hard to achieve success, Alison was required to shift her thinking about what it meant to care for students who did not share the same cultural framework that she herself held as a student. The authors asserted that teacher educators have a responsibility to assist pre-service teachers in recognising their underlying beliefs about not only caring but also about how their ideals have developed from their own personal biographies and frameworks.

3.1.3.3 Experienced Teacher Beliefs

Five studies focused upon the role of experienced teachers’ beliefs in caring for students (Acker & Feuerverger, 1996; Barber, 2002; Collinson et al., 1998; Nias, 1989; O'Donoghue et al., 1994) however two were primarily concerned with role of gender in beliefs about care (Acker & Feuerverger, 1996; Barber, 2002). The beliefs not related to gender will be examined first.

In the Collinson et al. (1998) study, respect was considered foundational to the exemplary secondary teachers selected from three different countries and this belief formed the basis for the decisions and strategies in their teaching. Their choice to put
respect at the centre of all their classroom interactions appeared to come from their own practical experiences of teaching and their recognition of its importance to anything else being achieved in the classroom. The O’Donoghue et al. (1994) study also examined the beliefs of teachers but they focused on volunteers across four primary schools in an urban area, discovering that like Collinson’s study, the importance of care was paramount to the 60 teachers they interviewed. The participants also reported that the need to focus on student personal needs as a priority over any other type of educational activity was driven by the context in which their students were trying to learn. In both of these instances it appears that experienced teacher beliefs were derived from their experiences of working with students and from the understandings that they held about the way in which children best learn.

Experienced teachers asserted that their personal values or belief system demonstrated caring aspects of their role. These beliefs were represented by comments such as ‘being prepared to put their interests first’ and ‘doing your best for all the children in your class’ (Nias, 1989 p. 190). At times, these sentiments were expressed in terms of care but oftentimes, in terms of love for their students and the impact that teachers can have on the future through positively influencing students.

In the two studies that focused upon the role of gender in teacher beliefs, two different assertions are made. Firstly, the study of 27 Canadian female academics conducted by Acker and Feuerverger (1996) revealed that working hard for students, being good citizens and acting as a sounding board to colleagues was underpinned by the beliefs of the women that this was the way to be caring. Despite a lack of reciprocity from some students and a lack of reward from the system in terms of tenure and
promotion, the female academics still continued to be driven by these beliefs. Secondly, Barber’s study (2002) of secondary teachers demonstrated differences in understandings about care between the female and male teachers. Whilst both groups of teachers clearly experienced pleasure in being with students, it was evident by the way that the women spoke about this pleasure that they gained satisfaction from seeing the students grow and develop as a result of their intervention. The male teachers in the study instead did not justify their pleasure in being with students but simply acknowledged that spending time with students was reward in itself. These beliefs about how teachers see their role according to gender may be significant in terms of how caring is enacted in educational contexts, and requires further research.

3.1.3.4 The Role of Efficacy in Caring

The role of efficacy and its relationship with teacher caring is important in understanding the nature of teachers who choose to care for their students. The question of whether teachers believe that they will be able to care for students and be of assistance to them educationally and emotionally may affect the decisions teachers make in the classrooms. A study conducted by Ellett et al. in 1997 examined the perceptions of teachers from Kindergarten to year 12 concerning the relationship between human caring, professional learning environments and efficacy motivation. The study involved over 1,000 teachers from both primary and secondary schools (number of schools = 29) in two school districts.

The results indicated firstly that strong, positive relationships existed between elements of the professional learning environment of schools and teacher levels of
efficacy motivation which were related to goal persistence and response to failure to attain goals. Secondly, due to only two collective efficacy factors emerging from the data (rather than the three that emerged in an earlier study using the same scale) it may suggest that strongly contrasting social contexts affect the self and collective efficacy of teachers. Thirdly, the scale used to measure affective caring may have needed further adaptation for teachers as some misunderstandings about the inventory were commented on by participants in the open-ended section of the overall survey.

The significance of the study for caring teachers is that by assessing the personal and collective efficacy levels of teachers who have been identified as caring and comparing these scores with other teachers, it may be helpful in discovering more about the ways in which beliefs affect the caring practices of teachers. Additionally, examining the school context in which teachers work may also indicate the level to which it encourages and supports teachers in the demonstration of their beliefs about care. Further investigation in this area would be beneficial to understanding more about the development of caring teachers and the factors that sustain them once they are teaching.

3.1.3.5 Professional Identity

Beliefs about how teachers should care for their students are strongly associated with teachers’ professional identity according to Vogt (2002) and Shacklock (1998). The use of photographs of the English participants working with the pupils in their primary school classes \(n = 2\), as well as examination of the drawings of how each Swiss participant saw him or herself as a teacher \(n = 8\), contributed largely to understandings in the study about how professional identity, gender and the ethic of care were played out in the
classroom. The two English teachers (one male and one female) who viewed photographs of themselves teaching, revealed that there were feminine and masculine conceptions of their own identity, but when handling discipline both teachers demonstrated a non-gendered ethic of care. Through the use of the drawings it became clear that the Swiss teachers saw relationships at the heart of teaching. However, despite these findings about the ethic of care and teacher identity, little has been revealed as to how these identities have developed to become part of the way the teachers in this Swiss-English study view themselves.

More insight about the beliefs of caring teachers and how these have developed is important to knowing more about sustaining care in the classroom context. Whilst these studies have explored these understandings to a certain extent there is a need for more investigation into how the understandings and beliefs of identified caring teachers drive and sustain their practices with students. This much needed research will be of particular importance in the current educational context as more pressure and responsibility is placed on teachers, increasing their workload and reducing their time informally with students (Nias, 1999). The following section concerning factors that support and hinder caring teachers will provide some understanding of the ways in which teachers may respond to such pressures.

### 3.1.4 Factors That Support and Hinder Caring Practices

Research has demonstrated that there are many factors that may inhibit teachers’ willingness or ability to care for their students (Bosworth, 1995; Goldstein & Freedman, 2003; Hansen & Mulholland, 2005; O'Donoghue et al., 1994; Shacklock, 1998). These
studies have addressed most sectors of the educational system with research conducted in primary schools, middle schools, high schools and teacher education institutions, and three have been set within the Australian context. The results show that there are a number of factors within the school context that impact negatively on a teacher’s care. With far less frequency there has been some investigation undertaken into those factors that support teachers’ caring in a high school context (Schussler & Collins, 2006). Examining the factors that impact on caring practices is important in increasing caring opportunities for teachers. Both types of factors that emerged from the studies will be presented here.

3.1.4.1 Factors That Hinder Caring Practices

The negative factors impacting on caring are diverse and, in some cases, may pose serious threats to the practices of teachers in educational contexts. Most often, changes in workload or the nature of teachers’ work have resulted in reduced opportunities to care, but other studies have indicated that more unique factors in schools need to be considered.

Through observation of up to 300 middle school classrooms, Bosworth (1995) concluded that many interactions between students and between students and teachers were neutral and did not expressly demonstrate caring or not caring. She attributed this lack of caring practices to the structure of the school day which did not allow time for interpersonal interactions. Additionally, pressure on teachers to ensure students gained excellent scores in standardised testing had resulted in more traditional, lecture-style teaching methods and in teachers being a ‘disciplinarian’, Bosworth reported. These
teaching conditions reduced the time in which teachers could interact with their students informally which, as Bosworth stated earlier in the article, is paramount to building the relationships with students that are so fundamental to care.

Consistent with this, O'Donoghue et al. (1994) found that primary teachers were frustrated in their attempts to demonstrate care for their students due to systemic changes and school administration decisions that de-valued the place of care in teachers’ work. When educational systems imposed restructures and school administration insisted on implementation of new policies with little consideration of how these changes affected the ways in which teachers interacted with students, teachers felt disheartened in their attempts to place what they believed was important, namely caring for students, at the centre of their work.

Additionally, the expectation by others (not specified) that teachers should adopt the roles of nurse, counselor, mother and father without question and should be able to handle what these responsibilities brought, added further pressure to teachers resulting in the task of caring for students becoming a draining and exhausting activity. These barriers to sustained caring for students were significant in the working lives of these teachers in this Western Australian study.

Shacklock (1998) provided further insights into barriers to care resulting from imposed changes in the ways in which teachers are expected to work. A loss of enrolments at a high school in regional Australia forced the school administration to reduce budgets and staff whilst asking teachers to focus their energies on marketing the school in their community. Such an emphasis on marketing in the school reduced possibilities to demonstrate care for students in educational tasks. Interestingly,
Shacklock notes that for one teacher, despite the strain of managing these changes to the nature of her work, her ethic of care remained not only intact but was also extended as she took on the very responsibilities that increased her stress but allowed her to care for her students. The tensions between teacher identity in this case and contextual circumstance are interesting dilemmas with which teachers must grapple.

Caring for students in a tertiary context was explored by Goldstein and Freedman (2003) as they endeavoured to foster enquiry into pre-service teachers’ own understandings about care. As explained earlier, during their investigation into the negative and judgmental attitudes of some teacher education students towards their students’ parents which were contrary to the intentions of the unit, the authors found that sometimes their own actions as teachers had not authentically conveyed caring. They concluded that dialogue alone was not sufficient to teach about care but that caring needed to be sincerely modeled to all students. Furthermore, the use of e-journals (an electronic form of communication) between teacher and pre-service students may have been a barrier to understanding between parties and resulted in mixed messages, thus frustrating a true demonstration of care. Greater consideration needs to be given to the balance between dialogue about care and modeling its practice, as well as the way communication between teacher educators and the students is conducted.

The final study providing some insight into the types of hindrances teachers experience when demonstrating care was set within a primary school context and focused on male, beginning teachers and the ways in which they felt they were allowed to demonstrate care. Hansen and Mulholland (2005) noted that the participants in this study felt limited in the ways that they could legitimately demonstrate care to their students.
simply because of their gender. The beginning teachers felt that their “natural inclinations to be warm, compassionate and caring” (p. 129) were restricted by the contradictory messages they received from a wide range of others including colleagues, parents, educational authorities, and society in general.

In summary, these varied factors of work intensification, academic competition, school structures, and societal beliefs appeared to impact on teachers’ demonstration of care to their students. It is important to note that not all teachers were hindered to the extent that they stopped caring for the children or students. Their determination to be caring teachers, in some cases, seemed to drive their caring despite these factors. How and why this is so needs further exploration, but first it is worthwhile to review the one study that explored supportive factors of caring practices.

3.1.4.2 Factors That Support Caring Practices

Schussler and Collins (2006) found that school organisation positively affected caring in a high school context and identified this as a supportive factor of teacher caring. The study primarily gathered data from the student perspective concerning the factors that impacted upon caring practices. Students noted two key factors that were supportive: small numbers of students in classes and the school, and core values. These both will be explained further from the perspective of this study.

Students in the Schussler and Collins (2006) study commented that because Middle College was a small school catering only for students in years 10, 11 and 12 the possibilities for care were greater. Additionally, class sizes were kept relatively small (details regarding this were not provided) allowing for personal relationships. It is this
last aspect of personal relationships that Schussler and Collins concluded was the
good benefit to having a smaller school and classes. They state that small numbers
of students enabled conditions that were more conducive to learning and more personal in
nature. Earlier in the study, the role of personal relationships between all participants in
the school community was declared to be of the highest importance to caring practices,
and so it seems reasonable to assume that if a smaller school size and smaller classes
enables relationships to foster then it is a supportive factor to caring.

The second key factor found to be supportive to teachers in this study was core
values. Schussler and Collins (2006) explain that when the school’s ideologies align to a
caring ethos then structures of the school are more deliberately designed to encourage
caring in the whole school community. Middle College, it appeared, was a good example
of where the core values of the school played an important part in supporting caring
practices. Further explanation of this phenomenon was not explored leaving some
questions about how core values specifically drove the caring practices of the school.

The shortage of studies that explore supportive factors of care implies a need for
further research in this area. Additionally, empirical studies to date have focused on
those factors that have been imposed on teachers by educational authorities and/or society
and have not examined whether there are personal factors such as efficacy or collegial
support that may encourage or discourage teachers in their caring. Finally, ways in which
negative factors can be minimised and supportive factors can be enhanced are important
to encouraging caring practices and sustaining those teachers who demonstrate an ethic of
care to their students. These relatively unexplored areas of teacher caring need to be
researched further so that caring behaviours might be demonstrated by more teachers, more frequently, and more consistently.

3.2 Summary of the Research About Caring and Its Role in Education

The review of literature has shown that there have been significant contributions made to the understanding of care and its role in education. Theories developed by Mayeroff (1971), Gilligan (1982), Noddings (2003), and Fisher and Tronto (1990), which in some cases were accompanied by definitions of care and explanations of the process of care, provide firm foundations upon which to build empirical research. In particular, the logical and clear work of Noddings and her additional input into educational care has been the springboard from which many researchers have developed the rationale and argued the conclusions of their studies. However, the work of Mayeroff (1971) and especially Fisher and Tronto (1990) has been less acknowledged despite the ease with which they can also be applied to the classroom.

From a conceptual and empirical perspective, a somewhat discontinuous approach to examining care within the educational context has taken place but findings have reasonably been grouped together under (a) the demonstration of care from both teacher and student perceptions, (b) impact of care on both teachers and students, (c) ways in which teachers develop caring beliefs and capacities, and (d) hindering and supportive factors to teachers’ caring practices. The impact of care on students is particularly important as it serves as a rationale for the importance of this research in this area. If students benefit academically, emotionally and socially from working with caring teachers then it is an important construct to be examined within educational contexts.
The central question concerning how caring teachers can be developed and sustained is well worth exploring under this premise.

The other remaining areas of care that have been researched, however, have also shown that there are some deficits of understandings and findings. Examination of these aspects would further enhance knowledge about care and would be of benefit to the development and maintenance of teachers’ caring practices. Each of the knowledge shortfalls will be briefly identified in the following section.

### 3.2.1 Areas Needing Further Research

With the exception of two studies (Ellett et al., 1997; Wentzel, 1997) the methodological preference has been for qualitative approaches. Whilst this is not unreasonable given the nature of the inquiry into teacher care, present understandings would be enhanced if quantitative approaches were also used. The employment of scales, inventories and other measures may provide points of comparison between teacher groups, schools and other factors which may be helpful.

Additionally, there has been a lack of research in Australia and Europe concerning the construct of care in education. Whilst some Australian researchers have addressed the care construct quite specifically, the studies have focused upon rather unique contexts. As a result there are two particular questions in need of attention. Firstly, from a teacher’s perspective how do mainstream teachers in mainstream schools working with mainstream students demonstrate care? Secondly, what do Australian students think about the ways in which teachers demonstrate care? Exploration of these questions would further enhance understandings about how teachers can and do care for their students in an Australian
context. Moreover, in the empirical studies, teachers and students identified educational and personal care as two key dimensions in teacher caring that were underpinned by commitment and personal qualities. Is this true in contexts outside of North America? Are the same approaches to care identified by other teachers in other settings? This too is worthy of exploration.

The example of Goldstein, Freedman and Lake (Goldstein & Freedman, 2003; Goldstein & Lake, 1999, 2000, 2003) and McLaughlin (1991) demonstrated a systematic and thorough approach to examining the beliefs of beginning teachers concerning control and care. This highlights the need to turn our attention towards the more experienced teachers to see how they have resolved the apparent dichotomy between these two classroom factors. If there are indeed experienced teachers who are able to care for their classes in orderly classroom conditions, how do they accomplish this? The answers may lie in the personal biographies and capacities of teachers but to date there has been little to confirm or refute this.

Therefore, an investigation into factors both personal and contextual, for instance using the constructs of teacher efficacy and collective efficacy, may be helpful in determining how these factors influence not only the development of caring teachers but also their sustaining of caring practices once they have passed through the beginning phases of teaching. Furthermore, an investigation into the beliefs that teachers hold with regard to care generally and its role in the classroom will be paramount to understanding more about how to work with pre-service, beginning and experienced teachers. Discovering the influence of these factors will be crucial if teachers educators, school
executive staff and educational systems are to support teachers in their commitment to caring.

In addition, in some studies (Hansen & Mulholland, 2005; Shacklock, 1998) teachers persisted in their demonstration of care despite overwhelming pressures that may inhibit these behaviours. Why were these teachers persistent? What drives their beliefs about care in such a way that they sought to place extra pressure on themselves (Shacklock, 1998)? Or did they find other ways to demonstrate care that would be appropriate to their particular situation (Hansen & Mulholland, 2005)?

Finally, with only one study contributing to understandings about how caring practices may be supported in schools, and this from the student perspective the need to investigate further what teachers think with regard to this issue is important. Whilst Noddings (2003) asserts that reciprocation sustains the carer it would be of value to learn more about other factors that support caring given that Fisher and Tronto (1990) and Mayeroff (1971) do not agree that reciprocation is always likely or as critical.

The questions and issues that remain unexamined in the research on the caring practices of teachers have led to the formation of three research questions:

1. How do caring teachers demonstrate care?
2. What are the personal factors that contribute to a caring teacher’s approach?
3. What are the contextual factors that hinder and/or support a caring teacher’s approach?

These three questions will be investigated through the use of two frameworks which will be presented in the following section.
3.3 Frameworks For Exploratory Study About Caring Teachers

To advance understandings about caring teachers and how they develop and sustain caring practices, further exploration is needed. Two frameworks are proposed that will guide the research process and will assist discussion of the findings. The first framework draws upon the agreed view of teachers and students that educational and personal care are the two main approaches of caring.

3.3.1 Framework Illustrating the Demonstration of Care

The use of a matrix (Figure 3.1) where the X axis represents educational care and the Y axis represents personal care enables identification of the balance of caring practices for students in both educational and personal dimensions. Balance may not be critical, but it is anticipated that teachers may be identified within quadrants of the matrix giving some indication of their beliefs about how care is best demonstrated.

It is anticipated that the caring teachers would demonstrate both educational and personal care, and be represented in quadrant A – where high educational and personal care would be practised. Quadrant B represents those teachers whose emphasis on personal care is greater than their concern for the educational progress of their students. Quadrant C signifies those who have a low capacity and/or inclination to care for students personally or educationally, and Quadrant D represents those teachers who are primarily concerned for educational progress but fail to balance this concern with caring for students emotionally or socially. The teachers in Quadrant A, it is anticipated, would achieve the best outcomes with their students as they value the importance of both the educational and personal domains. It must also be noted that teachers within the course
of a day or even just a lesson may move within a quadrant or across into other quadrants depending on circumstance. Caring may not be a static state and therefore this will also need examination. The factors that may influence this movement have also been captured within a second framework to assist investigation.

Figure 3.1. Identification of caring approaches

3.3.2 Framework Illustrating Influencing Factors on Caring Practices

The framework outlined in Figure 3.2 brings together the factors that may enhance or detract teachers’ development of caring practices and their maintenance. Desirably, boosting factors that support practices of care and minimizing those that don’t will presumably be helpful in assisting teachers to stay within quadrant A (Figure 3.1) of the demonstration of care.
Several factors emerged from the research on care that appeared to contribute to a teacher’s demonstration of care to students. Firstly, teachers develop personal and collective capacity derived from the beliefs that teachers individually and collectively hold with regard to care, and the contextual factors such as school and system, and students that may influence their continuing to care. The framework will be explained further after Figure 3.2.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 3.2. Factors that may support and/or hinder teachers in the use of caring practices.**

On the left hand-side of the figure is capacity, the internal factors of a teacher, or in the case of a school staff, a group of teachers that will determine how they will behave towards their students. Capacity is formed from the beliefs and skills teachers hold about care and what it means to be a teacher. Both personal capacity (of individual teachers) and collective capacity (of a whole school staff) would be expected to impact upon the
ways in which teachers demonstrate caring practices. This capacity will either support and/or hinder or a caring teacher’s practices. In Figure 3.2 this impact is indicated by the arrow pointing to the box at the bottom – how the caring practices will be affected. On the right hand-side of the figure is context and two types of context have been identified here. Firstly, there is the context of the school and system - the culture, leadership and educational administration, and secondly the context of the students – the individual children and their response to the teacher. Both of these types of contexts will, it is anticipated, impact on the caring practices of the teacher as indicated by the arrow and the box at the bottom of the figure. Finally, the double-ended arrows across the middle of the figure suggest that there is an interactive relationship (a) between teachers and their colleagues, (b) between school and system and student contexts, and (c) between the internal (capacity) and external (context) factors of teaching.

Five separate studies will be conducted to explore the answers to the research questions and the methodological design based upon the frameworks. How these will be used in the studies will be explained in detail in chapter four: Research Design and Methodology. The results of each study will be presented accordingly in chapters five, six, seven, eight and nine respectively. Finally, chapter 10 will discuss the results, and conclusions and recommendations will be presented in chapter eleven.
4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research reviewed in chapter three indicated that students benefited educationally and personally when teachers cared for them (Collinson et al., 1998; Noblit et al., 1995; O'Donoghue et al., 1994; Schussler & Collins, 2006; Wentzel, 1997). It was also established that there are still a number of areas in need of research in the area of care in the educational context. Whilst all cannot be addressed in this study there are aspects of caring teachers and caring practices which can be further explored in an Australian context. As previously explained toward the end of chapter three, research questions have been formulated to guide the research and are as follows:

1. How do caring teachers demonstrate care?
2. What are the personal factors that contribute to a caring teacher’s approach?
3. What are the contextual factors that hinder and/or support a caring teacher’s approach?

These questions, the areas of research needed with regard to each, and the ways in which this research study furthers understandings will be explained in the following three sections.

4.1 Research Question One

Whilst there has been many studies that have contributed to understandings about the demonstration of care in North America it became clear in chapter three that there was some lack of data with regard to Australian educational settings. The focus of studies from parts of the world other than North America has been less concerned with the demonstration of care and more with the positioning of care as part of the way that they...
view teachers’ work (Collinson et al., 1998; Cooper, 2004; Nias, 1989; O’Donoghue et al., 1994; Shacklock, 1998; Vogt, 2002). In addition, the student perspective of caring practices was also less documented in Australia, United Kingdom and Europe. Further enquiry into how teachers demonstrate care in at least one of these locations may illustrate important differences and similarities with the Northern American work on care. This study is set in Australia and deliberately explores the practices of caring teachers from both a student and teacher perspective.

Furthermore, two of the Australian studies that focused specifically on care in the classroom both addressed demonstration of care in unique circumstances. Barber (2002) addressed care in a secondary school setting where students were disadvantaged; and Hansen and Mulholland (2005) examined how beginning, primary school, male teachers demonstrated care to their students without drawing criticism from colleagues, parents and the wider community. In response to the need for a broader focus, the present study addresses practices of caring teachers in schools where students are of mixed socio-economic backgrounds, and are taught by a range of teachers in a comprehensive high school.

Furthermore, the priorities of educational and personal care (see Table 3.1) as agreed upon by teachers and students in previous research, and the discrepancy concerning how both groups saw the importance of relationship also needs further investigation with particular reference to the first framework proposed (Figure 3.1), which identifies educational and personal care as the two key approaches to care. Do Australian teachers and students see that both educational care and personal care are important? Do they place one as a higher priority than the other? Where does the role of relationship fit for
Australian teachers and students? Using the matrix devised in chapter three (Figure 3.1) as a guide to understanding more about the priorities teachers give to the two dimensions of educational and personal care may illuminate what teachers consider to be the most important. These two dimensions of caring are explored qualitatively in this research with teachers through surveys (Studies One and Five), observations (Study Two) and interviews (Study Three) and quantitatively through a Student-Content Teaching Inventory (Spier, 1974) (Study One). Caring practices are also explored further in Study Four using group interviews with students. A brief explanation of the studies, the participants and the contribution each study makes to the research questions is given in Table 4.1 (p. 103). Further detail with regard to each study and the choice of research methods is provided in sections 4.5 to 4.9.

4.2 Research Question Two

In comparison to the demonstration of care, far less research concerning the personal factors that contribute to the development of a caring approach has been undertaken. There has been considerable investigation concerning pre-service and beginning teachers in terms of their understandings about care and control (Goldstein, 1999; Goldstein & Freedman, 2003; Goldstein & Lake, 2000, 2003; McLaughlin, 1991; Weinstein, 1998) but there has been limited exploration of older, more experienced teachers and their development of care. To address this deficit the present study chose to focus on teachers from a range of years’ teaching experience rather than a particular group such as beginning teachers or pre-service teachers. It was anticipated that this would illuminate
the ways in which teachers at different phases in their teaching career not only enacted care but also how their beliefs about caring practices may have changed over time.

Sixty primary teachers in Australia revealed that care was an important aspect of teaching (O'Donoghue et al., 1994) but there is little understanding about how caring teacher beliefs initially formed, with the exception of the Larson and Silverman (2005) study with physical education teachers and the study conducted by Ellett, Hill, Liu, Loup, and Lakshmanan (1997). The Ellett et al. study about the role of efficacy and human caring did not show how these beliefs affected caring practices. The present research study asks identified caring teachers about their beliefs concerning the development of their caring practices (see Study Three in Table 4.1 and the details in section 4.7). Furthermore, the use of a quantitative method such as the Student-Content Teaching Inventory (S-CTI) (Spier, 1974) and the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001b) has enabled some understanding of what and how beliefs about care influence the caring practices of teachers (see Study One in Table 4.1 and the details in section 4.5).

The debate concerning how males and females enact care has some significance for the personal factors that contribute to a teacher’s caring approach. The work of Gilligan (1982) and Noddings (1999; 2003) asserts that females, through their experience, are more likely to practice care than males. Does being female mean that caring for students is more likely? Do male and female teachers have different beliefs about care? The selection of the caring teachers for this study is explained later but it is relevant to mention now that the process of selection was not based upon gender. Instead participants were selected by peers based on what they observed of their colleagues.
thereby ensuring that the number of males and females involved in the study was not pre-determined. Use of the Student-Content Teaching Inventory (S-CTI) (Spier, 1974) and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001b) enabled quantitative comparisons between male and female beliefs and the relationship between these beliefs and care (see Study One in Table 4.1 and section 4.5).

4.3 Research Question Three

The final research question explores the contextual factors that impact on teachers’ caring practices. In chapter three, studies showed that reduced opportunities to work with students informally due to (a) increased teacher workload (Shacklock, 1998), (b) imposed restructuring due to new policies (O'Donoghue et al., 1994), (c) issues of the gender of the teacher (Hansen & Mulholland, 2005), (d) electronic methods of communication (Goldstein & Freedman, 2003), and (e) school structures allowing for little free time (Bosworth, 1995) had a negative impact on caring practices. In contrast, only one study found supportive factors such as smaller class sizes and school community values that were aligned with care (Schussler & Collins, 2006) and this perspective was provided by students. Further investigation of other supportive factors from a teacher perspective needs to be undertaken to enhance understandings in this area. This research specifically addresses this question with identified caring teachers (Study Three, section 4.7) and 20 of their colleagues (Study Five).

A study on teachers’ professionalism also showed that one teacher was persistent in her practices of care even when pressures were overwhelming (Shacklock, 1998). What personal or environmental factors enable a teacher to persevere when these difficulties
arise? What sustains teachers in their caring endeavours? Using a collective efficacy scale (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000), which is a relatively new construct, to determine how communal beliefs affect teachers will further enhance understandings of the role of other supportive factors not previously explored. Collective efficacy measures will allow an examination of what teachers believe may be achieved when working together as a group in contrast to what can be contributed personally. The framework (Figure 3.2) presented in chapter three showing the personal and contextual factors and how they may impact on care, will be investigated in Study Three (see Table 4.1 and for more detail section 4.7) from a caring teacher perspective. The personal and contextual factors will be further examined in Study Four (see Table 4.1 and for more detail section 4.8) from a student perspective, and in Study Five (see Table 4.1 and for more detail section 4.8) from a colleague teacher perspective.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Brief description</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Research question</th>
<th>Contribution to research questions</th>
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</table>
| 1     | Questionnaire (see appendix B) containing demographic questions, open-ended questions, a rating scale and an inventory | Teaching staff from three co-educational secondary schools (215 teachers in total) | • Demographic questions about participants  
• Open-ended questions regarding perceptions of caring teachers  
• Student-Content Teaching Inventory (S-CTI) (Spier, 1974)  
• Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, | 1 | How do caring teachers demonstrate care?  
• Open-ended questions provided staff with the opportunity to describe caring teachers, to reflect on the model (Figure 3.1) proposed in the literature review and to state their opinion regarding the importance of caring teachers.  
| 2 | What are the personal factors that contribute to a caring teacher’s approach?  
• Demographic information including gender, years of experience as well as subjects taught were designed to compare similarities and differences between the teachers in Study One.  
• The S-CTI was selected so that student orientation and content orientation scores could be calculated for each teacher and then compared.  
• The TSES was selected to discern the individual teacher’s efficacy score for teaching as well as for the sub-factors of engagement, instruction and management. |
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<td>1</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>What are the contextual factors that hinder and/or support a caring teacher’s approach?</td>
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<td>- The open-ended questions and the scores of the S-CTI and TSES were compared on a school-by-school basis to determine if differences could be attributed to context.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Observation of peer-nominated caring teachers</td>
<td>10 teachers (a subset of the teachers who participated in Study One) across the three schools</td>
<td>Checklist developed based upon literature review with room to add other caring practices as they were observed (see appendix C)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>How do caring teachers demonstrate care?</td>
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<td>- Observations of caring teachers were documented against a caring practices checklist derived from literature to determine the particular behaviours the nominated teachers showed as they cared for students. Additional behaviours were also recorded.</td>
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</table>
| 3     | Interviews with peer nominated caring teachers | 10 teachers across the three schools (identified in Study One for this and Study Two) | - Questions in a standardised open-ended interview (see appendix D)  
- A Collective Teacher Efficacy (CTE) scale was administered (see appendix E) | 1 | How do caring teachers demonstrate care? |
<p>|       |                  |              |            |                  | - Teachers were asked about how they demonstrate care and their perceptions about how other teachers may also do this. |
|       |                  |              |            |                  | What are the personal factors that contribute to a caring teacher’s approach? |
|       |                  |              |            |                  | - Teachers were asked to comment on their own beliefs about caring and why they believed they demonstrated a capacity to care. |</p>
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<td>- Teachers were asked about the factors that may hinder and/or support their capacity or demonstration of care.</td>
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<td>- The CTE scale provided information regarding the caring teachers’ perceptions of their staff’s abilities.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>How do caring teachers demonstrate care?</td>
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<td>- Students were asked about how teachers demonstrate care and how they perceive ways in which other teachers may not demonstrate care.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Group interview of students discussing caring teachers and teachers who did not seem to care</td>
<td>Six groups of students from the three schools – three groups of years seven to nine students and three groups of years 10 and 11 students. Permission notes were distributed to 420 students. 33 students were interviewed.</td>
<td>Questions in a standardised open-ended group interview (see appendix F)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>What are the personal factors that contribute to a caring teacher’s approach?</td>
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<td>- Students were asked to comment on their own beliefs about caring and why they think some teachers demonstrate a capacity to care for students.</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>What are the contextual factors that hinder and/or support a caring teacher’s approach?</td>
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| 5     | A questionnaire was distributed to two close colleagues of each of the 10 peer nominated caring teachers. | 20 colleagues were invited to participate in the questionnaire. 12 teachers responded. | • The CTE scale was administered as part of the questionnaire to colleague teachers (see appendix G) as well as to the 10 nominated teachers.  
• Open-ended questions were asked of the colleagues only. | 1 | How do caring teachers demonstrate care?  
• Colleagues were asked about the caring practices of the staff member who selected them as a close colleague. |
|       |                                                                                  |                                                                              |                                                                                                | 3 | What are the contextual factors that hinder and/or support a caring teacher’s approach?  
• Colleagues were asked about the factors they perceived hindered their colleague’s demonstration of care.  
• Colleagues were asked about the factors they perceived supported their colleague’s demonstration of care.  
• The collective efficacy scale also provided data when the mean of each school was compared. |
To ensure that the investigation into caring teachers and their practices is reliable and valid, a number of choices were made to enhance the research design. A mixed method approach combining both (a) qualitative and quantitative methods, (b) three secondary schools of similar student and teacher population, and (c) perspectives from multiple groups of participants using multiple methods were selected for a number of reasons. The details of the research decisions will be explained in the next section.

4.4 The Research Design

Five studies were conducted to explore the questions selected for research. These five studies involved teachers from three secondary, co-educational Catholic schools (see Table 4.1 for details regarding their involvement). The rationale for the selection of schools is explained further in section 4.4.2 – Selection of Schools. The participants ranged from the whole school teaching staff, a sub-set of identified caring teachers, randomly selected students from years 7 to 11, and selected colleagues of the identified caring teachers. The reasons for the research design decisions will now be explained further.

4.4.1 A Mixed Method Approach

The review of the literature showed that the preferred option of research method when examining the construct of caring in an educational context has been primarily qualitative rather than quantitative (see chapter three). The reasons given for such a choice have been concerned with (a) in-depth data collection (Acker & Feuerverger, 1996); (b) context-specific settings for research (Alder, 2002); (c) consideration for the experiences from the participants’ perspectives (Ferreira & Bosworth, 2000; Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001; Goldstein, 1998); and (d) free
expression of ideas, thoughts and/or concepts (Hansen & Mulholland, 2005; McLaughlin, 1991; O'Donoghue et al., 1994; Shacklock, 1998). Only two studies have been conducted that involved quantitative research these being those of Wentzel (1997) and Ellett et al. (1997). In both studies scales and measures of a great variety were used and statistical tests were performed to show correlations and significant relations between groups of teachers (Ellett et al., 1997) and students (Wentzel, 1997). The Wentzel study also gave participants the opportunity to comment in an open-ended section, providing some qualitative data. Neither Ellett et al. or Wentzel provided a rationale for their selection of methodology.

There is merit however, in using a mixed method approach to draw as much information as is possible from the participants. By using scales or inventories and then giving the opportunity to discuss the scores and their meanings participants will have the opportunity to deepen the researchers’ understanding of their quantitative responses. This study involves slightly more qualitative than quantitative data collection and analysis (called QUAL-Quan) (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006) to gain an in-depth understanding, and takes advantage of the strengths of both methods whilst minimizing the weaknesses (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). The qualitative methods include open-ended questions in surveys, observations, interviews, and group interviews. The quantitative methods include a (a) Student-Content Teaching Inventory (Spier, 1974), (b) a Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001b), and (c) demographic questions that enable comparisons between sub-groups of teachers according to gender, years of teaching experience, and subjects taught.
4.4.2 Selection of Schools

The research about caring in education has been undertaken in a range of schooling phases. The majority of studies that focused upon teacher perspectives were conducted in primary schools and teacher education institutions; several were conducted in high schools and only one in a middle school. However, from a student perspective the majority of studies were conducted in middle schools with another two positioned in primary and three others in secondary schools. As far as the Australian context is concerned two studies were secondary focused and two were primary but none of these garnered opinions from students. Secondary schools had been somewhat less studied for understandings about caring practices. Given that of the three studies concerning student perspectives only one may have utilised the full range of ages in a high school (the methodology remains unclear on this point) it was considered useful to position a study across the entire high school context.

The choice to conduct the studies within the Catholic sector was prompted by a recent longitudinal study of engagement of students with Australian schools (Fullarton, 2002). One of the reports that emerged from the study reported that students in independent schools were more engaged than students in Catholic schools, who in turn, were more engaged than students in government schools. This placed the Catholic sector in the ‘middle ground’ which, it was anticipated, would assist with drawing conclusions based upon average schools rather than either end of the student engagement spectrum. Therefore, this research study uses students from years 7 to 12 from three secondary, co-educational Catholic schools to reflect these needs.

Furthermore, the requirement for a study using mainstream teachers and students, rather than a unique setting as argued earlier, means that the selection of schools chosen for participation was open to non-specialist high schools that were part of a generic educational system in the
urban setting of Sydney. Placing the study within the Catholic context enhanced the possibilities of examining if and how core values may support caring practices (see Schussler & Collins, 2006).

The similarities between the schools’ general characteristics meant that conclusions drawn regarding the environmental and personal factors influencing practices could be more easily identified (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Caldwell and Sholtis (2008) have already conducted a study involving four schools from urban, parochial, suburban and vocational settings to compare how these factors affect demonstration of care.

More than one school was selected for three reasons: (a) the only Australian studies on caring conducted in secondary schools have only focused on a single school, (b) school factors such as collective efficacy and structures could be compared with responses from teachers about factors that assist and hinder their care, and (c) results although still exploratory may indicate where further investigation could result in generalised conclusions (Merriam, 1998). The participation of the staff and students at three schools will clarify commonalities and differences that may be useful to understanding more about caring.

4.4.3 Validity

In the research design there have been a number of decisions made that will enhance the validity of the study. Internal validity has been supported through data triangulation and methodological triangulation (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Hutchinson, 1988; Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Stake, 1995). Identified caring teachers, colleagues of the caring teachers, and students at the schools were asked to comment on issues concerned with the three research questions. In this way, similarities of experiences and opinions as well as discrepancies can be
more clearly identified and validated. Using different methods of collecting information from participants, for example, surveys, interviews, group interviews, and scales also enhanced methodological triangulation. Results that consistently emerged from the different participants and methods would assist in reducing bias. External validity is increased through using a multi-site context for investigation and by ensuring that there are core similarities between these schools contextually thus rendering possibilities for generalizations (Merriam, 1998). Further explanation of the purpose, design, sample, measures, procedure and analysis will be given for each study in sections 4.5 to 4.9

4.5 Study One

4.5.1 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of Study One was threefold. Firstly, Study One was designed to gain a perspective of what current teachers in Australian, Catholic co-educational secondary schools believed about caring teachers, the importance of caring teachers and their practices, and the two key dimensions of care identified from the literature in chapter two. Secondly, this research was designed to explore whether personal factors such as gender, years of experience, subjects taught, orientation to content and students, and teacher efficacy held an association with these beliefs. Thirdly, it was anticipated that Study One would give teachers the opportunity, based upon the matrix (see Figure 3.1) of caring teachers that had been derived from the literature, to nominate up to five colleagues who they believed were caring teachers. These nominations would assist in the determination of participants for Studies Two and Three.
4.5.2 Methodological Design

A questionnaire was selected as an appropriate tool for gathering the data required from this group of participants (see appendix B for the questionnaire) given the reasonably large number of participants and the intention to use a rating scale and an inventory (Cohen et al., 2007). Additionally, using a questionnaire enabled all participants to answer questions worded in exactly the same way under the same conditions, thus increasing the potential for reliability (Burns, 1997). With such a large number of participants, coding would be made easier by using a scale and inventory and therefore would achieve greater uniformity of measurement (Burns, 1997).

The questionnaire contained demographic questions about the participants; open-ended questions concerning the definition of a caring teacher, the importance of caring teachers, and confirmation of the educational care/personal care model derived from the literature (see chapter three); and an opportunity to nominate up to five colleagues as caring teachers. The questionnaire also consisted of an inventory which examined a teacher’s orientation to subject content and to students, and a teacher efficacy scale. Using a combination of closed and open ended questions meant that both qualitative and quantitative methodologies were used, thus increasing the validity of the study (Judd, Smith, & Kidder, 1991). Further information regarding these two measures may be found in section 4.5.4.

To ensure that the questions asked and the instructions given were clear (Johnson & Christensen, 2004) two teachers (known to the researcher), who exhibited caring teacher attitudes from schools other than the three selected, were asked to pilot the questionnaire. The participants in the pilot were asked to comment upon the presentation of the questionnaire in terms of font, and spacing and clarity of instructions, for as Cohen et al. (2007) state “the
appearance of the questionnaire is vitally important. It must look easy, attractive and interesting rather than complicated, unclear, forbidding and boring” (p. 338). The participants in the pilot study also listened to the verbal instructions that would be given verbatim at each staff meeting. The result of the pilot was that suggestions were made with regard to the numbering system that had been used for the inventory as well as the inclusion of written instructions for the inventory rather than just verbal instructions at the beginning. Furthermore, the recommendation was also made that staff should be reminded that they need not feel pressured to nominate five caring teachers as ‘up to five’ was quite adequate. The following sections will explain the sample, measures, procedure and analysis of Study One.

4.5.3 Sample

It was intended that Study One would be conducted at staff meetings for each of the three schools to maximise participation and return rates from the teaching staff (Cohen et al., 2007). Maximum involvement from all teachers would also provide a range of teaching staff varying in years of teaching experience, gender, and the subjects they taught. The maximum teaching staff available for this study was 215 but it was anticipated that some staff might not respond (a) as a result of personal choice, (b) because they were not at the staff meeting due to after school duties, (c) because they worked part-time, or (d) were absent due to ill-health or professional development. Extra questionnaires and return envelopes were left at the school office for any staff wishing to participate but who were not present on the day.
4.5.4 Measures

The questionnaire (see appendix B) began with the following personal information: name, gender, number of years teaching in secondary schools, number of years teaching in this school, and subjects taught. Commencing with unthreatening factual questions was a suggestion made by Cohen et al. (2007) to encourage and relax participants. Following this, the questionnaire was divided into three sections.

Section one asked teachers to (a) define the term ‘caring teacher’, (b) decide whether he/she believed that caring teachers were important, (c) respond to the two dimensional model of caring teachers presented in chapter three (Figure 3.1), and (d) nominate five teachers currently teaching on staff who matched the model of caring teachers proposed. While the sequencing recommendations of Cohen et al. (2007) and Judd et al. (1991) suggest that it is easier for participants to proceed into sections containing closed-ended questions first, concern about creating a mindset for teachers with regard to what was expected of them in their beliefs about caring and teaching was considered important. Hence, the questionnaire commenced with the open-ended questions to gain unbiased opinions, after which the following two sections requiring teachers to complete firstly, an inventory and secondly, a rating scale meant that the less difficult task of responding to pre-determined categories was towards the end of the questionnaire.

4.5.4.1 Student-Content Teaching Inventory

Section two utilised the Student-Content Teaching Inventory (S-CTI) (Spier, 1974) (original version may be found in appendix H). This inventory assesses a teacher’s student orientation and content orientation in their work as a teacher. It is based upon the Managerial Grid of Blake and Mouton (1964) which has been extensively tested and utilised over a period of 25 years. A
search was undertaken for reports of psychometrical properties for the S-CTI but none have been established. The nature of the forced choices between only two options per item means that psychometric testing has not been carried out in this research.

The similarity between student/content orientation from the Spier’s inventory and personal/educational orientation from the matrix proposed in chapter three made using this published inventory an appropriate tool for measuring teachers’ orientation to the students and their work.

The inventory requests that respondents select the ‘more important’ task from 40 sets of paired items. The first set of 20 questions was tallied to produce a score out of 20 representing student orientation. Spier explains that “student orientation items allow a teacher to choose between attitudes and behaviours reflecting an emphasis on sharing versus emphasis on personally retaining classroom authority” (Spier, 1974 p. 113) An example of one of the questions in this section is: Which is more important for a teacher?

a) To take an interest in the student as a person or

b) To make it clear that the teacher is an authority in the classroom.

The second set of 20 questions produces a content orientation score, also out of 20. “Content orientation items allowed a teacher to choose between attitudes and behaviours reflecting emphasis on job activities versus emphasis on role attributes” notes Spier (1974 p. 113). An example of one of the questions in this section is: Which is more important for a teacher?

a) To be an authority on class materials covered or

b) To keep up to date in the field.

The inventory took about fifteen minutes to complete and consisted of two of the four pages in the questionnaire.
Section three utilised The Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale – short form (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001b) (original version may be found in appendix I). This 12-item scale assesses teachers’ perceptions of how much he/she can do to improve student learning. The 12 items covered three domains: (a) instructional strategies, (b) student engagement, and (c) classroom management. This information would be used to determine the beliefs that may contribute to a teacher’s capacity to care.

Selecting a scale appropriate for this study required examining the differing scales available. As the significance of school factors within this multi-site study was considered important, it was necessary to find a teacher efficacy scale that would measure both assessment of personal competence as well as analysis of the task from the perspective of resources and constraints from particular teaching contexts (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). The inclusion of both dimensions of efficacy is not found in most measures (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001a) and so for this reason, because it attended to both, the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (OSTES) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001a) was selected. This was later re-named the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) by the developers and from here on will be referred to by this latter title.

The advantages of using such a scale, according to Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001a), are listed as follows: (a) items listed in the scale are representative of activities within a teacher’s work life, unlike Bandura’s teacher efficacy scale (undated); (b) it consisted of three factors - student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management for which scores could be calculated; (c) a nine point Likert-type scale could be used with both a long (24
items) or short form (12 items); (d) it had been extensively tested with both pre-service and inservice teachers and found to be both reliable and valid; and (e) positive correlations with other measures of personal teaching efficacy provided evidence for construct validity.

In summary, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy state: “It is superior to previous measures of teacher efficacy in that it has a unified and stable factor structure and assesses a broad range of capabilities that teachers consider important to good teaching, without being so specific as to render it useless for comparisons of teachers across contexts, levels and subjects” (2001a pp. 801-802). Such a scale was appropriate for a multi-site study where teachers of varying years of teaching experience, gender and subjects taught were being compared from three different schools.

4.5.5 Procedure

Each of the three schools made available twenty minutes at a mid-year, whole school staff meeting. The briefing at the beginning of the staff meeting informed the staff about the purpose and rationale of the study, as well as the purpose and structure of each of the three sections of the questionnaire. Both verbal instructions given at the staff meeting and written instructions on the questionnaire were previously piloted with teachers in similar suburban, secondary schools and modified to ensure clarity and to minimise misunderstanding (see section 4.5.2). Information letters were distributed to staff to read, and consent forms were completed and returned. It was also stressed to the teachers that although there was space to write the names of five colleagues they considered to be caring teachers the instructions, asked for ‘up to five’, and so they should feel no obligation to fill all the spaces. Confidentiality of each teacher and school was assured despite the fact that the questionnaire was not anonymous.
The questionnaires were distributed to all staff present, and extras were left at the school with stamped self-addressed envelopes for any staff members who were not at the meeting and wished to complete the questionnaire.

4.5.6 Analysis

The data derived from Study One were analysed using two different methods: quantitative and qualitative analysis, thus improving the quality of the research (Johnson & Christensen, 2004) and maintaining integrity with the mixed method approach. Demographic information and the scores from each question in the Student-Content Teaching Inventory (S-CTI) and each statement in the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) were entered into SPSS (version 11). Scores were calculated for each teacher from the S-CTI according to his/her student and content orientations. A mean was also calculated for each teacher’s overall efficacy and for the sub-factors of engagement, instruction and management. Scores and means were compared with demographic factors to determine if there were any significant associations.

Responses to the open-ended questions were reduced and then coded into broad categories (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Johnson & Christensen, 2004). The process of data reduction was seen to be important in sharpening, focusing and organizing the information provided by participants so that conclusions could be drawn (Miles & Huberman, 1994). A colleague was provided with the derived categories and asked to code the data (Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Merriam, 1998) to assist with the validity. The result was that there was 78% agreement with the categories. In this peer testing of the categories, the second two thirds of the data appeared to be coded more consistently in agreement with the designated categories than the first third. This would suggest that as the colleague read more responses from staff the categories became clearer.
Data from the quantitative and qualitative analysis were then compared to discover any similarities or differences in beliefs and attitudes between teachers of differing demographic backgrounds, or between teachers with different scores in the S-CTI or TSES.

The nominations given by the teaching staff from each school were tallied and the three teachers receiving the most number of votes within each school were asked to participate in Studies Two and Three. In one school, two teachers were equal in the number of votes and so both were invited to participate resulting in four teachers from that school. In total, 10 teachers were selected from Study One to participate in Studies Two and Three.

4.6 Study Two

4.6.1 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of Study Two was threefold. The first purpose was to confirm that, according to the literature, the 10 nominated teachers possessed the behaviours expected of caring teachers. This was important for two reasons: firstly, as has been noted before, there have been far fewer studies conducted that have focused on the demonstration of care of Australian teachers, and secondly, the model of educational and personal caring presented in chapter three (Figure 3.1) needed to be confirmed as a reasonable representation of caring teacher behaviour. The second purpose was to identify possible other caring practices demonstrated by the teachers that had not been documented in literature before. The third purpose was to provide information about the context of the classes and school within which the teacher worked so that the researcher had some understanding of these when interviewing in Study Three.
4.6.2 Methodological Design

A full day of observation was necessary to be able to see each of the teachers work with classes of different ages and sometimes different subject areas. Other duties such as coordination and home room teacher responsibilities provided a more complete account of the duties, tasks and roles required of each of the teachers in a typical school day. The record of observed behaviours displayed by each teacher would give opportunity for discussion and reflection in the interview about the types of decisions and beliefs that underpin such practices.

Confirming the choices of the staff from each school was an important process as it provided a “reality check” (Cohen et al., 2007 p. 396) of caring teacher behaviours. It also afforded the opportunity to see the teachers “in situ rather than relying on second-hand accounts” (Cohen et al., 2007 p. 396) from the nominated teachers. A checklist was devised, based upon the literature (see appendix C), to increase reliability and consistency between schools and individual teachers (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). The use of a checklist could classify this observation as highly structured (Cohen et al., 2007) however, the opportunity to add more caring behaviours and practices as they arose meant that it contained some flexibility within its scope not usually found in structured observations. Further details regarding how the checklist was constructed and upon what basis is given in section 4.6.4.

4.6.3 Sample

As explained in section 4.5.6, 10 teachers were selected from across the three schools through a process of peer nomination in Study One. This is an example of criterion sampling (Gay et al., 2006) and allowed the researcher to study the phenomenon from the viewpoint of people who were experts in the subject according to their colleagues.
The 10 caring teachers taught across a variety of subject areas and were of differing levels of experience as teachers. There were three males and seven females. They had all taught students from years 7 through to 12 in the year that the research took place or in recent years, and 7 of the 10 held a position of coordinator of either a year group or subject area.

4.6.4 Measures

The checklist devised for the purpose of Study Two was divided into two sections: a list of behaviours demonstrating educational care, and a list of behaviours demonstrating personal care of the students. This was consistent with the model of care as presented in chapter three (Figure 3.1). As teachers demonstrated these behaviours the practices were checked off against the list, confirming that there was evidence of the behaviour at least once. Where a teacher demonstrated a practice of care frequently several ticks were placed alongside the behaviour to indicate the strength of this particular approach. Space was also provided on the checklist to add other caring behaviours which emerged from the observations.

4.6.5 Procedure

The three to four most nominated teachers from each school were contacted by phone and asked if they would be willing to participate in Studies Two and Three. The intended participants were enthusiastic about being part of the research into caring teachers and responded positively. A day for observation was selected for each teacher that would maximise the variety of classes that they taught as well as provide an opportunity for an hour long interview towards the end of the day.
The observation day for each teacher began at the commencement of classes or duties and all teaching activities were observed. This included: (a) roll call (or in some schools called home room); (b) year assemblies; (c) normal lessons; (d) playground duties; (e) sport; and in one instance, (f) a personal interview with a student about misbehaviour. The researcher did not participate in lessons and unobtrusively sat at the back of the room observing all interactions. In most cases, the researcher was introduced to each of the classes as a matter of courtesy so the students were aware that someone was observing their class (Cohen et al., 2007). They were not told why the class was being observed.

It is possible that the presence of the researcher may have impacted upon the behaviour of the teachers and/or classes, for as Cohen et al. note “participants may change their behaviour when they know they are being observed” (2007 p. 410) but students did not remark on any differences in the way that the teachers behaved towards them.

4.6.6 Analysis

Checklist data and additional caring practices were analysed in a similar manner. The checklist showed caring practices that were categorised as educationally caring and personally caring according to Figure 3.1. The practices belonging to each caring dimension were recorded, and not only were frequencies given as a means of determining the educational and personal behaviours that were most prominent but each teacher was checked to see that they demonstrated comprehensively both dimensions of care.

Further caring practices were categorised according to the two dimensions of care as well. These were tallied in a similar manner to the first two sections of the checklist according to frequency to determine which caring practices were most prominent.
4.7 Study Three

4.7.1 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of Study Three was to: (a) gain an in-depth understanding of the personal factors that contributed to the caring teacher’s approach and the ways in which caring teachers believed they demonstrated care; (b) clarify, review and discuss their responses to the S-CTI and TSES and the observation tallies; (c) investigate the factors that impacted on their caring practices both positively and negatively; (d) gain suggestions as to ways that teachers could be encouraged to care; and (e) collect data about collective efficacy for Study Five.

4.7.2 Methodological Design

Interviews enable descriptive data to be gathered “in the subjects’ own words so that the researcher can develop insights on how subjects interpret some piece of the world” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007 p. 103). Kelchtermans and Vandenberghe (1994) support the view that hearing teachers talk of concrete incidents in their experience also provides relevant information concerning the environment in which they work, and the ways in which they construct meaning. Interviews are also considered to be best practice in qualitative research as they allow the unique stories of each participant to emerge (Stake, 1995). Hence, using interviews as the tool for gathering so much data about the world of the caring teacher was a logical choice. In particular, using a standardised open-ended interview, where the exact wording and sequencing were determined in advance (Cohen et al., 2007), was an important selection of method when analysis needed to focus on comparing answers of respondents. It also meant that no areas that were
neglected with participants. However, the use of probing was a technique used to gain clarification and meaning when needed (Judd et al., 1991).

The flexibility of the interview, where not only the spoken word but also non-verbal indicators could be recorded as data, was another advantage of this data gathering tool (Cohen et al., 2007). It also allowed the participants to move into areas important to them or to explain reasoning behind their answers and decisions (Burns, 1997). Therefore, whilst the researcher’s own expectations were met through the standardised procedure of scripted questions aligning to the research questions, other unanticipated points and areas could also be explored (Measor, 1985).

The opportunity to discuss the Student-Content Teaching Inventory (S-CTI), the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), and observation data was possible in the interview session and enabled clarification and checking of the data. This was a helpful technique in terms of enhancing validity (Merriam, 1998; Wolcott, 1990). Further detail, as to the types of questions and the way in which they were sequenced are given in section 4.7.4.

Teachers were also asked to complete the 21-item Collective Teaching Efficacy scale developed by Goddard, Hoy and Woolfolk Hoy (2000) at the beginning of the interview. The placement of this at the beginning of the interview may have encouraged the teachers to relax as they were simply required to choose a pre-determined response to match a number of statements rather than beginning with open-ended questions (Cohen et al., 2007). See section 4.7.4 for more detail concerning the scale.

The interview schedule was piloted by the same two teachers who completed the pilot in Study One to enhance clarity of meaning (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). They contributed suggestions with regard to the manner in which the interview was conducted, encouraging the
interviewer to allow the participant to search for words themselves rather than assist them. This had improved by the second pilot and consequently with each of the 10 caring teachers.

4.7.3 Sample

The 10 teachers who participated in this study were the same teachers who had been observed in Study Two and peer nominated in Study One.

4.7.4 Measures

The planned questions in the standardised open-ended interview (see appendix D for the question schedule) were designed to range from those that allowed the teachers to recall events and experiences from their own childhood and teacher training to those that required them to conjecture about the reasons why some teachers choose to be more caring than others, and how caring teachers could be developed. Questions were sequenced in such a way that teachers were asked to comment on subjects and practices of the present, then to reflect on the past before returning to more complex issues concerned with the present. This eased the participants’ task in answering the questions (Judd et al., 1991) as they were able to deal more effectively with subjects and happenings of the here and now before moving into more potentially emotive issues of their past. Then later, possibly feeling more relaxed, would be able to explore more complex issues. Questions were also grouped together under research questions and verbal transition statements, for example, “we are now going to talk about the personal experience and beliefs you think have contributed in making you the sort of person that you are”, were used to assist participants in moving into the next topic area (Judd et al., 1991).
Whilst the researcher was getting set up with audio recording equipment for the interview, the interviewee completed the 21 CTE scale developed by Goddard, Hoy and Woolfolk Hoy (2000) (original version may be found in appendix J). The purpose was to examine any differences in efficacy beliefs between the nominated caring teachers and their colleagues in Study Five.

The 21 items were phrased both negatively and positively and participants were asked to rate these on a six point Likert scale. Collective efficacy includes two conceptually different factors according to Goddard (2002): group-teaching competence – “judgments about the capabilities that a faculty brings to a given teaching situation”; and task analysis – “the perceptions of the constraints and opportunities inherent in the task at hand” (p. 100). The long form utilised more group-teaching competence items than task analysis items unlike the short form that equally balances them both. For this reason the long form was the preferred measure for this study on caring teachers as it was anticipated that it may more clearly indicate where school context played a part in factors impacting upon caring teachers’ demonstration of care.

4.7.5 Procedure

When the 10 peer nominated teachers were asked to participate in the research they were also asked specifically if they would agree to an hour-long interview that would be audio-taped. When the day of observations (Study Two) and interviews for each teacher arrived, the information letter was read by the participant and the consent forms were signed for both studies. The interview was conducted towards the end of the observation day for each teacher. The advantage of placing the interview towards the end of the day was that observations could be discussed, and also a rapport between researcher and participant may have developed making the
interview more “like a conversation between friends” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007 p. 103). There were twenty-five questions planned and the majority of the interviews took approximately 55 minutes to complete, ensuring that participants were not fatigued by the length (Cohen et al., 2007). Question nineteen: “What about individual students and/or classes?” was asked of the first participant but the lack of reference to the factor being addressed in this question made it difficult to answer and so it was abandoned for the remainder of the interviews.

The interviews usually took place in an interview room that was set aside in the school for the purposes of teachers talking with parents and students about confidential matters. Three interviews from one school took place in the personal offices of the three staff involved. All interviews were audio-taped and later transcribed for analysis.

4.7.6 Analysis

Each transcript was read through and checked against the audio-tapes for any mistakes and to add voice inflections and other important notes remembered from the interviews. The transcripts were read through again to enable an overall picture of each teacher and the main points and issues that arose throughout the course of each of the interviews were noted. The transcripts were then coded using content analysis to determine key categories and themes (Burns, 1997; Miles & Huberman, 1994) and these were clustered together with relations between these clusters recorded. Categories were modified and re-tested throughout the process to ensure consistency and validity (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Decisions were made as to what data was useful for answering the research questions designed for the study. Other data that was unanticipated yet seemed to be an important perspective not specifically related to the research questions were also noted and kept.
4.8 Study Four

4.8.1 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of Study Four was to gain the student perspective of how teachers demonstrated care and what would encourage teachers to be more caring. Furthermore, students in the group interview were asked to identify the capacities caring teachers bring to the classroom. Gaining the student perspective in a secondary, Australian setting is important to understanding more about care outside of North America.

4.8.2 Methodological Design

Gathering the opinions and beliefs of students resulted in another source other than the teachers of the schools and so enhanced the validity of the study through data source triangulation (Hutchinson, 1988; Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995). Group interviews of four to six participants was the chosen method for this study as it was anticipated that responses would be of greater detail and depth than if using a questionnaire and response rates may be higher (Burns, 1997). Additionally, where clarification of an issue was needed a discussion between participants facilitated this possibility (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Cohen et al., 2007). It was anticipated that a group interview might also make students feel more comfortable to speak because they were amongst others that they knew rather than being in a one-to-one situation with an adult interviewer (Cohen et al., 2007).

The groups were divided into two age groups so that awkwardness or embarrassment might be minimised when younger students wanted to speak up in front of older students. Using a group interview also meant that when one student put forward an idea or opinion it would act as
a stimulant to other students who may not have previously considered what had been contributed (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

As with the interviews with the 10 caring teachers, the approach used was a standardised open-ended interview. This approach ensured consistency across all six groups in terms of the wording and sequencing of all questions, and consequently enabled comparative analysis (Cohen et al., 2007).

To check that wording was clear and that types of responses made by students were as expected, it was necessary to run a group interview session as a pilot. Students from years 11 and 12 who were not involved with the study and attended a variety of schools were asked for their feedback at the conclusion of the group interview. They identified questions that they found to be repetitive and worded badly. These were adjusted before the first group interviews in Study Four.

4.8.3 Sample

Across the three schools there were six group interviews. For each school there was one group interview for the older students in years 10 and 11 and one for the younger students in years 7 through 9. Year 12 students had completed their studies for the year and were no longer attending school at the time of the study. Students were selected at random by handing out information letters and consent forms to one roll call class in each year group. The first two students per year group who returned their forms to the year coordinator would be the students involved in the group interview. The students were encouraged to return their forms quickly by the promise of a pizza lunch. This may have resulted in the more organised students being the ones who returned notes first or it may equally have been those students who wished most to eat
pizza and sit in an air-conditioned room. Either way the sample was not selected on the basis of behaviour or academic achievement.

4.8.4 Measures

The group interview questions (see appendix F) were designed to elicit responses from students regarding their opinions and beliefs about teachers and the ways in which teachers interacted and worked with their students.

Many of the questions were designed so that students could talk about both the positive and negative scenario. For example, the second question asked students to talk about a particular teacher that they believed was caring. Then the students were asked to talk about a particular teacher that they believed was not caring. This technique was used to assist students who may have been struggling to think of an example for ‘one side of the coin’ but may have been able to do so for the ‘flipside’. It was anticipated that such a technique might relax participants when they realised that they could contribute something to the discussion, and may have also acted as a stimulator for thinking of relevant points or stories. Students were reminded not to use any teachers’ names in their discussions about teachers and how they work with students.

The planned questions for the group interview also contained two questions that required every student to provide a response. One question asked for a simple yes or no answer about whether they believed caring teachers did exist and the other required them to select a number on a scale from one through to 10 about the importance of care to students. The scale was accompanied by a description of ‘one’ being not important at all and ‘10’ as important. This is an example of a differential scale (Cohen et al., 2007). The response to each question was recorded student by student.
In all other questions participants were encouraged to each give their response to questions rather than assume that only one or two answers from around the group were required. However, they were also assured that if they did not have an answer to a question that it did not matter.

Questions were sequenced so that students could begin by talking about actual experiences relevant to them before proceeding to questions that required them to give opinions or conjecture about issues that they may not have considered prior to the group interview (Judd et al., 1991).

4.8.5 Procedure

Group interviews were organised by one of the nominated caring teachers from each school. A year coordinator or a roll call teacher per year group was required to distribute information letters and parent and student consent forms to a class and ask for them to be returned as soon as possible. The nominated caring teacher undertook to see that this was done for each year group in the school and collected the relevant forms for handing in to the researcher. The teacher also arranged for a sufficiently large room to be available over a lunch-time. Students were asked for pizza topping and soft drink preferences and hot pizza and drinks were delivered to the school immediately prior to the lunchtime scheduled. In retrospect, whilst the pizza and drinks were a good idea in terms of incentive and as a relaxant to participants it also, at times, served as a distraction to answering the questions. Some questions needed to be repeated as students were concentrating on eating and drinking rather than listening to the interviewer or other responses from within the group.

Each group interview lasted approximately 40 minutes. Students were reminded that the groups’ discussion would be taped and that their names would not appear in any documents or papers except for the original transcript. They were encouraged to eat, drink and contribute
responses to the questions whenever they were able. The questions were asked in the sequence planned and where students drifted into other related areas they were encouraged to share their experiences and opinions even though it may have been unexpected and not necessarily entirely relevant.

4.8.6 Analysis

The discussion groups were audio-taped and transcribed. Each transcript was read through and checked against the audio-tapes for any mistakes and to add voice inflections and other important notes. The transcripts were then coded to determine key categories and themes (Burns, 1997; Miles & Huberman, 1994) and these were clustered together. Categories were modified and re-tested throughout the process to ensure consistency and validity (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). As stated earlier in section 4.8.4, students were asked for ‘both sides of the coin’ to assist in stimulating ideas and examples. The negative examples were not the focus of the research and so responses to these questions were not used for analysis.

Other data that was unanticipated yet seemed to be an important perspective not specifically related to the research questions were also noted and kept, for example, comments concerning gender or age of teachers. Comparison with earlier studies’ categories was used to check for the validity (Stake, 1995) and reliability of the results (Cohen et al., 2007).

4.9 Study Five

4.9.1 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of Study Five was to gain a subjective and objective colleague perspective of the nominated caring teachers to determine in more detail, from another’s perspective, what
enabled the caring teachers to be caring and what practices of care were demonstrated. Having identified the most caring teachers in the school through staff nomination it was important to gain the colleagues’ perspectives about the way in which the caring teachers worked and why. The second purpose of the study was to gain an understanding of the colleague teachers’ collective efficacy scores with a view to comparing them with the scores collected from the 10 peer-nominated caring teachers in Study Three. This would assist in determining if there were differences between the two different cohorts of teaching staff in the way they viewed the contextual factors that impacted on caring. Such a comparison between these two groups of teachers using the CTE scale has so far not been carried out in any other research identified in the search of the literature.

4.9.2 Methodological Design

A questionnaire (see appendix G) consisting of two sections was administered to two colleague teachers of each caring teacher. A questionnaire was selected for the following reasons. Firstly, it was necessary to use time efficiently as the school year was drawing to a close and teachers were extremely busy attending to reports, end of year celebrations with students and numerous other matters. An interview would have taken much longer to complete (Burns, 1997). Secondly, it was possible that the colleagues may have felt less inclined to assist in the research given that they were not selected as a caring teacher; asking them to give up 30 minutes or so to complete a questionnaire rather than committing an hour in a personalised interview may have caused fewer affronts. The questionnaire used both closed-ended responses and a small number of open-ended questions (12 in total). Use of an attitudinal rating scale such as the Collective Teacher Efficacy (CTE) scale (Goddard et al., 2000) facilitated the emergence
of colleague teachers’ beliefs about their school, students, community and teaching staff (Gay et al., 2006) which could then be quantitatively compared with the results from the same scale collected in Study Three with the 10 caring teachers.

4.9.3 Sample

Each of the 10 nominated caring teachers was asked to select two colleagues that they worked closely with who would be aware of how the caring teacher managed and taught the students of the school. It was anticipated that this would yield 20 completed questionnaires.

4.9.4 Measures

There were two sections to this questionnaire. The first section consisted of two closed demographic questions and 12 open-ended questions. The open-ended questions required the colleague teachers to comment on the caring teacher who selected him/her. These questions focused on the practices of the caring teachers and asked the colleagues to explain why they believed that these teachers behaved in the ways that they did. They were also asked to comment on what factors may hinder and/or support a caring teacher.

The second section consisted of a 21 item, six-point Likert scale concerning collective efficacy entitled the Collective Teacher Efficacy scale (CTE) (Goddard et al., 2000). Explanation about this measure may be found in section 4.7.4 as this scale was used with the 10 nominated teachers during their interviews.
4.9.5 Procedure

During the course of the interview in Study Three, each of the caring teachers was asked to select two colleagues that had worked with them closely and who would be able to comment on the way in which they worked with students of the school. These names were recorded and after Study Four was completed an information letter, consent form and questionnaire were mailed to each colleague teacher at their school. They were given two weeks in which to complete the questionnaire and were provided with two stamped, self-addressed envelopes; one for the signed consent form and the other for the questionnaire. The colleagues were not required to put their names on the questionnaire but they were asked to give the name of the caring teacher about whom they were answering the questions.

4.9.6 Analysis

The responses from the open-ended questions were read and coded using content analysis. The categories used were those that had been determined in Studies One, Two and Three and were also confirmed in Study Four. Any new sub-categories were noted and recorded under the headings associated with each of the research questions. This method highlighted the advantage of using triangulation of data sources thus enhancing the internal validity (Merriam, 1998).

The scores from the CTE scale were entered into SPSS (version 11) for both the 10 nominated caring teachers and their colleagues. An overall mean was calculated for each teacher as well as a mean for group competence and task analysis. Using independent samples t-tests, the two groups of teachers: (a) caring teachers, and (b) colleague teachers, were compared on the group competence, task analysis and overall scores. Comparisons were also performed on all
means to determine if there was any significant difference between the teachers from each of the three schools.

4.10 Ethics Permission

The study was conducted within three schools that are administered by the Sydney Catholic Education Office. As stated on their official website: “The Catholic Education Office (CEO), Sydney is responsible for the leadership, efficient operation and management of the systemic schools which educate almost 63,000 students in 147 parish primary and regional secondary schools in the Archdiocese” (Catholic Education Office, 2004). Ethics permission was sought and granted by the Sydney CEO and the Australian Catholic University to conduct this research from May to December 2006. Study One was conducted at all three schools within a two and a half week period in May, Studies Two, Three and Four were conducted across the month of November and Study Five was conducted in the beginning of December. This ensured that there was consistency in the time of the year across the three schools when teachers and students would be responding to the same questions. Appendixes K and L show the ethics permission from the Australian Catholic University and the Sydney Catholic Education Office respectively. Appendix M contains the information letters and consent forms for all five studies.

In summary, the phenomenological approach to this research on caring teachers and the factors that impact on their caring has resulted in the use of mixed methods. Some of these methods were qualitative – observations, personal interviews, group interviews, and open-ended questions in questionnaires whilst other methods were quantitative - two rating scales and an inventory. As a result, methods for analysis consisted of a wide variety of approaches: one that used words, categories, patterns, holistic features, and inductive reasoning; and another that
focused upon variables, statistical relationships, standardised procedures, and deductive reasoning (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Such a choice to combine methods increased the quality of the study by exploring more fully the phenomenon under investigation (Gay et al., 2006), that of caring teachers. Drawing on a number of different members within the school community – the whole school teaching staff, 10 peer-nominated caring teachers, their close colleagues, and students of the schools created a wealth of information from a variety of sources resulting in a clearer picture of the nature of caring teachers and the ways in which they developed and sustained their caring practices. Chapters five, six, seven, eight and nine will each address the results realised from these methods with regard to the results from these studies.
The purpose of Study One was to (a) investigate perceptions of teachers in Australian, Catholic co-educational secondary schools about caring teachers, the importance of caring teachers and their practices; (b) explore whether personal factors such as gender, years experience, subjects taught, orientation to content and students, and teacher efficacy held an association with these beliefs; and (c) give teachers the opportunity to nominate up to five colleagues who they believed were caring teachers.

The first section of the questionnaire consisted of the demographic questions as well as the open-ended questions concerning the definition of a caring teacher, the importance of caring teachers, and confirmation of the educational care/personal care model derived from the literature (see Figure 3.1 in chapter three). The second section consisted of the forty questions from the Student-Content Teaching Inventory (S-CTI) (Spier, 1974), providing insight into the beliefs that these teachers held with regard to their orientations to content and students. The S-CTI orientations are closely aligned to the personal and educational dimensions found in Figure 3.1. The third section of the questionnaire required teachers to rate their beliefs about what teachers can do to improve student learning. The Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001b) was the 12-item rating scale used to determine these beliefs. It consists of three sub-scales: (a) instructional strategies, (b) student engagement, and (c) classroom management.
5.1 The Demographic Information

The questionnaires were distributed across the three schools at afternoon staff meetings. Staff members were given brief verbal instructions by the researcher and, after reading information letters and completing consent forms, were given time to complete the questionnaire. Of the 181 questionnaires distributed 178 were completed giving an overall response rate of 97.8%. School A returned 50 completed questionnaires out of the 50 distributed (one additional questionnaire was completed after the staff meeting and then returned by post giving 51 in total), school B returned 59 completed questionnaires out of the 59 distributed whilst school C returned 68 completed questionnaires out of the 71 distributed.

5.1.1 Gender

Of the 178 teachers 114 were female and 64 were male. The numbers of males and females in each of the three schools are represented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>School A</th>
<th>School B</th>
<th>School C</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.1.2 Years of Experience

Teachers varied considerably in teaching experience in the three secondary schools, with some respondents beginning teaching in the term in which the questionnaire was administered to another who had been teaching for forty years. In Table 5.2 the mean, number and standard deviation of teachers’ experience from each school is presented.

Table 5.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>10.53</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>8.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>12.43</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>9.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>13.60</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>10.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Across all schools</td>
<td>12.31</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>9.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teachers at school A were the least experienced (Mean = 10.53) whilst teachers at school C not only represented the widest variation in teaching experience amongst their colleagues (SD = 10.47) but had also collectively been teaching longer.

5.1.3 Subjects Taught by Staff

The subjects taught by the participants ranged across 14 curriculum areas in addition to careers and special needs support. All three schools currently comply with the NSW Board of Studies syllabi and policies enabling students to sit for the School Certificate (in year 10) and Higher School Certificate (in year 12). Additionally, the schools are of a similar size in terms of number of enrolled students. As a result, the subjects offered and taught are, in most cases,
identical across all three schools. The subjects listed were English, Mathematics, Science, Religious Education, Human Society and Its Environment, Languages other than English, English as a Second Language, Visual Arts, Performing Arts, Technical and Applied Studies, Design and Technology, Vocational Education and Training courses, Personal Development, Health and Physical Education, Careers, Special Needs and Library. The most commonly listed subjects were English, Mathematics, Science, Human Society and Its Environment and Religious Education. All teachers listed that they taught one subject, while 55% of them also listed a second subject and a further 13% listed a third subject. That meant that most teachers in this sample taught more than one subject.

5.1.4 Years of Service at the School

Teachers were asked to state the number of years that they had been at the school in which they were currently teaching. Years of service at each school varied from nil experience to 26 years. In Table 5.3 the mean and standard deviation of teaching experience at the current school is recorded. School B respondents have a mean of 2.98 years of teaching at the school which is considerably less than respondents at school C and somewhat less than respondents at school A. School B responses also have a smaller standard deviation suggesting that the majority of the school teaching staff are within close range of the 2.98 mean. This indicates that most staff members have not been teaching at this particular school for very long.

Table 5.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>3.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2 Beliefs About Caring and Caring Teachers

Part of the first section of the questionnaire required the teachers to (a) define a caring teacher, (b) state whether they believed a caring teacher was important for students, and (c) indicate whether the dimensions of educational and personal care mentioned in Figure 3.1 were both necessary in the demonstration of care as teachers. They were then asked to explain their answer concerning this balance. The following sections address the responses to each of these questions by presenting the data under three main sections: (a) data that contributed to understandings about the educational and personal care of students, (b) data that contributed to exploring how care is demonstrated, and (c) data concerning the importance teachers give to the notion of care.

5.2.1 The Educational and Personal Domains of Caring Teachers

Teachers were asked to define the term ‘caring teacher’. All 178 participants responded to this question. The data were analysed by reading through the comments to identify common categories in which the data could be grouped and described. The two dimensions of educational and personal caring for students earlier described from the literature (see Figure 3.1) appeared to be supported by most of the responses. Teachers spoke of caring for students personally and academically or caring for the whole person: “I think a caring teacher is someone who looks to educate the whole person”. Table 5.4 gives the number of teachers who mentioned the educational or personal dimensions of caring teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B</th>
<th>2.98</th>
<th>1.87</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Across all three</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.4

*Number of Teachers That Mentioned Educational or Personal Dimensions (N = 178).*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational dimension</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal dimension</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the next question, the following information was given: “From a study of the literature, caring teachers demonstrate care in two dimensions:

- Concern for the best possible educational achievement of the students
- Concern for the emotional and social well-being of the students through the
  i. Teacher’s warm manner
  ii. Positive relationships with students in the classroom” (see appendix B).

Teachers were then asked if they agreed that both these dimensions needed to be demonstrated in a caring teacher. These results are represented in Table 5.5 showing number by school.

Table 5.5

*The Frequencies of Teachers’ Responses (by School) Concerning Educational and Personal Dimensions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Neither yes or no</th>
<th>Yes and no</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The data in Table 5.5 show that 91% of respondents agreed that caring teachers need to care in both the educational and personal dimensions. Respondents were asked to explain their choice.

Of those that disagreed \((n = 12)\), three felt that either personal caring or educational caring was enough and that students did not necessarily need both. Another three respondents objected to the term ‘warm manner’ suggesting that it was not an appropriate term. Two commented that caring can be demonstrated in a variety of ways and shouldn’t be limited to the two given. The remaining comments covered notions such as “positive relationships have everything to do with being called caring” and “I guess trying to be yourself as naturally as you can, and not acting”.

Of those who circled neither \((n = 3)\), two respondents objected to the term ‘warm manner’ claiming that it depended whether or not ‘warm’ was professional. The other respondent stated, “Whilst I would agree with both statements, I would not always sacrifice the development of an individual in exchange for greater academic achievement”. Finally, the one respondent who circled both stated “It is an impossible/invisible line that will change with every class/individual”.

5.2.2 Other Demonstrations of Care

In addition to the confirmation that caring involves both educational and personal dimensions, 162 of the respondents also identified the specific ways caring teachers assist students. These responses reflected the descriptions given in the literature review of caring practices, for example, teachers spoke of building relationships with students and of their commitment to students. However, in addition to reading each of the responses for specific caring behaviours, teachers’ comments were also read more holistically to determine if there was other information regarding caring teachers that could be gained. The data suggested that whilst
the actions of caring teachers are observable, there are two other aspects in the caring process which may also be present. The first aspect involves the beliefs of caring teachers that appear to form the basis for caring actions, and the second aspect is the ability to recognise that care is needed and to respond emotionally to that need. From the respondents’ answers, three distinct parts of caring emerged: (a) caring beliefs, (b) recognition of the need for a caring response, and (c) caring actions. Some teachers commented only on one aspect, others commented on two of the aspects but only a few identified all three within his/her response.

Firstly, the beliefs and motivations, as described by the participants, appear to be a significant aspect of why caring teachers behave in the way that they do. For the purpose of this discussion this will be termed ‘mindset’. Secondly, the recognition and awareness that occurs as a response to seeing or noticing the needs of their students will be termed ‘inner response’. Finally, the actions and manner which caring teachers display (as previously noted in the two dimensions of Figure 3.1) is called ‘outward response’. A more detailed explanation is given below.

5.2.2.1 Mindset

Teachers voiced what they believed to be a particular mindset that underpins a caring teacher’s approach to teaching and to the students. Thirty-six teachers (20%) mentioned these mindsets, referring to exploring the beliefs and motivations they perceived were inherent in a caring teacher’s mindset. The key beliefs raised here were that students are to be valued, that they should be treated as a whole person and that the ‘best’ interests of the students should come first. At the basis of a caring teacher’s work are respectful attitudes towards students which may then motivate the teacher to act in a certain way towards his/her students. The mindsets focus
on the students and assume that their place of high priority over other competing teacher tasks is appropriate. Examples of comments that speak of the caring teacher’s mindset are: a caring teacher is (a) “someone who has the total interest of the students at heart”; (b) “someone who is motivated by the students’ educational, social and emotional needs”; and (c) “someone who recognises the inherent value in every individual”. Remarks such as these, whilst highlighting the motivation of these teachers, also support the personal and educational dimensions of the original model proposed in the literature review through the use of phrases such as “total interest of the students” and claiming the importance of the whole child.

5.2.3 Inner Response

The inner response is the second part of the caring process identified by teachers and it suggests that there are cognitive and emotional reactions which occur before the demonstration of care is observed. Across the three schools 89 teachers (50%) mentioned inner response. Respondents described caring teachers as (a) aware of students’ needs, (b) emotionally responding to students, (c) being interested in students, (d) perceiving issues of concern, and (d) being intuitive. The awareness and perception mentioned here describes the way in which a teacher is able to recognise where a student may be experiencing a deficit, a difficulty or uncharacteristic happiness without the student explicitly raising the issue. It is noticing when a student appears satisfied or more at ease or managing the work easily and when he/she is not.

Once the awareness is engaged the caring teacher responds to the student(s) with a sense of concern or interest in the students’ needs. These responses are not necessarily visible to others, yet teachers have identified this inward response as part of what a caring teacher does. Noddings (1984) similarly identifies this as a ‘motivational shift’ and Fisher and Tronto (1990) as ‘caring
about’. Noddings describes it as the moment when the carer identifies a need and makes a motivational shift inside him or herself towards the one needing care.

There are many examples of this inner response mentioned by teachers as they described a caring teacher, including: (a) “has compassion for their students”, (b) “is interested in what is happening to them”, (c) “values the students’ context”, (d) “has ability to look beyond the surface”, (e) “is mindful of the individuality of their students”, (f) “is concerned for his/her students” and (g) “can look at the reasons behind a student’s behaviour and wish to help”. The last example given is a good demonstration of the awareness, perceptiveness and emotional response a teacher may experience before any action or outward response may occur.

5.2.4 Outward Response

The outward response is the third part of the caring process identified by teachers in this question. This term describes the behaviour of caring teachers towards students in their classes; the physical representation of caring. Their response to students might be characterised by actions, by the personal qualities that the teachers used with their students or by the level of commitment they show in working with them. Due to the differing ways in which teachers spoke of the outward response it has been divided into three groups: (a) action, (b) commitment and (c) personal qualities. Table 5.6 shows the number of respondents that mentioned these three sub-domains.

Table 5.6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Respondents who Mentioned the Terms: Action, Commitment and Personal Qualities (n = 178).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

141
Of the 178 teachers, 130 made mention of the actions undertaken as the outward response of caring. Examples of this type of outward response given by the teachers were: (a) “consistently provides support and encouragement for all students”; (b) “shows interest in their students and their achievements”; (c) “will challenge, expose, teach, and make them better people”; and (d) “develops the relationships with students”. It is important to note here that the comment made by one participant uses the words ‘shows interest’ and has been classified under outward response because by showing interest the response becomes evident in action. Earlier, the comment made by another teacher who stated that a caring teacher “is interested in what is happening to them” was placed in inward response because the caring teacher at that stage had not necessarily demonstrated interest to the students. In some ways, the outward response is the inward response stimulated into action.

Of the 178, 52 teachers remarked on the level of commitment that caring teachers made to their students. More specifically they spoke of the time and effort directed towards their care. This is strongly linked to the beliefs and values a teacher holds with regard to an appropriate commitment one must make if working with students. The typical comments given in the area of commitment are as follows: (a) “doesn’t give up on a student no matter how difficult they may be to teach”, (b) “willing to go beyond what is expected of them”, (c) “beyond their call of duty”, (d) “spends extra time with students” and (e) “tries as hard as they can to get the best out of all they teach”. It is more than being caring in deed and manner; it is also about the effort and time expended to do so.
Finally, 20 out of the 178 teachers who responded to this question identified that caring teachers had particular personal qualities that assisted a teacher in demonstrating care to their students. Again, this forms part of the outward response. Terms that were listed were genuine, approachable, firm, reliable, fair, patient and kind.

The results of this analysis suggest a broader understanding of the frameworks proposed (see Figures 3.1 and Figure 3.2). Figure 3.1 identified that caring teachers engaged in two types of caring approaches: personal and educational, whilst Figure 3.2 identified the personal factors of beliefs and capacity as a factor affecting the caring teachers’ demonstration of care. A new model that integrates the two original frameworks needs to be devised to show how beliefs and capacity relate to the demonstration and process of care. Figure 5.1 illustrates the new model containing three phases which were identified by participants as part of the definition of a caring teacher. The first stage shows the mindset of beliefs and motivations; the second is inward response of awareness, recognition and concern; whilst the third establishes an outward response demonstrated in action, personal qualities and commitment. These phases are sequential and are dependent on each other for caring to be realised.
Figure 5.1. The three phases of caring for students

- **Mindset**: Beliefs about students and teaching which motivate caring teachers
- **Inner Response**: Awareness, recognition and emotional response to student needs and context
- **Outward Response**: Care demonstrated through actions, personal qualities and commitment
5.2.5 Nomination of Caring Teachers

The last part in section one of the questionnaire required the participants to select up to five staff members that they currently worked with who they believed were caring teachers. In the majority of instances staff wrote up to five names. In instances where more than five names were given only the first five names were used. Some staff wrote comments such as “there are too many on this staff to be naming so few” and declined to suggest any one person. The purpose of this question was to use these staff selections in determining the top three to four teachers from each school who exhibit caring behaviours to his/her students for subsequent parts of this study.

This first section of the whole school questionnaire provided information about the participants in this part of the study, as well as insight into what teachers believed about the importance of caring teachers and what they perceived a caring teacher to be like.

5.3 The Effect of Personal Factors on Beliefs About Teaching

The second and third sections consisted of the Student-Content Teaching Inventory (S-CTI) (Spier, 1974) which explored teachers’ orientations to students and content, and the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) which measured teacher efficacy and the sub-scales of instruction, engagement and management. To determine the effect of personal factors on beliefs about teaching, demographic information was compared with both teacher orientations and efficacy. The results of this inventory and scale will be presented in association with each of the demographic factors supplied in the first section of the questionnaire.
5.3.1 Gender

To determine whether gender had any effect on the S-CTI orientations an independent samples $t$-test was performed on the data. One male did not complete the S-CTI and so only 177 teachers participated in this section. The results are given in Tables 5.8 and 5.9.

The results indicate that males are less orientated towards content than females in this sample of teachers ($p = .002$). There was no significant difference between males and females for student orientation.
Table 5.7

*Mean and Standard Deviation of Student and Content Orientation for Females and Males*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SD error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student orientation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>13.39</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>.342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>12.95</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>.510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content orientation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>11.42</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>.270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>9.94</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>.416</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.8

*Equality of Means between Student and Content Orientation and Gender*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student orientation</td>
<td>.742</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>.459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content orientation</td>
<td>3.096</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using the two factors of content and student orientation Spier (1974) constructed a matrix and these orientations were plotted by Spier on the X axis for content and Y axis for student. The matrix is shown in Figure 5.2.
The teachers in this study were categorised into four groups according to their scores in Spier’s S-CTI. There is an alignment between these four groupings by Spier and those defined
by the literature in section 3.3.1 where teachers were categorised according to their high/low educational and personal care. Each quadrant in the matrix derived from the literature is a parallel with each quadrant in Spier’s matrix. The following is an explanation of how these groups were determined: (a) group A - those who scored above 10 in both content and student orientation; (b) group B - those who scored above 10 in student orientation but below 10 in content; (c) group C - those who scored below 10 in student orientation but above 10 in content; and, (d) group D - those who scored below 10 in both content and student orientation. To determine whether there was an association between the groups and gender a cross tabulation and chi-square test were performed. The results are given in Table 5.10.

Table 5.9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was a significant association between gender and group ($X^2 = 12.86$, $df = 3$, $p = .005$).

There are fewer males counted in Groups A and B than expected and there are more females in Group A than expected. Group D has over 50% fewer females than expected and there are over 50% more males than expected in this category of low content and student orientation. This suggests that males are less oriented towards both student and content orientation.

Analyses for gender differences using the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001a) or the sub-scales of engagement, instruction and management
yielded no significant results. In the present study, the Cronbach alpha ($\alpha$) was 0.7086 for the sub-scale of instruction, 0.7162 for the sub-scale of engagement, and 0.8171 for the sub-scale of management. The means of the teacher efficacy scores and the domains of instruction, engagement and management according to gender are represented in Table 5.10. Two females and one male in the study did not complete the TSES therefore the total number of participants ($N$) was 175: 112 females and 63 males.

Table 5.10

*Mean and SD of Participants for the TSES According to Gender*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Efficacy variable</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Grand mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher efficacy</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7.20</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7.50</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>7.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7.39</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>6.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>6.92</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7.43</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>7.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7.59</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gender was also compared with the caring categories that emerged from the open-ended questions in the first section of the questionnaire. Using a chi-square test, gender was compared with those who mentioned mindset, inward response, outward response, educational orientation, personal orientation and both orientations. There were no statistically significant results for any of these categories.
5.3.2 Subject Areas

Information given by teachers in the demographic section of the questionnaire concerning the subjects taught by each teacher was compared with the scores for the SCTI and for the TSES using ANOVAs. The subject areas were reduced from the sixteen original categories down to six by grouping together like subjects. The final six categories were: (a) Humanities; (b) Maths and Science; (c) Creative Arts; (d) Technical and Practical Studies; (e) Personal Development, Health and Physical Education (PDHPE); and (f) Other – which included Library and Special Needs. Three teachers (as mentioned earlier) did not complete the TSES which was the last section of the questionnaire, one teacher did not complete the S-CTI, and one teacher did not give their subject area. There were no results showing statistical significance with regard to the S-CTI or the TSES when examining the types of subjects teachers taught. The results are given in Table 5.11 showing the means and standard deviations for teacher efficacy; the domains according to instruction, management and engagement; and in Table 5.12 for content and student orientation.

Table 5.11
Mean and SD of Participants for the TSES According to Subject Taught

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Efficacy variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>7.36</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Maths &amp; Science</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Creative Arts</td>
<td>7.43</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Standard Error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher efficacy</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Technical and Practical Studies</td>
<td>7.17</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>PDHPE</td>
<td>7.24</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7.32</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>174</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>7.55</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Maths &amp; Science</td>
<td>7.09</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Creative Arts</td>
<td>7.70</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Technical and Practical Studies</td>
<td>7.50</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>PDHPE</td>
<td>7.56</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7.50</td>
<td>.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>173</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.48</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficacy variable</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>6.87</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Maths &amp; Science</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Creative Arts</td>
<td>7.19</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Technical and Practical Studies</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>PDHPE</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7.10</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>174</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>7.64</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Maths &amp; Science</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Creative Arts</td>
<td>7.41</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Technical and Practical Studies</td>
<td>7.41</td>
<td>.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>PDHPE</td>
<td>7.63</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>174</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.12

*Mean and SD of Participants for the S-CTI According to Subject Taught*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>12.57</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Maths &amp; Science</td>
<td>13.20</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Creative Arts</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Technical and Practical Studies</td>
<td>14.17</td>
<td>3.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>PDHPE</td>
<td>12.85</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>176</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>11.19</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Maths &amp; Science</td>
<td>10.85</td>
<td>2.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Creative Arts</td>
<td>11.56</td>
<td>3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Technical and Practical Studies</td>
<td>10.17</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>PDHPE</td>
<td>10.31</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10.20</td>
<td>2.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>176</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.71</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, the subjects taught by teachers were compared with those who mentioned and did not mention each of the caring categories of (a) mindset, (b) inward response, (c) outward response, (d) educational orientation, (e) personal orientation and (f) both orientations. There were no statistically significant results for each of these categories.
5.3.3 Years of Experience

The number of years of experience were categorised into phases of a teaching career according to Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kington, & Gu (2007). These phases represented different years of teaching experience: 0 – 3; 4 – 7; 8 – 15; 16 – 23; 24 – 30; 31+ years and were compared with the responses for the TSES and the S-CTI. The results are listed in Table 5.13 for the TSES and Table 5.14 for the S-CTI according to means and standard deviations. There were no statistically significant results for either of these scales.

Table 5.13
Mean and SD of Participants for the TSES According to Years of Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Efficacy variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Years of experience</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0 – 3</td>
<td>7.34</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4 – 7</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher efficacy</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8 – 15</td>
<td>7.10</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16 – 23</td>
<td>7.40</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24 – 30</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30+</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>175</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were no statistically significant results for either of these scales.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Efficacy variable</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>Years of experience</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0 – 3</td>
<td>7.34</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4 – 7</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8 – 15</td>
<td>7.30</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16 – 23</td>
<td>7.81</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24 – 30</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30+</td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>174</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.47</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0 – 3</td>
<td>6.88</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4 – 7</td>
<td>6.59</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8 – 15</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16 – 23</td>
<td>6.99</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24 – 30</td>
<td>6.84</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30+</td>
<td>7.19</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>175</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.77</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0 – 3</td>
<td>7.80</td>
<td>.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4 – 7</td>
<td>7.49</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8 – 15</td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16 – 23</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24 – 30</td>
<td>7.49</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30+</td>
<td>7.19</td>
<td>1.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>175</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.49</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 5.14

**Mean and SD of Participants for the S-CTI According to Years of Experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Years experience</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0 – 3</td>
<td>13.22</td>
<td>4.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4 – 7</td>
<td>12.94</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8 – 15</td>
<td>13.45</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16 – 23</td>
<td>13.11</td>
<td>4.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24 – 30</td>
<td>13.21</td>
<td>3.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30+</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>177</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.17</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0 – 3</td>
<td>11.09</td>
<td>2.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4 – 7</td>
<td>10.71</td>
<td>3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8 – 15</td>
<td>10.26</td>
<td>3.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16 – 23</td>
<td>11.07</td>
<td>2.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24 – 30</td>
<td>9.25</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30+</td>
<td>10.85</td>
<td>2.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content</strong></td>
<td>177</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.87</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Years of experience according to the phases of a teacher’s career (Day et al., 2007) were compared with those who mentioned and did not mention each of the caring categories of (a) mindset, (b) inward response, (c) outward response, (d) educational orientation, (e) personal orientation and (f) both orientations. There were no statistically significant results for any of these categories.
5.4 The Effect of External Factors on Beliefs About Teaching

All data gathered from the questionnaire were coded according to schools so that differences between schools could be analysed. Firstly, cross tabulations and chi-square tests were performed using the categories of care that had emerged from the open-ended questions in the first section of the questionnaire. The categories that had emerged were (a) mindset; (b) inward response; (c) outward response – with sub-categories of action, commitment and personal qualities; (d) educational orientation; and (e) personal orientation. The domain of outward response in terms of commitment showed a statistically significant result. Table 5.15 shows the frequencies per school for teachers who mentioned commitment.

Table 5.15

*Frequencies Per School for Teachers who Mentioned and Did Not Mention Commitment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Did not mention commitment</th>
<th>Mentioned commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was a significant association between school and mentioning or not mentioning commitment ($X^2 = 11.61, df = 2, p = .003$).

School C mentioned commitment as a characteristic of caring teachers significantly less often than school A. This suggests that fewer teachers at school C consider commitment to be a feature of caring teachers than at school A.
There were no results showing statistical significance with regard to the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001b) or the sub-scales of engagement, instruction and management when compared between schools.

5.5 Findings of Study One

Study One revealed a number of important findings. Firstly, the 178 teaching staff at the three schools agreed overall that caring for students was important. They also supported the notion of educational and personal care of students by not only confirming the model proposed in the literature review (91% agreement) but also by using phrases and terms in their own descriptions of caring teachers that reflected these two types of care.

Descriptions of caring teachers revealed three distinct and previously unacknowledged parts of the caring process: (a) mindset – the beliefs and values that underpin the caring teacher’s actions; (b) inward response – the awareness, recognition and emotional response of when care is needed; and (c) outward response – how the caring teachers show they care through action, personal qualities, and commitment. Teachers from school C mentioned commitment as an aspect of care significantly less than their colleagues in schools A and B.

Results of the Student-Content Teaching Inventory (Spier, 1974) that aligned with the proposed model of educational and personal care showed that males were less oriented towards content than their female colleagues. When the teachers were categorised according to their scores out of 20 for content and student orientations, there were more females than expected found in the group that had high content and student orientation scores, and more males found in the group that had low content and student orientation scores.
Finally, the results of the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) did not produce any statistically significant results when compared with gender, subjects taught, years experience, or teachers who mentioned the different types of care categories such as educational and personal care as well as mindset, inward response and outward response. Studies Two to Five to follow in chapters six to nine will add further to these understandings about caring teachers.
6 STUDY TWO

Participating teachers from Study One were asked to nominate up to five teachers on their school staff that they believed were caring teachers. The nominations were counted and the three or four teachers with the highest tallies in each school were invited to participate in Studies Two and Three. The result was that 10 teachers agreed to participate and the following demographic details describe the group: three males and seven females; ranging in experience from three years to 28 years of teaching; five teachers taught English, two Maths, one Science, one Visual Arts and another Geography and Economics; and seven of the teachers held positions of responsibility in the school as Year Coordinators, Subject Coordinator or Pastoral Care Coordinator of the whole school.

To gain information about how caring teachers demonstrate care, these 10 teachers were observed for one full day with particular focus on their work and their interactions with students. To assist in the observation process a checklist of behaviours expected of a caring teacher based upon the literature was devised (see appendix C).

6.1 The Checklist

The checklist was a useful tool to determine whether the teachers’ nominations matched the literature’s perspective of a caring teacher and to identify other behaviours that had not been raised in the literature that could be reasonably added to the list. The list was divided into four sections: (a) behaviours reflecting the educational dimension, (b) behaviours reflecting the personal dimension, (c) behaviours reflecting both and (d) behaviours that had not yet been classified.
All 10 teachers demonstrated the expected behaviours to a greater or lesser degree. It is possible that the researcher’s presence had an effect on the behaviour of the teachers. Relationships with students observed on the day indicated that these were developed over a long period, as evidenced by the familiarity they had with each other and the informal references to past events and information. The evidence of pre-existing relationships between teacher and students was further validated by the fact that students did not remark on any change in their teacher’s manner or actions, and it seemed that what was observed was fairly normal. According to the number of observed behaviours of each teacher, some teachers appeared to be more caring than others in that their behaviours covered a wide range of both personal and educational caring practices. Despite this, it was evident that all teachers in this group demonstrated behaviours that were personally and educationally caring for their students. All of the teachers also demonstrated other behaviours beyond those identified in the literature.

6.1.1 Personal Behaviours

The checklist was divided into four sections. The first of these focused upon those behaviours that demonstrated personal concern for students (see Table 6.1).

Observations of personal concern reflected the two domains evident in the literature; manner and relationships. The observations in the checklist will be discussed within these two domains.

### Table 6.1

**Number of Teachers who Demonstrated Personal Behaviours on Checklist**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal concern behaviour</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Displays warmth and concern for students</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shows acceptance of students</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Demonstrates interest in students 10
Students clearly feel comfortable and relaxed with teacher 10
Inclusive atmosphere in the classroom 10
Encourages dialogue with students 10
Mutual respect is obvious between teacher and students 9
Has knowledge about students from forming a relationship with them 9
Shows tolerance to all students 8
Is sensitive to students’ needs and interests 5
Extends empathy if needed 3

6.1.1.1 Manner

All of the teachers demonstrated warmth and concern towards their students through an approachable manner and through listening to students as they raised issues and concerns. They also showed acceptance by acknowledging and readily working with students in different circumstances and with differing needs. All 10 teachers generated a comfortable, relaxed and inclusive atmosphere in the classroom through openness of discussion, knowing and using names and demonstrating a friendly disposition. In a day’s worth of observations it was not always possible to see whether the teachers were sensitive to the students’ needs and interests nor were there necessarily opportunities for the teachers to show tolerance or demonstrate empathy. However, in one instance, a teacher was aware that many students who had just worked through a mathematical example on the board had got it wrong through carelessness. The teacher’s response was one of empathy - “If you’re like me you sometimes make silly mistakes”. Finally, all of the teachers encouraged dialogue with students and nine of them developed mutual respect.
between the students and themselves. This was evident through the absence of harsh words, defiance from students or inappropriate behaviour.

6.1.1.2 Relationships

All 10 teachers demonstrated interest in individuals, for example, through asking students questions about school work and other matters. The item “has knowledge about students from forming a relationship with them” could not be recorded through simple observation as it really could not be determined whether the knowledge gained about students came from relationship building. Instead, where nine of the teachers demonstrated knowledge about students’ personal lives through using that knowledge in his/her teaching, or by commenting informally to students about the students’ interests, a tick next to this item was counted.

6.1.2 Educational Behaviours

The second section in the checklist focused upon behaviours demonstrating educational concern for students (see Table 6.2).
### Table 6.2

*Number of Teachers who Demonstrated Educational Behaviours on Checklist.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational concern behaviour</th>
<th>$N$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is committed to teaching the students</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develops academic knowledge in students</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong academic and cognitive activities in lessons</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging and meaningful activities</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manages the group of students well</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is effective instructionally</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourages critical thinking</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meticulous preparation for lessons</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourages constructive evaluation</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lively presentation of lessons</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caters for all students’ needs</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develops social skills in students</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All 10 teachers were committed to teaching the students, as was evidenced by the way in which they developed academic knowledge through their selection of strong academic and cognitive activities that were meaningful and engaging. For example, lessons observed were well executed and students engaged with the material throughout the lessons. Such successful activities were possible due to the effective management and instruction of the students. For example, the teachers had very little misbehaviour occur in their classes due in part to the boundaries that were made very clear to students. When bad behaviour did occur, teachers were able to get students back on track with a minimum of fuss by speaking to them individually. Additionally, instruction was carefully planned and enabled students to grasp key concepts reasonably easily.
While most of the items in the checklist were displayed by the majority of teachers some of the behaviours were less uniformly demonstrated. This may be noted with regard to the following: (a) in developing social skills in students, for example, some teachers often reminded students of politeness whilst others didn’t; (b) catering for the varying needs within the classroom by, for example, planning for different levels of students within the worksheets or differently graded tasks was not always noticeable; and (c) lively presentation of lessons was replaced by a calm and serious demeanour in some teachers’ lessons. Additionally, critical thinking and constructive evaluation by challenging students to reflect and critique texts or methods was not always evident either, but this may have been dependent on the subject being taught or the stage of the topic itself.

Meticulous preparation really couldn’t be judged through this type of study. In fact, in some instances, teachers took the opportunity to apologise for not having prepared properly for the lesson(s). Despite this, the caring teachers showed that they possessed a high level of educational concern towards their students, and an awareness of the importance of preparation evidenced in their perceived need to apologise.

6.1.3 Behaviours Reflecting Both Personal and Educational Domains

The third section in the checklist focused upon behaviours demonstrating both personal and educational concern for students (see Table 6.3).
Table 6.3

*Number of Teachers who Demonstrated Behaviours Reflecting both Personal and Educational Domains*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational and personal concern behaviour</th>
<th>$N$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assists students to reach their full potential</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for the development of the whole student</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two behaviours were listed under this category in the checklist: (a) assists students to reach their full potential; and (b) is concerned for the development of the whole student. In half the cases the latter was obvious as teachers sought to engage students mentally, socially and sometimes physically in the lessons, but the first behaviour was unlikely to be evident in a single day’s worth of observation. As a result this section will not be referred to again in analysis of this study.

### 6.1.4 Additional Behaviours Observed

The final section of the checklist allowed for the writing down of additional observed behaviours observed that also represented care for students. Many types of behaviour were recorded and the lists generated from all 10 teachers were compiled. Behaviours that were demonstrated by two or more teachers are presented here. Frequencies are not given here as the behaviours were recorded according to key characteristics of each teacher rather than the checklist approach where observations could be tallied. Additionally, there were many similarities between some items listed and so data were reduced into like behaviours.

The behaviours have been categorised according to the model presented in chapter two based on the literature (see Figure 3.1) that is, that caring approaches can be divided into two domains:
(a) educational concern for students demonstrated through well planned lessons and engaging
delivery of content; and (b) personal concern for students demonstrated through the two sub-
domains of i) warm manner, and ii) positive relationships with students in the classroom.

The behaviours that have been categorised loosely here because there are not always clear
boundaries between these domains and sub-domains. One behaviour could fit into two or even
three different domains. In these particular instances the category selected for the behaviour has
been chosen on the basis that it best represents the behaviour.

6.1.4.1 Educational Concern

The first set of behaviours to be grouped together is those actions primarily concerned with
explicit educational concern, and these are displayed in Table 6.4. Whilst many of the judgments
teachers make are ultimately concerned with how students progress educationally this particular
category is related to those decisions that involve methods of instruction or pedagogical
techniques.

The level of instruction and scaffolding of work exceeded what had been described in the
checklist and therefore deserves particular mention here. Many of the teachers were painstaking
in their attempts to structure explanations and demonstrations in such a manner that engaged and
clarified new work for students. Lessons were executed efficiently with little wastage of time as
teachers arrived at lessons well prepared with all resources and a clear purpose evident. This
was despite the fact that many of these nominated teachers, due to extra responsibilities as
coordinators, were seeing students and sometimes teachers during most of their break time. They
allowed time for the unexpected, in most instances, so that their lessons didn’t suffer when they
arrived at the classroom.
Table 6.4

*Additional Educationally Oriented Behaviours of Caring Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaviours concerned with educational progress</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very thorough and careful instruction, scaffolds as needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organised – has all resources and materials ready for lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has high standards of work and behaviour and expects students to reach them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strives to get the best out of students in attitude, behaviour, work and commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives students choice regarding the way they want to work or the order of work activities or the content itself</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The caring teachers articulated to their students the expectations they had for their students’ work and behaviour in such a way that it was obvious to those listening that they were very confident that their students were capable of achieving in both areas. The confidence that they expressed to their students meant that students appeared to rise to the challenge of the high expectations, confirming for themselves and their teachers that they could indeed succeed. Hence, this became part of the effort the caring teachers expended in striving to get the best out of each student in behaviour, attitude, work and commitment.

Finally, some of the caring teachers were flexible enough to give students choices in, for example, where they worked: “You can choose to work outside or inside today – the choice is yours”. Others allowed students to select the order in which they completed set tasks or the method of research that the students felt would yield the best results.

6.1.4.2 Personal Concern

This second set of behaviours is primarily concerned with the personal care that a teacher gives to his/her students through manner and relationships. Each of these sub-domains will be addressed separately.
Manner. The second group of behaviours refers to the personal sub-domain: the teacher’s manner or style with the students. Some of these behaviours too, could be placed in the educational group, for example, “Really encourages students to have a go at answering a question, to participate and get involved or to ask questions if they don’t understand”, but the best fit is concerned with the manner in which the teacher encourages students, not just the fact that this is also a pedagogical method.

All of the caring teachers praised students either individually, as a whole class or both. Two teachers gave out merit awards or stickers which were appreciated by students. Most of the teachers did not adopt a harsh or negative approach but instead demonstrated great patience and encouraged students by smiling and responding gently and calmly to issues that arose. All of the teachers modeled manners to students by thanking them and apologizing if they inconvenienced a student in any way.
Table 6.5

*Additional Personally Oriented Behaviours Concerned with the Sub-Domain of the Manner*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaviours concerned with manner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Praises students as a class and individually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smiles with warmth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personally tidies room at end of /during the lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aware of when students are not on task or are not coping or need some assistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong ‘withitness’ and attention to detail with regard to uniform, room tidiness, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responds to students patiently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is calm and gentle when working with students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polite and courteous – models manners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Really encourages students to have a go at answering a question, to participate and get involved or to ask questions if they don’t understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lends own equipment for students to use</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The atmosphere in classes created by the majority of the caring teachers resulted in students feeling comfortable enough to ask questions when they did not understand or to have a go at answers about which they were unsure. Teachers actively encouraged this type of participation. Trust was extended to students when two of the teachers were observed lending their own equipment to students who had not come to class prepared. They asked students to return the equipment to them at the end of the lesson and trusted them to do so. Almost all of the teachers noticed when the room was untidy and in one instance, would not let the students into the room until a few students and the teacher herself had cleaned and tidied the room for them. Her explanation was that you couldn’t possibly ask students to work in such a demeaning environment.
Finally, one of the most outstanding mannerisms that expressed itself in the majority of the teachers was an almost unconscious checking up on students as content was being taught or as students worked independently or in groups. The teachers constantly scanned the room for a lack of understanding, for off-track behaviour or conversation, to note when a student might be behaving differently from normal or to simply evaluate the success of the lesson. Having identified a cause for concern or an opportunity to engage with individual students, the teacher would attend to it immediately.

Such keen awareness of the individuals in the class appeared to go hand-in-hand with a strong attention to detail concerning the breaking of school rules, for example, gum chewing or sloppy wearing of the uniform. Each time the teachers noticed the breaking of rules he/she responded by drawing attention to the misdemeanour but not with undue harshness. Obedience in response from the student was expected and the student was thanked for his/her compliance.

_Relationships._ The third group of behaviours refers to teachers’ actions that are primarily concerned with relationships with individual students. This represents the second sub-domain of personal care: relationships. The boundary between manner and relationships can be quite blurred but the distinction is made in that manner is about relating to the whole class unlike relationships which refer to working with individual students.
Table 6.6

*Additional Personal Behaviours Concerned with the Sub-Domain of Relationships*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaviours concerned with relationships</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Takes time to work with individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recalls previous events, issues or personal things to draw on as a way of involving students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tactile with students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Looks for non-contributors to encourage them to take part</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listens to students / interested in what they have to say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actively builds self-esteem of individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cajoles or jollies along reluctant students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considers individual students’ workload e.g. “Work on this tonight for a half and hour but don’t spend any more time on it than that. It doesn’t matter if you don’t finish it”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Working with individuals was a common aspect to all lessons observed of the 10 caring teachers. Their knowledge of each student’s current level of work and quite often their personal preferences and dislikes was evident in the way on which they approached students, recalled personal interests or earlier contributions from students and related to students on a one-to-one basis. Some teachers were clearly tactile as they placed a hand on the shoulder to support but others were not so. Names were used when encouraging students to get involved or when individuals were praised for their particular efforts. Individual students were identified when they were not engaging with the work material and were then encouraged and persuaded to get involved in the lesson. An awareness of personal circumstances of students made it possible for teachers to consider individual pressures and accommodate these. The relationship building that occurred within lessons made it possible for teachers to respect students and for students to respect teachers in return.
6.2 Caring Teacher Profile

Caring was not always demonstrated in the same ways even though there were many characteristics that were similar across the whole group. The following section profiles three of the 10 caring teachers, each from a different school, to develop a more complete picture of different types of demonstrations of care.

6.2.1 Teacher One

One of the first teachers observed was a subject coordinator who was a very experienced teacher. She demonstrated her caring approach in three different contexts: (a) with students from across the school in the corridors between lessons, (b) with her assigned classes in her teaching day, (c) and with a class that was not her usual responsibility.

Moving from the staffroom to her home class, she took the opportunity to greet students and to comment upon uniform and unruly behaviour in the corridor. It is not unusual for teachers to consider students who are not in their class or specifically in their care to be their responsibility but it was evident that Teacher One felt compelled to act on any instance where students were not obeying school rules.

Once in homeroom, class students responded quickly to her marking of the roll and her request for volunteers to run errands. She talked with students about particular study tasks they had been involved with in classes other than hers and she sent for three students in another home class who had missed some work in one of her classes. She carefully explained to the three students what they had missed and asked them to show her the completed work the next day. The lessons she taught were well prepared and delivered using a calm but firm manner. She was always polite with students, smiled when she talked to them and, in some instances, touched
students gently on the shoulder or arm. She listened to students’ opinions and was genuinely interested in what they had to say. Teacher One appeared to respect the students as much as they respected her, and they were keen to share with her their difficulties as they were confident that she would respond to them patiently and earnestly. Students worked in a student-centered environment and were encouraged to contribute their opinions. The room was always left in a tidy state, and students were encouraged in lessons and in corridors to act responsibly and to treat the common property with respect.

One particular event in the afternoon provided a clearer picture of this caring teacher. She took a substitute class for a study period and it was apparent that she considered it to be her responsibility to ensure that all students were sufficiently occupied with work. Even though the class was quietly working, she would look up every 20 seconds, scan the class and despite her own workload, would walk around the room every 10 minutes or so and talk with students about what they were studying and ensure that no one was having any difficulty. Teachers in this situation are not generally expected to be concerned about what the students achieve as long as they don’t make too much noise or aren’t worrying anybody else. In contrast, Teacher One’s attention with regard to the achievement of the students’ individual study was paramount to her and if that meant that she didn’t get any of her own work done then that appeared to be fine. By noticing when students were not engaged or were having difficulty with a task, this caring teacher was compelled to assist and get the student/s back on track. Once satisfied that all students were making gains with their studies she returned to her own private work.

Teacher One’s approach to her students demonstrated that she believed that the progress of all students, whether they were specifically in her care or not, was her responsibility. Her attention to detail and awareness of how students were progressing were specific skills which
enabled her to do this. Combined with her gentle, calm and meticulous approach to teaching it was clear that students gained the impression that they were of importance to her as students as well as people.

6.2.2 Teacher Two

In contrast, Teacher Two was a less experienced teacher than Teacher One and did not hold a position of responsibility as a coordinator within the school. Opportunities to see this teacher in a variety of contexts during the day were limited to observing her with only her scheduled classes and traveling to and from these. Like Teacher One, this teacher took the time to comment to students about uniform, rowdy behaviour and other misdemeanours, but did so less frequently.

Teacher Two’s nature was quite outgoing and her sense of humour was prominent as she related to her classes. She immediately set an atmosphere of openness and energy which students appeared to respond to very well. She was one of the teachers who presented lessons in a lively manner. Teacher Two gave out merits and praised students in a public way, and used her knowledge of students in examples to illustrate certain points. Use of sarcasm was quite evident throughout her lessons but it was never used in a cruel way to isolate or ridicule students.

Her preparation of the lessons was thorough and the level and breadth of content covered was both deep and wide. Students were never told the answer to a question but were encouraged to find the answer for themselves with her support. She firmly believed in allowing students the opportunity to discover their own knowledge. An answer that was ‘half-baked’ or not well thought through was challenged to bring to light a more complete answer. Teacher Two did not
probe for these answers in a way that made students feel uncomfortable but instead she encouraged students so that they appeared to feel confident of giving the answer she required.

Finally, Teacher Two’s attention to detail was, like Teacher One, very obvious and it enabled her to engage with all students in her classes. She seemed to be able to tell from the front of the room which students were in conversation about unrelated matters and which students were talking about the work. As soon as she noticed students off-task she brought them back on-track by encouraging them or making a joke. She mentally kept a tally of who had contributed to the lesson and who hadn’t so that she could draw in those students more reluctant to participate by questioning them or using other techniques. Finally, like Teacher One, she attended to the neatness of the room, noticed who was missing from class and ensured that small misdemeanours like chewing gum or not wearing the school uniform with pride were mentioned and settled.
Teacher Three, like Teacher One, was a very experienced teacher who held a coordinator’s position within the school. He moved around the school in a similar way to Teachers One and Two in that he noticed and remarked upon students who were not necessarily doing the right thing. However, he appeared to do this less than Teacher One.

His most outstanding characteristic was his patient manner. As a maths teacher of one of the lower ability classes he was required to explain the same concept or process time and time again to students who did not understand the first, second or even third time. He never showed a trace of exasperation or impatience at these times but almost seemed to enjoy the challenge of putting his explanations in different ways so students would be able to grasp the concept. His manner was exceedingly gentle, yet firm. He smiled, joked and constantly praised students, consciously building their self-esteem. Teacher Three never put students down for getting the wrong answers or making careless mistakes. He was always polite and courteous to students and thanked them for tasks that many teachers would expect students to complete without thanks. He clearly treated them with respect.

Teacher Three knew his subject content and how to teach it so well that explanations were carefully scaffolded and well-practised. His refusal to accept called out answers from students (who were often highly impetuous) allowed other students time to think of the answer for themselves. When students struggled to understand or answer a question he encouraged them to ‘have a go’ at answers and to try even if they didn’t think they were right. He considered training students in organisational and social skills to be his responsibility and would remind students of the importance of revising their work and using manners.
Like Teachers One and Two, Teacher Three showed great attention to detail. He noticed when students swung on the back two legs of the chair and corrected them immediately. He noticed who had contributed to lessons and who hadn’t and deliberately brought these students into the lesson. Teacher Three also picked up rubbish from the floor, he remembered who had borrowed equipment during the lesson from other students and ensured it was returned to the rightful owners, and noticed and remarked upon students who weren’t following instructions so that they wouldn’t be left behind.

One moment that stood out in the observation of this teacher was at the beginning of the day when students were lining up for their class. They were highly concerned that Teacher Three might not be taking them for their usual lesson. When it was confirmed that he was on his way the students cheered loudly in response. His manner and skill in teaching them a subject that was traditionally challenging for them was obviously well appreciated.

6.3 Findings of Study Two

Study Two confirmed that the teachers selected for this research were indeed caring teachers, as the majority of their behaviours could be identified from the literature. They also displayed a considerable number of other behaviours not previously listed in the literature which could be categorised according to both the educational and personal domains of care. Each of the caring teachers demonstrated various aspects of care in different ways making it impossible to prescribe a set of actions that would define a teacher as caring or not. Instead, holistically their commitment to manner, relationship building and educational concern was highly evident providing the research with 10 examples of caring teachers in action.
7 STUDY THREE

The 10 peer nominated teachers were interviewed for approximately one hour each to gain an understanding of the ways they believed they demonstrated care to their students and to determine the factors that had an impact on the practice of their care. They were asked open-ended questions which represented the following three research questions: a) how do they demonstrate care to their students? b) what are the personal factors that contribute to their caring? c) what are the factors that support and/or hinder their caring?

The transcribed data were analysed using content analysis. This method revealed three broad categories under which most of the content could be classified. These categories were: (a) mindset (which contributed to the first research question), (b) demonstration of care (which contributed to the second research question), and (c) the factors that support and hinder the teacher’s care of students (which contributed to the third research question). Content within these three broad categories was further classified into sub-categories. An explanation of each of the broad categories and associated sub-categories follows.

7.1 Mindset

The analysis indicated that the caring teachers hold a distinct set of beliefs and values that can be described as a mindset. This mindset provides both their rationale and motivation to care. It can be best described as a firmly embedded set of the beliefs, a personal philosophy or an ethic that underpins their actions and decisions. The data revealed 10 clear mindsets which can be divided into two subsets: five 'teacher mindsets' and five 'personal mindsets'. The teacher mindsets were concerned with what a teacher should do whilst the personal mindsets were not necessarily restricted to the school context although could most certainly be applied within teaching as well.
7.1.1 Personal mindsets

There were five personal mindsets that emerged from the transcribed data and all the participants provided evidence of each of the mindsets although with varying degrees of emphasis. Table 7.1 lists the five personal mindsets and a description of each.

Table 7.1

Personal Mindsets and Descriptions of Each

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal mindset</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do all you can / try to solve the problem</td>
<td>If there is a problem or need you should do all you can to solve it or make things better.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be fair</td>
<td>Give everyone a fair chance to succeed. ‘Level the playing field’ as much as is possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good outcomes often require hard work and/or time</td>
<td>Expect that long term gain will require effort and hard work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People can change for the better</td>
<td>Giving help and assistance will be worth it because people can change.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everyone matters</td>
<td>It doesn’t matter whether a person falls under one’s specific responsibility – care for everyone.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.1.1.1 Do All You Can / Try To Solve The Problem.

This mindset concerns the belief that should a need, issue or problem arise it is important that as much as possible is done to see that change for the better is undertaken and, if appropriate, that the problem is solved. This was the most strongly affirmed mindset out of the 10 that emerged from this study. There were numerous examples of it and each was characterised by what could be described as a strong commitment to see a situation, moment or issue given
whatever attention was required to bring about an appropriate resolution. In most instances this resulted in the expending of an extraordinary amount of time and energy on the part of the teacher. Teachers’ comments that exemplify this mindset include: “Each year brings kids where sometimes all your learning prior [sic] just won’t work, and so you use everything you can - a new set of skills”.

Such skills were referred to both in terms of student outcomes: “There’s some kids, oh no, not that kid again, for whatever reason, but….I’m going to get the best out of you that I can”, and in relation to the learning of content:

> Oh I’m sure there would be people who would just go in and say…’I’ve explained it once or twice and now you will have to go away and do the rest.’ But I can’t do that, like I just think, that’s what I’m paid to do, is to get them to understand this and if I can’t get them to understand it this way then we’ll go back and try it this way, and then I’ll find some other way and if I can’t explain it then we’ll get somebody else to explain it.

This mindset is closely aligned to the persistence that these teachers exhibit in their care of the students. This will be discussed later.

7.1.1.2 Be Fair

Being fair is a reflection of the teachers’ need to keep the ‘playing field as level as possible’. Where they see inequality they will try and do whatever they can to behave fairly and, returning to the last mindset, do whatever it takes to create a fair outcome. Being fair has two dimensions: first is a belief that it is not right to judge or blame, as one teacher notes: “I try to take judgment out of it as much as I can…I’m careful not to judge or blame”. The second dimension relates to ‘leveling the playing field’ so that those students who began with less will at least finish with as much as anybody else. As these teachers reflect on their practices they comment: “I suppose part
of me realises they are sort of disadvantaged and if you can somehow help to change that then that could make a significant difference for some of those kids”. And:

All I want to do is, I want them to learn, but they’re not on a level playing field. So to get to that level playing field they probably need a little bit of a push, more help, something extra and I believe that’s justified, in other words, it’s a social justice issue, so I see it like that, everyone needs a fair chance.

Caring teachers are committed to fairness.

7.1.1.3 Good Outcomes Often Require Hard Work And/Or Time

The caring teachers do not expect that the best results will come easily but will in fact require, in most cases, hard work and time to make them happen. They expect to put in work for long term gain and are not quick to adopt the short term solution. Their perspective of the need for hard work appears to apply to both educational outcomes as well as those that involve relationships and the emotional well-being of students. The caring teachers look to the future and make decisions or undertake paths of action that will be worth it in the long run rather than simply solving the problem now and hoping that it won’t crop up again. The first example demonstrates a caring teacher’s rationale for putting in extra time in preparation and planning to save time in the long run:

Like this might take work, but if it takes work today and then you can use it next year if you’ve got the same class and it’s already there [sic]. Like you’ve got to put in the work somewhere, it’s just managing it.

The second example given here is one that concerns the emotional well-being of all students involved in a plot to relieve one student of some of his own possessions. The teacher explained that a boy in his care who was quite simple-minded had few friends and had been asked by his supposed mates to swap bags for the day. Seeing no particular cause for concern he willingly did
so and when his bag was returned to him at the end of the day it was missing a number of valuable items. The teacher could have taken a number of courses of action, some of which would deal with the situation quickly and easily. Instead, he considered the position of each of the boys and knew that the best outcome would be achieved only if he spent time and effort firstly, by restoring the relationship through the returning of the items; secondly, by giving the injured party the opportunity to share how he had felt; thirdly, by ensuring that the other boys had opportunity to apologise decently; and finally, by devising an appropriate punishment for the students’ trickery and attempted thievery.

This process took time and effort on the part of the teacher and it showed the mindset that is typical of these 10 caring teachers. This mindset can be evidenced in different ways, for example, in other interviews it applied to preparation and programming as well as to decisions that they make concerning how they work with others but it is all still about putting in hard work for the long term outcome.

7.1.1.4 People Can Change For The Better

This mindset is characterised by the belief that none of the work and effort that these teachers expend in caring for students would be worth it if they did not believe that people can change. What is more, people can change for the better. This underlying belief is a part of the rationale for why the caring teachers should expend energy, effort and time; it may result in a change for the better and is therefore worth it. Referring to teachers who have low expectations of their students, this teacher says: “Teachers label kids, he’s dumb, he’ll never get it, he’s an idiot, don’t waste your time…I think my training taught me that that wasn’t right”.

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This mindset is particularly linked with the optimistic attitude that these teachers seem to possess, which is discussed later on. They look for the potential rather than seeing the deficit. As a result there is always something that can be done because according to these teachers, people can change for the better. Anything is ‘worth a shot’ if it can improve the current situation.

7.1.1.5 Everyone Matters

It was clear through the examples of care the 10 teachers detailed in their interviews that they made no distinction between (a) staff and students, (b) students in their own classes and students in other classes, (c) students at their school and students at other schools. To them, people matter and therefore all people are part of their responsibility should assistance be required. This approach appears to be closely aligned to a citizenship or community outlook: if they are part of my world then I have a responsibility towards them.

A teacher spoke about how one afternoon she was leaving to go home at about 4:00pm and saw a girl from the primary school next door waiting outside the school’s gate for her mother to pick her up. Unable to leave her standing there at possible risk to the girl’s safety, the teacher asked her what had been the arrangements with her mother. Seeing that something was clearly not right she took her into the school office where they tried to make contact with either parent. The result was that it took a very long time to locate anybody in her family and the teacher ended up staying for another hour and a half until the mother arrived to collect her daughter. When questioned as to why she was prepared to stay that long in her own time for a student who did not attend her school the teacher’s response was: “But I never would have forgiven myself if we had gone and something had happened, I just couldn’t have left her”. To this teacher the boundaries between whether this student was her responsibility or not was irrelevant. What was
important to her was that the child was safe from harm, and she could not walk away from what she considered to be her obligation.

There were many other examples of the teachers running study groups for any student in a year group, or even for students not attending their school because they began by offering the help to the students they worked with in class but were happy to extend this to anybody who needed the assistance. It matters not whether the students are their ‘problem’ or somebody else’s. What matters is that people who need help are getting it – everyone matters.

Underpinning the five personal mindsets is the notion that (a) change in the current situation is possible and (b) that things will be better if help is given. This attitude of optimism clearly underlies the decisions caring teachers make when they assist anyone in the school community. Table 7.2 shows each of the personal mindsets and the corresponding optimistic beliefs underlying them.
Table 7.2

*Optimistic Beliefs Underpinning Personal Mindsets*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mindset</th>
<th>Optimistic belief</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do all you can /try to solve the problem</td>
<td>Problems will be solved and/or people will get better</td>
<td>‘I suppose that is what I am more interested in doing: just solving problems.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be fair</td>
<td>Fairness is possible</td>
<td>‘I suppose part of me realises they are sort of disadvantaged and if you can somehow help to change that then that could make a significant difference for some of those kids.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good outcomes often require hard work and/or time</td>
<td>Long term gain will be worth the hard work</td>
<td>‘All that hard work you put in you get to reap the benefits.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People can change for the better</td>
<td>People will/can change</td>
<td>‘You’ve got to find the positive and in that way you are not zeroing in on kids’ problems so you try and look for good things and then at the same time try to give them something to work on.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everyone matters</td>
<td>Everyone can get to a better place</td>
<td>‘I don’t think you can be caring and not be caring somewhere else. So I think that if you see something that needs to happen that you try and do something about it within your capabilities.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
While the following teacher mindsets to follow are also characterised by an optimistic attitude, the focus is a little different in that they are more concerned with what teachers should do to fulfill the responsibilities of their profession.

7.1.2 Teacher mindsets

In table 7.3 the five mindsets listed focus on what the caring teachers believe a teacher should do. A description is given for each.

Table 7.3

*Teacher Mindsets and Descriptions of Each*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher mindset</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Make a difference</td>
<td>A teacher should make some sort of positive difference to the lives of his/her students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with the whole student</td>
<td>The whole student is important – a teacher should relate to the emotional and educational aspects of each student.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have boundaries</td>
<td>A teacher should maintain professional boundaries with students whilst maintaining approachability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy teaching and like kids</td>
<td>A teacher should like kids and enjoy teaching as it makes it easier to care for them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be concerned for both content delivery and student well-being but student well-being is more important</td>
<td>A teacher should be concerned for the educational and emotional needs of students but if emotional needs are hindering learning then deal with these as a priority.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All these categories emerged in interviews through comments made or examples given by the teachers. Further probing as to a rationale for these mindsets revealed that teachers saw them as roles that were expected of all teachers and should be part of why teachers chose to enter the profession.

7.1.2.1 Make a Difference

The first teacher mindset strongly links to the first and fourth personal mindsets (first: do all you can /try to solve the problem, and fourth: people can change for the better). If people can change for the better then you need to do all you can to make a difference. This was the most frequently mentioned teacher mindset that emerged from the interview data and it appeared to be firmly linked to the reasons why these teachers chose teaching as a career as illustrated in this comment:

I think I became a teacher in the end because I thought I had something to offer them and...I thought that I could change part of their life and I see, I hope that in my teaching that I make them better people with what I teach, with how I teach, and I think that’s why I care.

Others confirmed this perspective: “I think you don’t go into teaching for any other reason than you think you could make a difference, I truly believe that” and: “I am really aware of the difference that a teacher can make to someone’s life”. The mindset of making a difference is fundamental to their approach to teaching.

7.1.2.2 Work With the Whole Student

Caring teachers seem to perceive students as more than just sponges for knowledge but instead seeing them as people with needs, conflicts and personal contexts. As one teacher notes:
“It’s an expectation for me in my job that if you’re taking on the role of teacher, it’s not just imparting knowledge”. The caring teachers believe therefore that you must work ‘with’ the whole student and that it is necessary to relate to them in that way. ‘Working with the whole student’ means accepting that there may be circumstances that will affect the students’ academic performance. To be able to work with students requires a teacher to know the students in more than just an academic capacity; it requires a teacher to know about them, their interests and their needs as exemplified in this comment: “I think the bottom line is, if you are going to work with people it’s about relationships isn’t it? …. So to build up relationships you need to know people very well, where they’re from, what they do”. Such a focus on the contextual needs of the students does not mean that the caring teachers failed to address the educational needs as well. In the majority of examples given by teachers in the interviews they spoke about caring for students educationally and personally: “I think that you are prepared to listen to them in class, any ideas that they present in class. Talk to them afterwards if they have got some issues, or need help with type of work. Be approachable”. This valuing of relationship and learning outcomes is exemplified in the types of communications that teachers have with their students and this will be explored further when examining the way in which these 10 teachers demonstrate care to their students.

7.1.2.3 Have Boundaries

The issue of maintaining boundaries arose frequently in the data and was referred to in different ways. The importance of having boundaries between teacher and student was frequently cited as important if you are going to care effectively for students. Eight out of the 10 teachers when responding to the question: ‘Are there other ways that teachers demonstrate care
that you personally don’t choose to engage in? Why not?’ gave the example of being over-friendly or over-personal with students. The teachers reported that it was important to have boundaries that allow the space that you need to be professional. An example of this is as follows: “I still like to have that ‘I’m the teacher and you’re the student’ although I still want to be caring and helping in class, but I think still there has to be that line”. Ensuring boundaries between teacher and student without disempowering the students was also mentioned:

You keep it at a professional level and I think some people sort of take caring a little bit too far, like if a kid’s got a problem they try to solve the problem for them, rather than give them a strategy.

Other boundaries that the teachers considered to be important concerned the boundaries of protecting oneself over getting too involved or being taken advantage of. A teacher spoke about this:

I keep that sort of professional distance, partly because I think the kids here sometimes take advantage…it’s more about them trying to bond with you buddy-buddy and I don’t want that. I’ll just say no thanks, how are you today?….I just don’t feel comfortable around that kind of thing.

Conversely, teachers named types of boundaries such as not taking into the classroom their own feelings which are no fault of the students. Teachers recognised that they had a responsibility to leave their own issues behind when dealing with students so as not to damage the relationships they had built with classes and individuals:

If I’ve had a crappy day in the morning with my partner or whatever as soon as I get into the classroom you’re forced to act and so it almost makes me forget and I actually find leaving the classroom I feel better and I’ve almost forgotten about the thing that’s annoyed me. Because you can’t take that into the classroom, you can’t sort of say ‘right, sit down, shut up, I don’t want to talk to you’ because I’ve had a shitty day. You just can’t do that.
Finally, another type of boundary that is considered to be important by the caring teachers related to the rules or protocol of the school. One teacher commented about how she was the person to whom students often came to disclose an abuse situation which led to her having to follow up the issue:

Because a lot of times students can tell you something in confidence and you then have to take it further and that’s really hard, because you feel that you are breaking their trust….But sometimes our hands are tied and we just have to do that.

This situation demonstrates how a mindset (be fair – the fifth personal mindset) may be in conflict with the protocol or rules of the school as is further articulated here: “Sometimes you might want to say…we’ll overlook this or we’ll work another way around this, but sometimes you can’t, you have to follow the rules”. Teachers are professionals and therefore caring cannot be boundless; it must always be appropriate.

7.1.2.4 Enjoy Teaching And Like Kids

One would hope that all teachers would enjoy teaching and like kids in an occupation requiring teachers to spend 30 hours a week with students but it is clear from the way the 10 teachers spoke about other teachers that this was not always the case. A teacher noted the importance of attitude in this regard:

If you are someone who just sees it as a job that you do from 9 till 3, then you are not going to show or demonstrate as much care as someone else who takes it as a vocation as such; something that they do because they really love it and enjoy it, with all its good and bad things.

This observation about teachers loving their choice of career is further highlighted by a genuine fondness for the students: “I think that you’ve got to want to, it’s not that I’ve set out to care for my kids but I am genuinely interested in them”. Finally, a teacher who had been teaching for
over 28 years made this observation regarding the importance of this mindset in view of the long career in teaching:

You’re a long time in teaching; you’re talking about forty years. You change, you move, sometimes it depends on your attitude you have towards it too. And sometimes the kids do wrong by you, so it’s a seesaw. You’ve got to be able to really like the kids, really enjoy the kids.

7.1.2.5 Be Concerned For Both Content Delivery And Student Well-Being But Student Well-Being Is More Important

The final mindset is clearly explained in a comment such as this: “I know I can’t fix all their problems, but if it’s hindering other people’s learning I’ll try and fix it first before focusing on the content”. Furthermore, the following remark emphasises that if the focus is to make things better for the students then that sometimes means letting go of the content until the student is coping:

But I suppose the reason why I care about the content is probably for the kids’ sake. In the end though, I’d be prepared to chuck the content out the window if the kid’s weren’t coping. So for example, I’ve had classes that were so special needs, my only aim was that they would at of the end of the year be going ‘I was happy in [name of subject] and I enjoyed it’, and if that meant just taking it down another stage that’s what I did.

The importance of the priority of student well-being was well supported. While concern for educational progress was considered important as will be discussed under the demonstration of care, if a teacher had to make a decision regarding which to focus upon it would be student well-being. Nine of the 10 teachers mentioned that choosing student well-being over content would be a decision they would make should circumstances make it necessary. Students come with all sorts of issues to a class and to the caring teachers it would seem to be futile to try to get them to learn without dealing with them first. Making a decision between content delivery and student
well-being may come down to this: “I suppose the reason why I say that is I think the person has to be a happy learner before they can learn”.

7.2 Demonstration of Care

The interviews provided the opportunity to confirm information gleaned from the observations in terms of how teachers demonstrated care to their students. There were nine key areas revealed through the interview data. Previous qualities and practices from the literature and Studies One and Two were raised again in this study and three new areas also became apparent. The nine areas in order of those most mentioned by caring teachers are listed here with the three new areas italicized: (a) relational behaviours, (b) commitment, (c) recognition of own limitations, (d) educational care, (e) compassion, (f) flexibility, (g) persistence, (h) empathy, and (i) attentiveness. Table 7.4 shows the caring practices with a brief description of each. Each of the practices of care listed in Table 7.4 relates back to some of the mindsets listed in Tables 7.1 and 7.3. Table 7.5 shows the relationship between the caring practices and the mindsets.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Caring practice</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relational behaviours</td>
<td>Relational behaviours represents the way in which one works with people within the school community e.g. manner, getting to know students, talking and listening, developing trust, dealing with problems and relationships with staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Getting involved in extra-curricular activities of the school and giving individuals and small groups extra time and/or support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition of own limitations</td>
<td>Recognising that one alone cannot solve the problem or help the person to the fullest – it may require further advice from others or passing the problem onto someone with more expertise. Sometimes it may mean letting go of the issue because self-detriment of the carer could be the outcome if more effort is expended.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational care</td>
<td>Concern for the educational progress of students demonstrated in preparation, instruction, assessment and delivery of content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td>The response one feels when identifying a student issue or need that is not the norm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>The way in which one responds to individual situations – the use of personal and professional judgment to determine the most fair course of action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>The drive to continue on with a particular course of action despite setbacks or difficulties along the way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>The ability to put oneself in someone else’s situation and see it from their perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attentiveness</td>
<td>The awareness of difference and how to best deal with the difference for student gain.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 7.5

*Relationship Between Mindsets and Demonstration of Care*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mindset</th>
<th>Demonstration of care</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do all you can / try to solve the problem</td>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>In order to do all you can to assist or solve the problem you must persist despite setbacks or difficulties.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>You can’t do all you can unless you are committed to the person/task in the first place. The commitment must endure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognition of own</td>
<td>Sometimes doing all you can means referring the issue / person to someone else’s care.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>limitations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have to be fair</td>
<td>Attentiveness</td>
<td>You need to be able to recognise that there is an inequity that needs to be fixed and then know how to proceed with fixing it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td>Recognizing the inequity will often inspire compassion, encouraging action to make things right.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>Bringing about fairness often comes through negotiation, compromise and adjustments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relational behaviours</td>
<td>Working with individuals and groups to create an equal playing field requires knowing the situation well and the people involved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educational care</td>
<td>Students are at different levels for a variety of reasons – your job is to get them to where they should be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mindset</td>
<td>Demonstration of care</td>
<td>Explanation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good outcomes often require hard work and/or time</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Commitment is necessary to underpin the hard work and time needed to reach good outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>Reaching good outcomes will require persistence in some circumstances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People can change for the better</td>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>People can change for the better but persistence may be required when there is resistance, difficulties and setbacks. If it were easy in the first place people would be able to change by themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everyone matters</td>
<td>Attentiveness</td>
<td>Be aware of all people and their needs – staff, students, parents, and the whole school community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td>Feel concerned for all people within the school community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relational behaviours</td>
<td>Get to know individuals and talk and listen to them no matter who they are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make a difference</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>If you want to make a difference to students then you must be committed to their needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>If you want to make a difference to students then you must persist through difficulties and setbacks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with the whole student</td>
<td>Relational behaviours</td>
<td>Work with the students’ social and emotional well-being by getting to know them and finding out how to help.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educational care</td>
<td>Work with the students’ educational needs and find out how to help them make progress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mindset</td>
<td>Demonstration of care</td>
<td>Explanation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have boundaries</td>
<td>Relational behaviours</td>
<td>Manner and relationship needs to be kept within professional limits to protect all parties concerned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognition of own</td>
<td>Recognising how much one can give of oneself to a situation is an important part of ensuring that relationships remain professional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>limitations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy teaching and like kids</td>
<td>Relational behaviours</td>
<td>Relating to students will be genuine and natural if you like kids and enjoy teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td>Feeling concern for students’ situations will be an important part of liking the students and working with them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>If you like kids and enjoy teaching then empathy will be an important part in understanding them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The relationship between the mindsets and practices of care will be explained further in the following section as each demonstration of care is described and illustrated.

7.2.1 Relational behaviours

The way in which caring teachers demonstrated care to students was most strongly characterised by their interactions with students both as individuals and as a class. This is closely aligned with the teaching mindset that calls for teachers to ‘work with the whole student’. In other words, if you do not discount the personal side of students in order to bring about change for the better then relating to your students personally will be an important part of your practice. The following example explains the reasons why such importance should be placed on the development of relationships:

I think you should value relationships. Or be able to know that relationships are very valuable….You’ve got to get on with them [the students]; you’re going to be there for the whole year with them. I think it’s just basic commonsense, you get on with people.

Of the nine key areas that emerged, the particular area of relating to others and, most specifically to students, was raised nearly three times more frequently than any other. Data indicated that these relational behaviours are demonstrated in the following ways: (a) manner; (b) getting to know students, (c) talking and listening, (d) developing trust, (e) problem management, and (f) relating to staff. Each of these aspects will be explained.
7.2.1.1 Manner

Manner is the way on which teachers relate to students in all aspects of the delivery of lessons, and is reflective of the teacher mindset that states that you should like kids and enjoy teaching. If you like the students you will be more likely to treat them accordingly. According to the teachers, ‘how’ one relates to students through manner or demeanour is very important in caring for students. The importance of this aspect in teaching is not new to what has already emerged in the literature, Study One and Study Two. It was stated: “[You need] to be approachable, to be someone that they can talk to, that they feel that they are not frightened to come and talk with”. Another teacher adds: “I try to talk with them nicely, no matter when they come to see you I try to be approachable”.

It can also be a matter of treating students how you would like them to treat you as commented here: “Show people who you are, you know, show them that you are caring, that you are passionate, that you are honest, that you are transparent, that you are loyal, and you will get that back”. For some teachers, manner also involves being tactile with their students even though they know that the current practice in teaching is that this should not be encouraged: “When they [the students] are really upset I will hold their arm or I will try to comfort them and that happens quite regularly”.

7.2.1.2 Getting to Know Students

Caring teachers consider that getting to know their students, showing interest in them personally and finding out about their interests and personal lives is an important part of relating to students and ultimately caring for them. As is noted here:
I try to get to know my students as well as I can, not just learning ability or their styles, just them as people and I guess throughout the year I know what they’re like; what kind of music, who they hang out with, who their latest boyfriend is or whatever.

The importance of knowing students was confirmed by another teacher:

I sort of pride myself, if you like, on knowing things about them that’s not just about, you know, what they do in [subject] but you know what sport they might play on the weekend or if they’re having problems with their parents or their brothers or their friendship groups.

7.2.1.3 Talking and Listening

Furthermore, talking and listening to students is also considered a valuable activity by these caring teachers. This sub-category is distinct from ‘getting to know students’ as the process of talking and listening might not necessarily have the purpose of finding out any information. Sometimes, it is simply about showing students that one is interested in them rather than purposefully building a relationship. A teacher illustrated this when she said: “I always try to have a friendly interaction with them, often while they’re getting their books out, just to say ‘hi how are you going? How’s your day been?’” Letting students know that you are listening to them and that you are interested in what they have to say is another way in which caring teachers interact with their students: “You’ll listen to them or if someone sends them to you, you’ll listen to them regardless of what you’re going to decide that’s going to happen later, but you give them the option to hear them”. The importance of listening to students and talking with them, even if briefly, is essential to building relationships.

7.2.1.4 Developing Trust
Developing trust between themselves and the students was identified by teachers in the sample as an important feature of relating to students. The relationship between trust and learning, they maintain, is closer than some perhaps realise. As one teacher explains: “You have to be able to work with them one on one and I guess forgive them their failings because if you don’t have that, they won’t trust you”.

Earning students’ trust is an important part of being able to teach them as this teacher demonstrates:

Dealing with them, the way you talk to them, the way you develop a relationship with them and as I said before, relationships are the most important thing. I don’t think that kids will let you teach them, if I can use that expression, unless they know you care for them.

7.2.1.5 Problem Management

Part of relating to students is being able to assist them when there is a difficulty for them or when they are going through a testing problem. As a teacher commented: “If a child is in tears I am going to set the class some work and focus on that child”. And another provided this example of how she liked to work with students who are upset or distressed:

There are plenty of examples I can think of where a particular student has been in trouble of some kind, maybe had a bad day at home and [I have] sat down with them and talked it through with them and there’ve gone off with a smile on their face.

Sometimes the caring teachers need to act in a disciplinary role as part of the issue that has arisen but as one teacher maintains, even this may be approached in such a way that there can be support and care for the student: “There’s sometimes like a violent situation when kids have been fighting. That’s all sad; you just got to make sure that stops and you’ve thoroughly worked through all that”.
7.2.1.6 Relating to Staff

The caring teachers appear to make little, if any, distinction between the students and the staff. All with whom they work seem to be treated in a manner that builds relationships. An all-encompassing demonstration of care relates closely to the personal mindset of ‘everyone matters’. One teacher, as a subject coordinator, had the responsibility of mentoring five beginning teachers within her department and she said:

I spent a lot of time with them building them up, they all had senior classes the first year, purely because we just needed to cover the classes, I couldn’t do anything else. So I guess I’ve spent a lot of time with them, showing them, in-servicing them, and you know I think when you, like I genuinely care for them and I really like them as people …. so inevitably you’re asking ‘how was your weekend?’ or ‘you seem a bit upset today’ and you build up that rapport.

Sometimes, the support given to staff may not be about teaching itself but may have something to do with personal problems, but this is also part of the what some caring teachers get involved in: “So that if the teachers have problems, then I try and deal with them too”. For staff and students to feel comfortable in discussing their problems and issues the caring teachers have needed to make themselves available and approachable in manner.
7.2.2 Commitment

Commitment was the second most mentioned feature of the teachers’ approach to caring. Caring teachers believe that good outcomes often require hard work and/or time (see the first personal mindset – do all you can/try to solve the problem). As a result, their practice reflects this through a commitment to the students they teach. They expect to put in hard work and time to achieve what needs to be done and, in particular, done well. They expect that you will need to spend extra time and energy with students who need it. This is part of the thinking about being fair (see the second personal mindset); bringing everyone up to the same bar through hard work. They want to get involved with the extra-curricular activities offered at the school because it gives them opportunities to build relationships with students. They like students and are happy to spend extra time with them (see the fourth teacher mindset). As a result of these mindsets, what the caring teachers do in practice is spend time with students that other teachers may consider to be above and beyond the call of duty. Caring teachers do this in two ways by: getting involved in extra-curricular activities and being available to students to give them extra time and/or assistance. These are detailed further in the next two paragraphs.

When asked ‘Can you talk about a time when you believe you demonstrated care to a student or group of students?’ this teacher raised the issue of extra-curricular activities: “I think the Duke of Edinburgh and the Leadership Camps, take[ing] them away on holidays or holiday outings, just look[ing] after them, food and stuff like that”. Being able to spend time with students in such an informal situation and show care for them required considerable commitment on the part of the teachers, and was considered to be one way in which they could care for their students outside of normal circumstances.
Teachers frequently described situations where students needed extra assistance educationally or personally, and where they had been involved in ensuring that the student(s) received the support they needed: “I give them a lot of time, so what ever time I’ve got to give, I’ll give it”. This commitment is demonstrated in both extra time to teach skills or content or in situations of a more personal nature:

In the past I’ve used my free lessons to actually follow up maybe fights that have occurred in the playground or a child has had their locker broken into. I use my free lessons to actually find and get details, start chasing things. Or I might call parents if I’m a bit concerned about this, this or this.

Similarly, a teacher may spend hours of his/her own time in order to see a crisis through to some type of resolution. An example was given by one teacher when he referred to a girl he taught who belonged to the sub-culture ‘emo’, and was, in his words “a loner and a very, very, very, really bad attention seeker”. It was her habit to take a lot of pills and knock herself out. This she did in class as well as at her high school formal. On two occasions, the teacher had to take her to the hospital, phone the parents and spend, as was the case of the high school formal, spend all night at the hospital until she was on the road to recovery. In his words: “she was one of the ones I wouldn’t give up on”.

7.2.3 Recognition of Own Limitations

Recognition of limitations is a practice of care that has not emerged in the caring teacher literature or the two previous studies and relates closely to the third teacher mindset about the importance of boundaries. Recognition of limitations is most often about identifying when you have done all that can you can to make a situation better. It can involve passing that issue to someone else with better skills or energy to deal with it. It is sometimes about letting go when it
is time to let go, but that can be a significant act of care for students in these situations. It is often about getting advice before pursuing a course of action or simply not allowing oneself to get too involved. This self-honesty may be an important key to protecting oneself from burning out or from acting unwisely because the situation is beyond one’s own strengths. It always seems to be about doing what is best for the students even if that does mean letting them go so they might find someone else who can help them more.

Sometimes teachers have felt that the best course of action is to say: ‘I have tried but there is no more that I can do’. However, this is usually accompanied by regret and, at times, guilt as illustrated by the number of teachers recalling events long past that were still remembered quite vividly and recounted with regret. For these teachers it is a matter of acknowledging one’s own limitations and humbly recognizing that someone else might have more success. This was the situation with a teacher who had a student living in difficult family circumstances. In the end, the practical needs that this student needed to be met were beyond the scope of the teacher’s job:

He [the student] didn’t want help, and whether that was bravado to say ‘I’m alright, leave me alone, I’m cool, I’m fine’. But in the meantime he was dirty, he smelt, hygiene wasn’t good so it was a matter of me going to the parent liaison officer, who was Sister [first name] at the time, and saying ‘listen he needs his clothes washed’. And she used to go over to the house and take him out of the house and sober dad up, but she was one tough nun!

For some, it is a matter of acknowledging the need for advice in order to work out how to proceed with a student, as one teacher comments: “That situation where sometimes it’s a case of not knowing what the best thing to do as well, that’s where the other support people come in, someone else you can talk it through with”. Sometimes teachers can recognise that they are getting too involved and that it is important that students not be aware of how they are feeling. Put simply this teacher said:
It’s high energy because it affects you. ‘Cause you get involved…your heart gets pulled, but you have to show calm and you’ve got to show that – and that is taxing, it’s hard….Yes, the emotions are all there, I just have to work hard not to show that.

Occasionally, a teacher doesn’t withdraw early enough from the emotion and involvement, as this teacher illustrates:

I remember one day I had a little boy (I was year 7 coordinator) and he just told me how his father had been killed and it had happened a long time ago but he was inconsolable and then I could just feel the tears welling in my eyes and I wasn’t a good support that day…Oh I just cried with him, like they see the counsellor after seeing me because sometimes you get really attached to kids!

Or at other times, teachers can see that they may not be reacting in the way that they should with a particular student and that ‘space’ from the student or situation is required. As one teacher recounted: “I think it makes it easier to care about them when you’ve only got them for that shorter period of time because, I think, they go and you get a chance to think about it”.

Failing to assist students in whatever way they can is in direct conflict with the first personal mindset (‘do all you can /try to solve the problem’) and more often than not appears to leave the teacher with regret. This teacher describes how she felt when she hadn’t succeeded in keeping a student at school in the final year of school:

It feels really difficult when you know that you can’t really do anything beyond that. That was beyond my control, it was beyond his parents’ control so that was really hard…. I felt, I know that I wasn’t responsible, but you can’t help but feel that sometimes that perhaps I could have done something, yeah what else could I have done?

Recognising one’s own limitations can sometimes lead to guilt, frustration or pain because it is in direct competition with the mindset of ‘do all you can /try to solve the problem’.
7.2.4 Educational Care

Teachers who care for their students are highly concerned with the educational progress of their students. Much of this practice has been discussed earlier in the section on commitment, however further illustrations of their care in this manner will be provided here.

Assisting students with how to process their work is one way that teachers show educational care for their students. As this teacher describes “I guess that’s the way you’re showing caring, you’re showing them how to achieve rather than just giving them the information”. Care in preparation and in providing detailed feedback to students was also interpreted as educational care by another teacher as illustrated here:

I certainly put a lot of time into organising their work so that they feel like every lesson is worthwhile so that they feel like I care about them in that way. And also in marking their work, I try to get their work back to them really quickly and they love that.

In a similar way, this following teacher ensures that feedback is thorough and helpful: “In my feedback I will normally write half a page to a page of comments and things like that”.

7.2.5 Compassion

Caring teachers respond to students and their needs with compassion. This relates most strongly to the fourth teacher mindset concerning ‘enjoying teaching and liking kids’. The compassion that the teachers feel is part of what motivates them to try and do something to make the situation better for the students, which also relates closely to the personal mindset of ‘you’ve got to be fair’. It is often in realizing the circumstances within which students are trying to deal that teachers will find themselves responding in some way to assist them. As this teacher notes:

Sometimes I think there are all these kids coming to school with all these other problems, school’s just a minor problem compared to what’s happening in the outside world and I’d like to think we can provide an environment where they feel that they are safe and that
they are secure because a lot of them don’t have that outside the school grounds. It’s really sad.

Even more closely aligned to the mindset ‘you’ve got to be fair’ is this teacher’s comment regarding how she finds herself responding compassionately to what she considers to be unfair treatment:

I really hate the idea of kids suffering through school, like I really hate stories where you find out kids are being bullied, and even with teachers and students, like you hear teachers who are maybe a bit hard on students and I think perhaps unfair and I think they should be given a fair go.

Sometimes the response is simply one more of empathy rather than one of action as can be seen in this example:

You know when you become emotionally involved with something there’s always that draining aspect at times where you’re constantly thinking about it, you know you’re worrying about it. I’ve had three students in year 12 this year who left, I started with them in year 11 and we got to year 12 and they dropped out due to depression and you know these were really beautiful, you know, amazing students, sorry (cries). You know that was really upsetting, you know, because they’d gone so far.

Compassion is an involuntary reaction of a caring teacher when they see someone in need. Compassion is what stimulates their inner response to that need.

7.2.6 Flexibility

Flexibility describes the way in which the teachers responded to different situations and adjusted their own responses to meet the needs of the particular context. This demonstration of care closely aligns to the mindset of ‘you’ve got to be fair’ and that might mean dealing with similar situations differently. This particular quality in caring teachers had not emerged so clearly in either the descriptions of caring teachers given by those on staff (Study One) nor in the
observations of teachers (Study Two). To caring teachers it was common sense that you would adjust methods or responses according to the situation. Sometimes it involves responding to classes in different ways as these two examples demonstrate:

I look for ways where I can do things differently and with one class, if I’ve got two classes (I’ve got two year 10 geography classes), I’ve done different things with them than I’ve done with others, just because changing the dynamics of the classroom with different kids is important.

And from another teacher:

I’m very much about picking up the mood of the class because that’s what affects the way that I interact with them. If they’re working well then I can relax more and be more, I suppose, warm in my manner, but if I can sense that they’re just going to be naughty I set up the strict boundaries around them and they’re not going to have much class discussion and it’s going to be work and that kind of thing.

For caring teachers flexibility can be about giving certain students ‘a break’ when following rules stringently is not necessarily the solution to the situation. This teacher explains:

This is what I sometimes find difficult with the pastoral care, I’m not black and white. You can’t be black and white at school. You have to say, this student is really having difficult problems at home or there’s things happening in their life that’s really difficult. I can’t come down on them like a ton of bricks.

The practice of care through flexibility is described here by one teacher as she refers to her own practices and those of the other two colleagues who were peer nominated as caring teachers by the staff:

I think the two other caring teachers are very similar to me in that we don’t always necessarily have to do it by the books but we certainly don’t go against the books. We also can look at a context and bring all these factors in and be comfortable that this is the choice we’ve made, and to give that support because it was reasoned.

Flexibility means that a teacher will need to read the situation carefully and make judgments that will be best for all.
7.2.7 Persistence

Persistence is never giving up; it is persevering even when it would seem that the outcome might not be achieved. Caring teachers may be persistent when it comes to ensuring students have learnt a concept or skill, or are improving generally in a subject, or building up in confidence or even just staying at school until they finish their studies. Persistence relates to the first, third and fourth personal mindsets of (a) ‘do all you can / try to solve the problem’, (b) ‘good outcomes often require hard work and/or time’ and (c) ‘people can change for the better’.

Caring teachers were asked why they thought it was that some teachers were able to demonstrate care better than others and one teacher responded: “Perseverance. You kind of know that you’ve got to do something otherwise the alternative is not good for them, and I feel that they’re under my care so I can’t ignore it, I’ve got to do something about it”. Another teacher responded to the question in the interview in which he was asked to name a time when he was not able to demonstrate care to a student or group of students by saying: “Because of who they are? No, I like to conquer that. It’s a challenge. No, I see that as a challenge”. This same teacher spoke later about reaching students who don’t feel confident in his particular subject and therefore don’t like the subject:

One of my favourite things at the beginning of the year is to ask ‘Who hates [subject]?’ My job is going to change that, I’m going to ask you the same question at the end of the year…I say if at the end of the year you say you still hate [subject], then I’ve failed this year with you. I’ll make sure I get you next; I’ll work on you again.

Returning to a quotation used earlier under personal mindsets reminds us of the persistence teachers might exhibit when assisting children to learn:

If I can’t get them to understand it this way then we’ll go back and try it this way, and then I’ll find some other way and if I can’t explain it then we’ll get somebody else to explain it.
It is interesting to note that in the last quote the teacher takes responsibility for the lack of understanding, resulting in a persistence to modify her own techniques of explanation to yield results.

7.2.8 Empathy

Empathy is the ability to sense and understand someone else’s feelings. The caring teachers interviewed appeared empathetic towards students as they worked alongside of them. As one teacher said “I think some people understand the emotions better than others. I understand the emotions that are involved with the fights, with the troubles, with the relationships with the teachers”. And later he said:

I know the chemicals that are going through their body and I know what they’re thinking and sometimes they’re just gee’ed up by certain situations and they can’t help being stupid and in silly places and make all sorts of mistakes that way.

This experienced teacher’s ability to understand how the students were feeling and why they did what they did assisted him to be patient and sympathetic with their mistakes. Such empathy may increase his tolerance and the likelihood of finding a response to the situation that is appropriate.

In comparison to the experience of the last teacher this teacher who is quite inexperienced, made similar comments:

Just seeing it from the student’s perspective because every now and then I do take stock of thinking: ‘You poor thing, you must be so bored, or must be just overwhelmed, because you don’t get any of this’. I think if everybody now and then took time to remember the students are even more overwhelmed with trying to get through the work, then I think we’d be able to care a lot more, we’d be able to be more empathetic to the kids. We struggle with getting through the content but they’ve got to struggle with getting through it and understand it.
The skill of putting yourself in the shoes of the students is an important one if a response to a student’s situation needs to be appropriate and sensitive. The demonstration of empathy is another essential skill that caring teachers possess.

7.2.9 Attentiveness

The data suggests that the skill of noticing or being aware of students is, like empathy, important to responding appropriately to students and various situations. Attentiveness involves an intuition about where ‘students are at’ or as one teacher calls it ‘being present’. Attentiveness is a term used by Elbaz (1992) to describe the capacity to notice, be aware and sense the potential for growth. Fisher and Tronto (1990) also identify this skill in phase one of their caring process. Attentiveness is almost like a sixth sense that enables a person to be aware that someone is behaving differently to normal or struggling with the work. It describes the ability to see through the body language and manner of students and be able to interpret it correctly then know how to work with that. Knowing instinctively how to deal with particular issues as they arise is part of being attentive. This skill, though evident in the interview data, was the least mentioned demonstration of care. However, in Study Two where observations of the teachers were recorded, caring teachers exhibited a strong attentiveness in their dealing with students. The discrepancy may suggest that the skill of attentiveness is by nature quite subconscious and not something of which the teachers are entirely aware. However, it is also likely that they might recognise that they are attentive but not be aware that other teachers perhaps are not.

One teacher describes attentiveness best when she says:

I think sometimes you’ll have a really good day and everything’s really organised and really focused so you can come in and be really present, and I think that’s what caring is,
being really present to the needs of the kids, in terms of their curriculum as much as in terms of who they are as a person.

When asked how teachers could be encouraged to be more caring one teacher remarked: “They have to see it, they have to recognise it, the caring that’s needed to be done and the actual problems. They have to see the needs that are there”. If you can’t recognise the need for care then you can’t care. Another teacher tried to explain why some teachers don’t show the same care for students that she does: “Maybe they don’t see it”. Caring for students is not possible unless you see the needs of the students first. This requires an attentiveness to know how to deal with each situation as it emerges. It is a skill that caring teachers utilise in their daily interactions with students.

7.3 Factors that supported their caring practices

At different stages throughout the interview teachers were specifically asked to comment on the factors that may have supported or hindered their caring. The caring teachers mentioned factors that supported their practice with greater frequency than the factors that hindered. There were 193 comments made concerning factors that assisted the teachers’ practice of caring resulting in seven categories. They are listed as follows: (a) school climate, (b) reminding staff of relational aspects to teaching, (c) students responding positively to care, (d) good school leadership, (e) time with students in less formal situations, (f) good role models, and (g) continuity with classes.

7.3.1 School climate

School climate was raised most often (more than 30% of the comments overall) as a supportive factor that assisted the teachers interviewed with caring for their students. School
climate describes the collective atmosphere, attitudes and support within the school. The school climate may be contributed to by staff, school executives, students and parents. When asked what assisted his caring practices one teacher very simply responded: “This school works”. The three schools that took part in the study had a number of structures in place that assisted teachers in caring for students. Additionally, or maybe as a result of this, students were easy to manage and colleagues were supportive of each other. Overall, there were three sub-factors that produced a positive school climate: a) easy to manage students, b) supportive colleagues, and c) clear school systems. These three sub-categories together produced a school climate that the caring teachers believed was the most important factor in supporting their and other teachers’ care for students.

7.3.1.1 Easy to Manage Students

Three teachers commented that they found the students easy to manage. These teachers came from each of the three schools in the study. One was quite specific in her praise of the students and reported that it was a supportive factor in her caring for students: “I think I’m lucky here in that most of the students start from the fact that they are very respectful. They actually are quite motivated and that’s really easy to work with”. One of the other teachers simply explained that caring for students was made easy due to the “nature of the kids”, whilst another noted that he genuinely liked the kids and found them appreciative.
7.3.1.2 Supportive Colleagues

Teachers found that the support from colleagues was a very important factor in the school climate. There were a number of ways that colleagues supported the caring teachers. Most prominently, teachers spoke of colleagues who would hear them out when they were experiencing a problem or issue. One teacher explained why such a support was necessary to her: “I still find I need to bounce off someone else…I still think that a support network and someone to talk to is always really important”. For another teacher support came by way of receiving advice: “Sometimes it’s a case of not knowing what the best thing to do is and that’s where the other support people come in, someone else you can talk it through with”.

At times, the support comes from knowing that you are trusted in your own decision making:

As a year coordinator and a teacher I know that I’ve done certain steps without asking someone is that the right or wrong thing. I know [principal’s name] or my next in charge all the way up to the principal will say ‘I will support you with what you’ve done’

Or staff at the school discussing effective strategies: “So you’re constantly reminded of good techniques. People talk of good techniques; it is open discussion good techniques; what works, what doesn’t work”.

Collegial support might also be about the community aspect of the staff, as this example demonstrates: “Like I think about our staff room here, like that’s a community that helps you be caring” and “see the thing is the teachers here care about each other and I think that makes the difference too and they’re supportive….So I think the climate is very, very important”.

7.3.1.3 School Structures

This was a factor that was raised frequently as a support for assisting teachers in the care of students. Across the three schools there were a number of ways that the structures ensured that
teachers were supported. The structures raised by teachers were: (a) a clear hierarchy of problem management, (b) school rules that were well known by staff and students, (c) a vertical house system, (d) pastoral care time designated in the timetable once a fortnight, (e) mentoring programs for new staff, (f) weekly staff briefings, and, (g) a weekly information sheet reminding staff of ways in which to work with students. Each of these structures is listed in Table 7.7 with a brief explanation and sample comment.

Table 7.6

*School Structures that Assisted Teachers in Caring*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School structure</th>
<th>Brief explanation</th>
<th>Sample comment</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clear hierarchy of problem management</td>
<td>Students and teachers are aware of to whom they should refer matters should difficulties become too much to handle</td>
<td>Students’ hierarchy: “they’ve got their pastoral teacher and then they’ve got their classroom teachers and then they’ve got their year coordinator and assistant year coordinator”. Teachers’ hierarchy: “You can go to their PC (pastoral care) teacher, you can go their year coordinators or their subject coordinators because they are always ready to make themselves available to you”</td>
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<tr>
<td>School structure</td>
<td>Brief explanation</td>
<td>Sample comment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Well-known school rules</td>
<td>Clear school rules that are upheld consistently by all staff.</td>
<td>“[Principal’s name] does a really good job and the year coordinators do a really good job of instilling the rules, everybody knows the rules”.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vertical house system</td>
<td>A vertical house system that kept students of varying ages with one teacher together during roll call or home room procedures for the six years of high school.</td>
<td>“[The] house system was probably singularly the biggest structure that assisted caring, like they are families…[it] really assisted because you got to know the kids beyond the context of the classroom…and the vertical system is much stronger than having the horizontal”.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Designated pastoral care time</td>
<td>Teachers facilitated one lesson a fortnight talking with the students about specific topics. It was not an academic class.</td>
<td>“It’s quite relaxed, it’s not so structured as a normal lesson, no exams, it is more discussions, spending time with each other, learning things about each other, the school”.</td>
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<td>Mentoring programs for new staff</td>
<td>Open dialogue where teachers could feel free to ask questions and get the support that they needed.</td>
<td>“There is also the idea of getting together as a group and sharing ideas on ways - like we do a thing on HSC Symposium – teachers who are teaching HSC for the first time or teaching year 11, and again it’s a little bit of mentoring as well, you get the experienced teachers in, you get the new ones in to say, well, this is what I found last year”.</td>
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<tr>
<td>School structure</td>
<td>Brief explanation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Weekly staff briefings</td>
<td>Staff briefings where year coordinators were given the opportunity to discuss any particular student needs or situation that may affect an individual student’s work. ‘There’s a person this week who’s going to be displaying some certain behaviours because this is going on at home, there’s stuff at the moment. Please settle them down quickly, don’t wind them’.</td>
<td>“A year coordinator might say:”</td>
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<tr>
<td>Information notices that remind staff of caring approaches</td>
<td>The purpose of the weekly notice is similar to the briefing in that it informs teachers of changes and administration matters but it also gives the pastoral care coordinator of the school an opportunity to remind teachers of good relational practices in the classroom.</td>
<td>Reading from the notices sheet a teacher quotes: Effective communications: you should never argue with a student in front of the class nor allow a student to argue the point in front of the class. He comments: “So these things are coming from our pastoral care coordinator. When you think about these things, it’s so true”.</td>
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### 7.3.2 Reminding Staff of Relational Aspects to Teaching

Nine of the 10 teachers spoke about how helpful it was to be reminded of the relational aspects of teaching that highlighted practical strategies of how to deal with students. Some spoke about particular professional development activities held at their school that had already
given some insight and assistance to not only themselves but others on staff, whilst many others suggested particular topics that they thought would help all teachers.

One school in particular had spent many hours of professional development time learning about Restorative Justice Practices. Teachers developed skills in bringing about reconciliation between parties where relationships had been damaged by wrong-doing. As one teacher confirmed:

I think it was five or six years ago since we started Restorative Justice. I know that’s had a big effect on me with how you refine the way you speak to kids, you refine your way on how to deal with situations.

A professional development opportunity given to staff at the same school was raised by another staff member:

We have spirituality days and a lot of it’s focused on our relationships with one another as teacher-teacher, and a lot of it focuses on teacher-student relationships…I think those kind of days help to refocus your attention on “okay what am I here for, what am I supposed to do”.

Exposure to thinking about how staff should foster emotional well-being in students was the agenda item for one school. A teacher describes what occurred and how she personally found it helpful:

What they did was they interviewed a number of students from a range of years. They sat them down, it was just a recording, and they said to the students “okay, what do you think teachers can improve on, how do you know when the teacher’s in a bad mood?” It was really all these different answers that students gave and we looked at what we could improve, what are we doing well and I think schools should be doing things like that.

Teacher experiences did not appear to impact on this dimension; all seem to acknowledge that this type of learning is crucial to dealing with students in a caring way.
7.3.3 Students Responding Positively to Care

There was little doubt that teachers felt that their caring practices were supported when they saw evidence that their caring made a difference. There were nineteen comments from eight of the teachers that made mention of this factor.

In some instances it encouraged teachers to care when students were simply open to be ‘cared for’. As one teacher responded to the question ‘what are the factors that support your caring?’: “They let you care for them”. Later, this same teacher further elaborated with the example of a student who had some marked difficulties in his first two years of high school but now, due to accepting her care, was working very well: “He came to the table; he was willing to work it out”. The willingness on the part of the student to allow the teacher’s care and support in turn supported the continuance of caring. This receiving of care is apparently important to the care process, which is also confirmed by Noddings (1984).

The sheer satisfaction of knowing that they had ‘made a difference’ was the focus of many comments. The contentment that comes from knowing that they have fulfilled their most focal teacher mindset - ‘make a difference’ - was very important. Teachers commented that it was “really thrilling”, “it’s good that you can help them”, and “it makes you feel good so you feel energized, you go home and you feel like you’ve made a difference”. Making a difference appeared to invigorate the teachers and sustained them in their caring for students.

Being thanked or at least acknowledged in some way by the students was also a factor that assisted teachers to continue caring for their students. One teacher describes how it helps her to be thanked: “I think it all comes back to sometimes how much you’re appreciated for what you do…you don’t want enormous accolades”. In response to the question ‘what are the factors that support your caring?’ this teacher put all of the above comments about appreciation together:
If the students respond and are prepared to accept and say thank you for what you are doing….And it doesn’t have to be a big thank you, sometimes it can be just the look on their faces [that] is enough to say to you: “I’ve done the right thing and this has really worked”…I know it sounds a little bit like I’m only doing it because I love them to say thank you but I don’t think it is that at all….I think it’s a case of a certain amount of satisfaction on my part that I can see that something has worked, that they’re working better or seem happier in themselves.

7.3.4 Good School Leadership

The importance of school leadership as a supportive factor was not a point made by all teachers in all schools; school B was not represented in this area but there were no any negative comments in this regard either. The remarks of the four teachers from the other two schools, however, were quite lengthy and enthusiastic concerning the quality of support they felt they received within their school. The leadership in the school was considered to be important because it provided a trustworthy sounding board as was the case in this example:

There are still things that I look to people and I say: ‘gee, that’s good, I’ll use that or I failed at this, what did I do wrong?’ I go and ask [principal’s name], my boss… It helps, it does help.

The following response describes clearly the benefits for the whole school community when the school leaders demonstrate care and support:

Yes, it [good leadership] is so important. If you haven’t got the support from the top, no matter how caring and how hard working you are down here it becomes so much harder because you are really pushing against the barrow all the time. I think that is really important to get that support from the top as well. And not just from the top, but as well from your year coordinators, all the management positions, but that filters from the top. I’ll sing the praises here, that’s why I think it is so fantastic here to have a team that works so well together and are just so supportive.

Top-down support for teachers in their caring practices then is crucial.
7.3.5 *Time With Students in Less Formal Situations*

The option of spending time with students outside of formal classes assisted teachers in demonstrating care, according to five of the teachers. A number of activities in their schools gave them opportunities with students that normal class time, which focused on learning content and skills, could not.

These activities included ‘pastoral care’ time for fifty minutes once a fortnight giving one participant time to spend with students discussing anything and not necessarily school work. This helped her in developing the relational aspect so important to the caring teacher’s care. Similarly, another teacher spoke of the benefits of getting involved in co-curricular activities. When asked whether co-curricular activities actually assisted caring practices she said: “Yeah definitely, that’s really important for students to also see you outside the classroom, and you can be a bit more yourself and you can have that little informal sort of chat”. Roll call time was also valued as an opportunity to follow up concerns with students.

A number of other activities were raised as helpful in assisting the school community to relax and have a good time together, for example, walk-a-thon days. Referring to one day each year set aside to celebrate the anniversary of the school, she added later: “It’s just such an awesome day, like the kids, we put on this talent quest and we have a barbeque and it’s a day where teachers and students just really relax and it’s a really good day”.

Finally, the use of houses for sport and other activities that gave students a sense of belonging was also discussed: “Also it gives a sense of fostering house spirit…. that sense of unity….It not only fosters that house spirit but also that caring of one another; you’re in [house name] so I’m going to care for you”.

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7.3.6 Good Role Models

Teachers remarked that the importance of role modeling to staff and students assisted the whole school community in developing caring practices. Some teachers recalled colleagues who were good for their own development when starting out as a teacher as this example shows:

I learned heaps just from watching other people…I think it helped the whole care issue because you could see that some teachers were struggling just to get through the lessons. I know that there are teachers at the school that have found that balance where they will get through that content but at the same time will be concerned for the students’ emotional wellbeing. Watching each other’s classes was a big learning experience.

People learning from other people about how to respond to others and specific situations can assist the whole school community in developing care. As this teacher explains, it creates a domino effect of care:

There have been people that have helped me along the way. The first lady that I worked with as a teacher was very much the one who took me under her wing. She showed me how to look after and care for the students and then you also see it in other staff around – people you think that I’d like to be like that. So I think it is people you come into contact with, models for you as well….And I think that’s where the students get it. The students get it from us as well, they see us as being that type of person, they see it as something to aspire to. And hopefully they can do the same thing further down the track for whomever they work with.

Good role models in caring practices contribute to the vicarious learning that is so essential to building teacher efficacy in this regard.

7.3.7 Continuity With Classes

There were three quite different types of comments made about how teachers in secondary schools are supported in their caring practices by the way classes are timetabled. It was
commented that having several different classes on one day and gaps of time between teaching sessions was of real value to sustaining relationships: “I think it makes it easier to care about them when you’ve only got them for that shorter period of time, because I think, they go and you get a chance to think about it”.

In a different way the following teacher also thinks that such lack of continuity between lessons can be quite helpful:

The idea that if you have a class of thirty and you have them all the time, what happens if you have a student in that group that you really can’t warm to? It would be very difficult to teach that student five days a week for a whole year. Whereas at least if you are seeing a wide range of students you have got a chance to make contact and make a relationship that’s not so personal but in not being so personal can still be caring.

However, it was also noted that continuity in taking the same class from year to year is supportive of caring practices. Referring to structures that might assist caring practices, it was stated: “I think if you carry a class for more than one year. I had a Year 9 advanced [subject] class, I carried them through to Year 10 and I just loved them, you know when things work, it’s perfect”. These examples demonstrate the ways in which these teachers appear to work with the different structures that are imposed upon them to create avenues of care for their students.

7.3.8 Sources Fostering the Development of Caring Teachers

It became evident throughout the interviews that support for caring practices did not just come from their present school community and structures but also from the teachers’ own role models as they grew up and trained as teachers. In each of the 10 interviews teachers were asked the following three questions to gain some insight into how and why they developed into caring teachers:

- Why do you care for students and their work?
Where do you get the personal capacity to be so caring?

In terms of teacher preparation, do you feel that aspects of your own training assisted you in developing caring practices?

Responses varied but there were three significant groups of role models that appear to have been very important in the formation of these teachers’ mindsets and capacity as both people and as teachers. These are detailed below.

7.3.8.1 Parents and Family

Six of the 10 teachers mentioned the role that family, and in particular their parents, played in their formation as people. Parents had “instilled values” by word and action. The teachers were loved and nurtured the teachers as children, and their caring approach to students was attributed to these important role models. The following teacher believes that you must have had a positive, nurturing environment at the start. She explains:

I don’t think you can become really nurturing, I think that’s just a part of who you are and you’re a product of your environment. Like my parents never once were negative. I can’t remember a time when we were ever not bolstered.

A migrant upbringing, and the fact that his home became the halfway house for newly arrived migrants from his country, had an impact on one teacher. It was his family’s house where relatives could stay until they found their own homes and jobs. His parents assisted the other parents and his mother continues to help others wherever she can. This giving to and helping others had a significant effect on how he now behaved.

Specific qualities were modeled and this assisted the teachers to develop their own personal qualities necessary for teaching children as recalled here:
I think my dad was very much my model. He was someone who always had time and consideration for other people. I think that probably was one area I got it from. I think that the way Mum and Dad brought us up was very much the way that you looked after others and considered others.

Despite these examples of home life that exhibited good role modelling, there were two teachers who did not share such positive home experiences. Their explanation for the development of their own caring practices was attributed to teachers at school and other life experiences and in the case of one teacher, her parents’ treatment of her became a lesson in how not to treat others.

7.3.8.2 Teachers at School

For some teachers the care that they received at school was very important in their development as people and as teachers. The teacher whose parents did not provide good role models for her described the types of experiences she had at school: “I had a very positive school life; I think that’s why I’m a teacher now. [I remember] my old teachers, I remember them fondly and I had nothing but good experiences there”. Similarly, another caring teacher also attributed her teachers’ modeling as being a major reason why she was now the teacher that she is:

I think part of it was that I had teachers who cared a lot….Like the difference that they made for me, and they ended up affecting what I chose for a career so I suppose I am really aware of the difference that a teacher can make to someone’s life. The teachers that I sort of think back on, they worked you hard but you could always go to them about anything. They set very high standards for you; they were sort of inclusive of everyone.

7.3.8.3 University Staff
Five of the 10 caring teachers remarked on their experience of university. In some cases, what university staff modeled in words was very helpful in forming a clear picture of the type of teacher they wanted to be, and in other cases the university staff demonstrated care in deed and this also had a positive effect. One teacher explained that a university lecturer that she “just loved” taught her that putting in the effort will pay off and that labeling kids will never get you anywhere. Another teacher recalled that the lecturers at university taught him the “right way of thinking”.

Two teachers experienced difficult circumstances during their time at university and not only were the lecturing staff supportive and understanding but the atmosphere of the community made things easier at the time. This type of role modeling was helpful in the development of them as caring teachers, they reported:

I was [older] when I started and the last time I wrote an essay was a long way back, so a lot of people gave me a lot of help and that was good. And I remember at one stage I was about to pull the pin with 6 months to go and a lecturer took me aside and said “don’t you dare give up”…so I suppose the caring attitude they had there was strong.

And here the teacher points out that actions, not words, were more memorable in this regard:

In that second year of teaching I had a family tragedy and it was just like I let go and people were very, very kind to me through that course. So I think, I can’t think back to anything specifically in any course or unit of work but certainly there was a really nice feel….I think, whilst not explicitly, it was certainly the culture of the place that you really knew this was what I wanted to do [sic].

These experiences and role models played an important part in developing the caring teachers’ mindsets and capacity. They reflect vicarious learning and experience (an important aspect of teacher efficacy which is grounded in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1994)) promoting the development of the capacity of care.
7.3.9  Suggestions From Teachers for Further Support for Caring Practices

Teachers were asked during the interviews for suggestions regarding how caring practices could be encouraged for pre-service teachers, beginning teachers and for teachers who had been teaching for some time. The suggestions are tabled in Table 7.8 for each of the main stages of a teacher career.
Table 7.7

*Suggestions for Encouraging Caring Practices in Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher stage</th>
<th>Suggestions for encouraging caring practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-service teachers</td>
<td>▪ Select only prospective teachers who have demonstrated at school a willingness to go the extra mile in school activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Focus on social issues and understanding the contexts in which students live to increase understanding of students’ difficulties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Place pre-service teachers with caring role models when on professional experiences in schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning teachers</td>
<td>▪ ‘Buddy” beginning teachers with caring teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Regular support and assistance in dealing with management issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Observe good teachers teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Observe other beginning teachers teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More experienced teachers</td>
<td>▪ Professional development in understanding the contexts in which students live to increase understanding of students’ difficulties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Professional development in practical strategies such as enhancing rapport and student engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Professional development in how to enhance relationships with students without crossing the boundaries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.4 Factors That Hindered Their Caring Practices

Caring teachers commented that there were hindering factors that affected their caring practices. Some factors resulted in teachers having to stop caring for individual students but despite this it seems that at no time did these factors stop them from demonstrating caring
practices to students overall. At other times, such factors simply made caring for students more difficult but certainly not impossible. There were 87 comments expressed concerning hindering factors resulting in following six categories: (a) tiredness and feeling drained, (b) students failing to respond to their practices of care, (c) workload intensification impacting on time, (d) staff who don’t share the same mindsets, (e) negative emotions, and, (f) disconnectedness in secondary schools.

7.4.1 Tiredness And Feeling Drained

The issue of feeling tired and drained from school related matters was raised by all teachers in the interviews. It was also the most frequently mentioned factor that teachers described when they discussed the difficulties in caring for students. Teachers appeared to be quite accepting that this was an expected outcome of teaching and to some extent the notion of ‘no pain, no gain’ was one with which they felt familiar. For the teachers involved, in most instances, feeling tired and drained was part of fulfilling the personal mindsets of ‘do all you can /try to solve the problem’ and ‘good outcomes often require hard work and/or time’. Nonetheless, in sufficient quantities tiredness and feeling drained could take their toll on the teachers and at different points this was mentioned.

The most frequent response from teachers in this category was a simple acknowledgement that caring for students was draining and demanding which resulted in tiredness. A number of reasons were cited for this: (a) caring for students “takes time” and sometimes it can result in having to explore other issues: “Sometimes it’s draining because once you open Pandora’s box you tend to get a lot of other things”; (b) caring for students can also be worrying: “There’s always that draining aspect at times where you’re constantly thinking about it, you know you’re
worrying about it”, and (c) sometimes, caring for students can impact on home: “I find it very emotionally draining and sometimes I find it hard to cut off and go home. I’ve a husband at home who doesn’t work, so he gets a lot of ranting and raving when I get home”.

However, there are times too when tiredness affects what happens in the classroom as the least experienced teacher in the study described: “Some days I just get so tired from running around, trying to get things together, trying to follow up on things that I just think – I need a break from the kids”. The second least experienced teacher also commented: “I think there would definitely be cycles [when I couldn’t demonstrate care], especially after a busy time of the year, like I think when I came back at the beginning of this term, after the holidays, I was like, so over this”. And later she said: “There are times in the school year when you just can’t be bothered and you’re not really motivated and your lessons are shit or you know you’re not putting the effort in the preparation”. In complete contrast, the oldest teacher in the study responded with a clear “No”, when asked if he found caring for students a demanding task. This may indicate that as teachers become more experienced at dealing with the demanding tasks of the profession they learn to expend a little less energy undertaking the caring tasks. This is consistent with the research conducted by Carter, Cushing, Sabers, Stein, & Berliner (1988), Sabers, Cushing, & Berliner (1991) and O’Connor and Fish (1998) where studies showed that expert teachers were better able to process information, make connections, attribute meanings and respond more flexibly than novice teachers.
7.4.2 Students Failing to Respond to Practices of Care

Students failing to respond to the teachers’ demonstration of care is a hindrance to caring. As this teacher states: “Then there are those that, if they don’t bring anything to the table, you can’t help them, and you get a lot of those kids which you want to help but….”. This leaves the teachers feeling helpless, frustrated and, in some cases, guilty but does not seem to affect their continued caring of other students. It can, however, affect their care of the particular students who fail to respond, as this teacher explains with regard to a class with which she was not able to develop rapport: “[I] might have a different level of rapport and sometimes that just bothers you and you think: ‘I just can’t be bothered you know, I’ll do what I have to do but I’ll just do the basics’”. Difficult to manage students at a different school impaired one teacher’s caring for them as she explains:

I think when you put a lot of effort in and you’re not really getting a lot back, sometimes you’ve got to pull back a little, otherwise you’re going to put a lot of effort in and maybe just end up disappointed.

However, for other teachers the lack of response from students left the teachers with an emotional dissatisfaction. Two teachers spoke about feeling frustrated and another about feeling helpless. One teacher said that he “felt like giving up”, but when questioned as to whether he did give up he responded: “I know when I get to that point I like to move them on to other people”. The care continued but under someone else’s management.
7.4.3 Intensified Workload Impacting on Time

Six of the 10 teachers cited that other demands both within the school context and outside of it impacted upon the way that they cared for students. A few examples given did not imply that such factors stopped their caring but did make caring for students more difficult or lessened the quality of care. “You find that you are actually torn for time between preparing for classes and caring for your staff and getting your admin stuff done”. Later this teacher added greater detail with regard to what things made caring for students more taxing:

I suppose what is hard is that you’ve got so many students to get to know, you’ve got four or five classes, you know, and if you’ve got them all in one day it’s really hard to kind of make sure that you have some kind of interaction with every single one of them. I think just the pressure of school systems, so often you might not put as much effort into preparing something because you just don’t have the time.

Other teachers were much clearer about the types of additional demands that impacted on time and therefore caring practices. Assessment and reporting made an impact on attentiveness in the classroom for other teachers according to this teacher:

Time. The pressure of time, just from what I hear generally, people feel bogged down in assessment and reporting and all that kind of stuff, they don’t feel like they spend that amount of time sort of being conscious in the classroom.

This comment was supported by another, suggesting that lack of attentiveness was a direct result of having too many issues to attend to:

If there’s a million things in my head, like I’ve got to get all these reports done, and all this stuff done, and I’ve got an issue with a staff member. You know when your mind fills up with everything and you’re stressed, as soon as I get to that point...I don’t think I’m as with it or aware or as able to pick up some of the nuances that you get that you would be able to when you are more able to focus on the kids.
Outside pressures were cited as one reason why focusing on caring for students was made more difficult: “Yeah, you can get grumpy and a lot of that is trying to do too much, too much around here or too much at home and all sorts of other things”.

How much the pressure of other issues actually impacts on the teachers’ caring practices is quite difficult to ascertain because sometimes teachers spoke of these hindrances in the third person rather than from their own perspective. Additionally, some teachers contradicted themselves as in this example: “I think at times we are very time poor, I know I am and a lot of teachers are, and that just impacts on the way that you teach, I think”. When she was reminded of an earlier comment she had made that stated she would still care for students despite her load, her response was: “Yeah well you have to. I’m really contradicting myself aren’t I?” While only six teachers cited too many other demands impacting on time, those that did so mentioned it in some detail and with significant emphasis.

### 7.4.4 Staff Who Don’t Share the Same Mindsets

Staff who don’t share the same mindsets and approach to students can have a variety of effects on caring teachers. At times, it can simply baffle them as to how the other staff can think in that way, as this teacher describes:

Obviously some teachers just think: “oh, no, why do it that way, the kid’s just bad, the kid’s just naughty, he’s never going to change”. Some people have that attitude. We’ve all done lots of work here on Restorative Justice but you still see people who don’t want to do that…You think: “weren’t we in the same room, weren’t we in the same course, didn’t you receive what I received? Did you have your radar the other way?”

For other caring teachers, they find that teachers who disagree with the way that they have handled issues can discourage them. For example, this teacher cites an instance where year
coordinators have taken situations out of her hands leaving her feeling frustrated and disempowered:

    I think there are sometimes people who can be hindrances...for instance with my coordinators if they could just, in some instances, trust me and let me say this is what’s happened and this is how I’m dealing with it and trust me with that [but instead] they take it out of your hands, and I think once they do that, you’re disempowered.

The impact of how other teachers could make you doubt the decisions you make was also noted:

    I think it would be hard if other people looked at what you did and made a judgment on it or interpreted it in a different way ....it might start you thinking about what you were doing, you might stop doing those things, it might make you doubt or feel insecure about what you would do.

Further to that, sometimes the discouragement was described as more of a pressure:

    And there’s pressure from the teachers, to say, ‘oh, it’s time for them to go [leave the school], how many chances can they get?’ and so we find ourselves wanting to try to change that sort of thinking that comes from a lot of the teachers there.

Teachers who do not share the same mindset as the caring teachers can also create extra work for them. One teacher explains that sometimes they have to convince teachers that some students are worth it: “Even some of the teachers say ‘look she’s wasting her time here’, I have to sometimes persuade these teachers to hang in there with her and she’ll be fine”.

    In most of these examples, the attitudes of other staff appear to hinder the caring teachers in a variety of ways. Ultimately, however, it does not appear that this has any impact on the caring teachers’ own mindsets or demonstration of care. With a mindset of ‘you’ve got to be fair’, caring teachers may possibly try even harder to ‘make up’ for what they see are the inadequacies of the mindsets of other staff.
7.4.5 Negative Emotions

Caring teachers are as susceptible to worries, stresses and anger as any other teacher and eight of the 10 teachers commented that this can have an effect on how one responds to the class or individual students. Put very simply in response to a question about whether one varies one’s care, this teacher states: “I suppose you do. Depending on the mood you are in”. Other teachers described with more detail the types of emotions that affect them: “I mean if I just rush into class after having a big major blow-up with a student or something like that. That changes your level of care too”. And for another teacher: “I think it also depends on perhaps how a teacher might be feeling on a day, if you have a bad day that can sometimes affect the way that you respond to a class”.

After her mum had been diagnosed with cancer, a teacher described how heavily that had rested on her as a person. She found that her own patience with students was less than normal: “And the slightest things would just really tick me off and slowly the students started finding out why I was so grumpy”.

Questioning a person’s capacity to let go of one’s own problems in order to go to class unaffected was also discussed:

When things are too hard on yourself, how can you, like you’ve really got to be one of those martyrs who let go of your own problems and just care for everyone around you but no one does that. If you’ve got so much of your own worries, how can you go happy to class wanting to teach when you’re stressed and anxious?

7.4.6 Disconnectedness in Secondary Schools

The secondary school structure of different classes for short time periods in one day was mentioned only twice with regard to how it negatively affected caring for students. Noddings
(2005) maintains that this is indeed a difficulty that affects teachers in the secondary school. The
comment regarding this hindrance is important because it contrasts with the earlier issue raised
earlier concerning how the secondary school structures assist caring teachers. It is important to
see that there are two sides to this particular matter.

How it affected the formation of relationships was remarked upon here:

The interruptions really hinder the relationships you can form with kids when you only
see them twice a week, like one week I see one class four times or three times because
one’s a double, and then next week it will only be twice.

Another teacher spoke less explicitly about how it impacted upon caring for students: “Whereas
in high school there’s a disconnection, your day’s punctuated, or your week’s punctuated and
you might not see a student for a couple of days or sometimes even a week, it depends how the
cycle works”. Caring for students can be hampered by such school structures but only three
teachers saw this as an issue worth mentioning.

7.5 Perceptions of the Effect of Context

In every interview participants were asked ‘As a caring teacher do you think you can operate
independently from the school climate?’ and nine out of the 10 teachers responded emphatically
‘yes’. The teacher who did not respond with such confidence considered that a less supportive
climate might make her less certain that her practices were the right ones.

Of the teachers that stated clearly that they could care for students independently of the
school climate, one teacher provided a qualification to her stance. She stated: “You would just
face more challenges”. A few gave reasons for their responses; for example, one teacher
attributed her position to her mindset: “Personally I would, it’s something I personally believe
in”, whilst another teacher explained with slightly more detail as to how he sees his own
practice: “When I’m in that room, that’s my room, I’m me. Of course there are going to be structures, my restraints, of course. But when you’re a teacher in the room with the kids, it’s just you and them”.

When examining the factors that ‘affected’ caring teacher practices it became clear that these particular teachers had a clear approach to those that supported and those that hindered. Supportive factors were helpful and encouraging but if they weren’t available they would still be who they are – caring teachers. Hindering factors were discouraging at times and made their job more difficult but ultimately they would still be who they are – caring teachers. Caring teachers, despite context, were still caring teachers and this is due to their embedded personal and teacher mindsets that drive the decisions that they make and the way in which they work with others.

7.6 Findings of Study Three

There have been numerous findings as a result of the interviews with the caring teachers concerning their personal capacity to care, their demonstration of care and the factors that impact on their caring. Firstly, caring teachers have a set of beliefs called mindsets that underpin their care and explain why they care. The mindsets are divided into two sets: five personal mindsets that explain the way in which they approach life; and five teacher mindsets that are associated with their beliefs about what teachers do. Underlying these 10 mindsets is the optimistic notion that change in the current situation is possible, and that things will be better if help is given.

Nine practices of care were highlighted through this study resulting in confirmation of existing practices mentioned in the literature and in Studies One and Two. There were also three new practices identified which had not been mentioned at all in Studies One and Two, namely (a) recognition of own limitations, (b) flexibility, and (c) attentiveness. The relationship between
the practices of care and the mindsets that underpin them is clearly identified by the comments and examples provided by the teachers.

Teachers raised slightly more factors of support for their caring than they did those that hindered. They seemed to be highly appreciative of the support given by their school climate and the people within the school community, the way that students received and responded to care, and they acknowledged the role that family, past teachers and university training had in developing their ideals and practices. The caring teachers also had many suggestions concerning the way teachers could be encouraged and supported in learning how to demonstrate care in their early days of training, in their beginning days of teaching in a school, and in their continued development as experienced teachers.

Factors that impacted on the caring practices in a negative way were explored, highlighting the notion that hindering didn’t mean stopping altogether. In some instances, the caring teachers acknowledged that the students who would not accept care did not affect them trying to care for other students in the future. Finally, the caring teachers seemed to believe quite firmly that factors that impacted on their caring were not critical to their caring for they would care for students regardless of circumstance.
Students from each of the three schools were invited to participate in group interviews of four to six participants with the purpose of gaining a perspective that has been lacking in research with regard to a caring teachers’ demonstration of care and the factors that would impact on teachers’ caring. The student data would also serve to triangulate the data already collected from the caring teacher interviews (Study Three) and later from the colleague questionnaires (Study Five) regarding these issues.

Study Four was comprised of six groups of students. Two groups were formed from each school: one representing years seven to nine and the other representing years 10 to 11. Year 12 had already completed their final school exams and had left school at the time of the research completion. These students were selected randomly and only upon the basis that they were the first to return their consent forms. Thirty-three students participated in the discussions: in the year 7 – 9 interview five students participated from school A, eight from school B, and six from school C; in the year 10 – 11 interview, five students participated from school A, four from school B, and five from school C. Each of the groups was held at lunchtime and students were provided with pizza and soft drink to make up for usual lunchtime activities missed. The group interviews ran for approximately 40 minutes each.

Questions in the interview schedule covered a variety of topics. Initially, each student was asked whether they thought caring teachers existed and then later how important caring teachers were to them. The responses to these questions were recorded per student and are reported in summary in section 8.1. Students were also asked to recall teachers who cared for them and teachers who they felt didn’t care for them in order to discover more about the practices teachers used to demonstrate care. During all six group interviews, students mentioned the ways in which
caring teachers demonstrated care for their students. Responses were aligned with some of the
demonstration of care categories as well as some of the mindsets. Additionally, some new
categories of demonstration of care emerged. Results for mindsets and demonstration of care are
reported in sections 8.2 and 8.3 respectively.

Finally, students were asked about the factors that they perceived may impact on teachers
caring for them. The specific questions are listed in section 8.4 along with the results from their
discussion. The full list of questions asked can be found in appendix G.

8.1 The Existence and Importance of Caring Teachers

All students confirmed, in answer to the question about whether they believed that caring
teachers existed, that they did indeed exist. All students had experienced having a caring teacher
at some point in their schooling. In response to the question about whether they considered
caring teachers to be important to them students were requested to provide a number from one to
10 with one being not important at all and 10 being highly important. On average, students gave
the importance of caring teachers a nine on this scale. Students could see the value of having
teachers care for them. The students described events and experiences with caring teachers such
as teachers listening to them or teachers being prepared to give up personal time to help them.
8.2 Mindsets

Some students in the course of the discussion confirmed that teachers choose to be caring and that it was a matter of willingness to behave in a certain way as a teacher; that it was a choice the teachers made, in other words a mindset. Here are some sample comments from one discussion that illustrate this perception of teacher choice:

Student one: “I think it still comes down to the teacher and their personality and how much they are actually willing to do for the student. I think it depends on them”.

Student two:

I think that you can teach a teacher how to be caring – like they don’t have to be caring; whether they follow through with that is up to them. If they want to be a caring teacher, they have to go the extra mile.

From another discussion, one student asserted: “They [caring teachers] do it because they want to, not because they are trained to or they have to. They do it because they want to”.

Specific comments were made that represented seven of the 10 mindsets: four personal mindsets and three teacher mindsets. Table 8.1 shows each of the mindsets that were raised, the number of times they were mentioned and an example of comments made with regard to each.

The mindsets that were not mentioned specifically were the personal mindset: ‘People can change for the better’; and the teacher mindsets: ‘Make a difference’ and ‘Enjoy teaching and like kids’. It is reasonable to suggest that perhaps the students did not mention these mindsets because they were more closely associated with teacher responsibilities. However, the personal mindset ‘Be fair’ was given considerable support through frequent mentions because of its close association with daily issues for students. Caring teachers, by their actions, demonstrated to the students the priorities and values they brought to their teaching.
Table 8.1

Mindsets Mentioned by Students with Representative Comments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of mindset</th>
<th>Mindset</th>
<th>N of mentions</th>
<th>Example of comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal mindset</td>
<td>Be fair</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>“He gives the kids a chance, our teacher”.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“I had an assignment due two days ago but because she didn’t have time to get</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>around to me and tell me how to do something, she gave me an extension for a day</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and told me where to go and look”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good outcomes often require hard</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>“I think they [caring teachers] encourage you to learn independently as well, like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>work and/or time</td>
<td></td>
<td>not do everything for you, let you learn some things for yourself”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Everyone matters</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>“They teach about ways to help and just look after everyone in general”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do all you can / try to solve</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>“They [caring teachers] would try and find out what the problem is and how they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the problem</td>
<td></td>
<td>can fix it”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher mindset</td>
<td>Be concerned for both content</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>“The first thing she thinks about is each student’s needs. Like if the classroom is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>delivery and student well-being</td>
<td></td>
<td>too hot she turns the fans on, or too cold and she’ll turn the heater up. In one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>but student well-being is more</td>
<td></td>
<td>classroom there were no fans so she brang [sic] us to the library where there were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>important</td>
<td></td>
<td>some. She realised that by making the students happy we can work better”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have boundaries</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>“She is like a friend, more than a teacher, like, but she still remains professional”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work with the whole student</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>“I think there is such a thing as a caring teacher – they see all different needs that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>they can help you with…they help all different parts of your abilities”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8.3 Demonstration of care

The majority of the students commented on the ways in which caring teachers demonstrated their care to students. Two previous caring practices – persistence and flexibility – were not mentioned by the students but one new practice, ‘justness’, emerged quite strongly in student comments. Justness represents the moments when teachers treated students fairly and did not mete out punishment or expected responses until the whole story was heard. Sometimes, teachers appeared to take into account the personal circumstances that affected students before making decisions. Whilst this is very closely related to the mindset of ‘be fair’ it is important to note it here under demonstration of care as the students were particular in their description of teachers’ justness as a caring practice.

There were also two practices particularly emphasised by students: patience and praise both of which have been categorised under ‘Relational behaviours’. Patience has been further classified under the sub-category of manner. These practices of care were mentioned and illustrated frequently enough that they appear in Table 8.2 in their own right rather than be subsumed in their pre-existing categories. The table also lists the practices of care mentioned by students, including the new category of justness and the sub-categories of praise and patience, and gives sample comments of each.

The frequency of comments shows that students value highly the teacher-student relational aspects of the classroom. They consider that the way in which they are treated and respected by teachers is more important than educational care, which was listed second in priority. This aligns with the teacher mindset of caring teachers: ‘Be concerned for both content delivery and student well-being but student well-being is more
important’. Students also recognised that commitment to teaching and the students was
represented by teachers giving of their own time or extra time outside of class, not simply
delivering a ‘good lesson’ during school time. They noticed that caring teachers were
committed. The specific quality of ‘patience’ and the act of praising students were
mentioned often enough for it to be clear that the students valued these aspects of a
teacher and would consider these to be essential attributes in a caring teacher.
Table 8.2  

*Number of Caring Practices Mentioned by Students with Representative Comments*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demonstration of care practice</th>
<th>Number of mentions</th>
<th>Example of comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relational Behaviours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Manner</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>“They’re not aggressive, yeah”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Patience</td>
<td></td>
<td>“They are nice to you and they act friendly. That’s all you want in a teacher”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Praise</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>“[A caring teacher] allows you to think, gives you space”. “Yeah, he’s really good, he’s really patient and caring”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Talking and listening to students</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>“[These teachers] like, remark to you personally but I think as well in front of the class because then it shows that you can do whatever it is and then also like it increases your self-esteem in front of other students as well”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Problem management</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>“We have been really able to talk”. “Every time she sees me worried about something she comes up to me, she asks me actually what’s wrong”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Getting to know students</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>“I was in a bit of trouble, in maths. I got pretty angry and she came up, talked to me and calmed me down”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Developing trust</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>“Sometimes when we have finished our work and are up to date in everything, he will sit with us and have a conversation and have a chat with us and see how things are”. “I can trust her”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstration of care practice</td>
<td>Number of mentions</td>
<td>Example of comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Educational care             | 29                | “They help you out in your work, your assignments; they told [sic] you what was wrong so you can correct it; so you can get the marks”.  
“I can consult her; she helps with assessments, always provides feedback and cares about how we actually go”. |
| Commitment                   | 17                | “Caring teachers…really go out of their way to help you and make sure that you get all the work done, even if it means taking time out of their own time to make sure you are okay”. |
| Justness                     | 8                 | “He gives kids a chance, our teacher”.  
“She understands; maybe one kid annoys me so much…and I call out across the room ‘shut up’ or ‘stop it’ and she talks to him for me” |
| Attentiveness                | 7                 | “One day I was just sad and I was low and the teacher asked me, ‘Are you okay?’ because she knew by my facial expressions”. |
| Compassion                   | 3                 | “They are worried about the people in the room rather than the students in the room.” |
| Empathy                      | 2                 | Student: “She understands”.  
Interviewer: “How aggravated you feel?”  
Student: “Yeah”. |
| Recognition of own limitations | 2                 | “My teacher, like every time he makes a mistake, he puts it up on the board, like on a chart, like a strike, it’s just fun”. |
8.4 Factors That Impact on Their Caring

Students were asked five questions which provided them with the opportunity to suggest factors that, from their perspective, would discourage or encourage teachers from caring for their students. The questions were as follows: (a) Do students do things to discourage teachers from caring? (b) What are the things students might do to discourage a teacher from caring? (c) Do students do things to encourage teachers to care? (d) What are the things students might do to encourage a teacher to care? (e) When is the time you are most likely to experience a teacher caring for you. For example, a time of day, or particular types of school activities, or particular activities within subjects? The results of these questions were categorised and coded. The next two sections present the findings from these questions under headings of factors that hinder teachers and factors that support teachers.

8.4.1 Factors That Hinder Teachers

From the student perspective there were three different areas of hindrance for teachers when it came to caring for their students: (a) the behaviour of the students, (b) pressures felt as part of their responsibilities as a teacher, and (c) personal issues that may affect the quality of care practised.

8.4.1.1 Factors Caused by Students

The students seemed quite aware that there were behaviours and responses (or lack thereof) that they or their fellow students participated in that would make a teacher’s caring more difficult. With some students these admissions appeared to be shared with
pride whilst with other students an empathetic attitude of ‘teachers are only human’ was clearly acknowledged. Some of the behaviours were deliberately proactive: (a) “mucking up”, (b) “taking advantage of nice or softer teachers”, (c) “not showing respect”, and (d) “deliberately distracting others or being annoying”. When the term ‘professional distractor’ was mentioned as an example of this proactive behaviour the researcher asked for clarification. It was explained as: “someone who disrupts the class from learning or who talks over the teacher while the students are trying to have their opinion to say; they’re always trying to be funny and disrupt the class”. Such behaviour, the students all agreed, made caring for students difficult as it left many teachers feeling frustrated or angry. This was confirmed by one student who said: “As teachers get used to them mucking up, they just don’t care anymore”.

Other behaviours were more passive and examples given by students were: (a) “not listening”, (b) “bludging”, and (c) “not doing as they [the teachers] ask”. Whilst this may not have impacted on the students around them as much as the more proactive behaviours did, this type of failing to respond to a teacher’s efforts would, according to one student, make it more difficult: “A teacher is only human, so if someone is totally disregarding them, they might get frustrated and they might find it hard to care for them”.

8.4.1.2 Pressures Due to Responsibilities

Students also acknowledged that responsibilities placed upon teachers by their position may act as a hindrance as well. Excursions, being a year coordinator, and having guest speakers at the school were three examples provided by the students. The conclusions they drew about these factors were that in trying to keep people safe on an
excursion, or keeping up the school’s good name in a public place or in the presence of a guest, teachers were more stressed and tense which reduced their caring for students. They also reasoned that year coordinators had to punish people and so that made caring for pupils more difficult. The students who raised excursions and disciplining students as less-caring type of activities did not appear to make the connection that it was about caring for students in a different type of way. It is possible that the discipline was handled differently in this context and that is why students perceived this as lacking in care.

8.4.1.3 Personal Issues

Finally, students also acknowledged that caring for students was made more difficult for teachers when teachers were tired or having a bad day. Friday afternoons were mentioned as a time when teachers could be less caring because of these reasons.

From a student perspective, factors involving (a) student response (or lack thereof), (b) responsibility, and (c) personal factors such as tiredness or bad experiences could conceivably have an effect on a teacher’s capacity to care for students.

8.4.2 Factors That Support Teachers

The reverse of issues that hinder are the factors that may support teachers in their caring of students. The responses to the questions asking for these factors were categorised into four groups: (a) behaviours of the students, (b) more relaxed and student-centred moments, (c) times when in students are needing specific help, and (d) personal factors. Each of these will be explored in turn.
8.4.2.1 Behaviours of the Students

Many of the behaviours listed by students as ways in which they could encourage teachers to care focused around their direct responses to work given. They listed: (a) “listening”, (b) “doing the work given”, (c) “saying ‘here is something that I have done and I have done good’”, (d) “getting high marks in exams”, (e) “going up to the teacher and asking for help”, and (f) “participating in class” as examples. However, they also recognised that there was a place to encourage the teacher in their work and this was done in two ways: firstly, by “thanking them”, “praising them”, and “not being embarrassed to say hello to them in the playground” and secondly, by building relationships with them – “showing interest in them as people” and “building that relationship from the student perspective; not just saying ‘Good afternoon, Sir’ after every lesson but going up to him and saying ‘that was a really good lesson, thanks.’”. Some students also referred to holding a farewell party for a member of staff and baking them a cake to say thank you. These are the types of ways of responding that students felt would be an encouragement.

8.4.2.2 More Relaxed, Student-Centred Moments

The groups of students also mentioned particular activities or times when they found teachers worked with students in a more relaxed manner, therefore assuming that these occasions had a positive impact on their care. Students talked about (a) pastoral care lessons where teachers work with students on non-educational matters; (b) sport lessons (but only the ones outside, not the health lessons inside the classroom); (c) one-to-one help on project work; (d) group activity lessons; (e) the last day of school; and (f)
excursions. Whilst few articulated why these were moments when they saw teachers as more caring there was certainly wide agreement that these types of activities made it easier for pupils and teachers alike to relate to each other in a less formal and therefore more meaningful way.

8.4.2.3 Students Needing Specific Help

The students also recognised that when they were in particular need of help that teachers were more caring for them. They listed issues like exams and assessments coming up, physical illness of a student, and pupils struggling with the academic work as times when teachers were visibly more caring. Seeing students in need appeared to assist teachers in their care.

8.4.2.4 Personal Factors

Finally, students mentioned that when teachers had had a good day, when they were at the start of their day rather than at the end of it, and when they had their own children that teachers were more readily able to care. Having a good day or being fresh at the start of the day seemed to help teachers in caring for the students. Additionally, being a parent, one student suggested, assists teachers in understanding more about the pupils in front of them. As this student explains: “[An example is] my English teacher. She has children and she always tells us stories about what they did and their assignments and things like that and she gives us homework in moderation”. Students did recognise that issues in teachers’ personal lives could affect their care of school students in a positive way.
Whereas the role of student behaviour appears to be a significant factor in teachers’
caring for students that is readily recognised by students, the other factors, according to
the pupils interviewed, such as (a) personal energy levels, (b) the time of the day or week,
(c) the responsibilities of a teacher’s position at the school, (d) the needs of the students,
and (e) types of activities that teachers and students participate in together can also help
teachers caring for students.

8.5 Other Points Raised by Students Concerning Caring Teachers

At different times in the group interviews students raised issues that resulted from
discussion about the answers given by students. Three issues were raised: (a) the
difference between a nice and a caring teacher, (b) the impact of age and gender on caring
practices, and (c) whether teachers could become more caring.

8.5.1 The Difference Between a Nice and a Caring Teacher

In school A, the students from years 10 and 11 discussed the differences between a
nice and a caring teacher. The distinction students made is that caring teachers are less
cared about the students liking them and more concerned with ensuring that the long
term goals are reached. If that requires them to use discipline in the classroom then that
is what needs to happen. Nice teachers are less concerned perhaps with the students and
more concerned with what the students think of them. The conversation that led to these
conclusions is as follows:

Student one: “They [Caring teachers] do more for you sort of thing. Nice teachers are
nice people sort of thing. Caring teachers actually go out of their way to help you out”.

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Student two: “Caring teachers, they say it how it is. So regardless of whether you do the right or wrong thing, they will commend you on your good behaviour and also punish you for your bad behaviour”.

Researcher asks for clarification.

Student two: “Nice teachers just do things to keep the peace. Maybe not as genuine as what a caring teacher is”.

Student three: “Caring teachers can be nice teachers, but caring teachers focus more on the work that you are doing and nice teachers just want to keep the peace, but caring teachers will tell you if you are doing something wrong”.

8.5.2 The Impact of Gender and Age on Caring Practices

Students at the same school but from years seven through nine, raised a different issue concerning their opinions on how gender and age affected caring practices. Here again the relevant section of the transcript is printed:

Student one: “Normally, a female teacher is more lenient than the male teachers in regards to like homework and the female teachers are more lenient and caring”.

Interviewer: “So at the moment, leniency and caring seem to be coming up together, so would you say a caring teacher is more lenient?”

Group members: “Yeah”.

Interviewer: “Okay, so everyone would say that? [Agreement from each member]. Okay, is lenient. Are you saying understanding or just a bit lax with the rules?”

Student two: “Like not jumping down your throat if you do something wrong, hearing you out, finding out why, giving you a bit of a chance”.

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Student one: “Whereas male teachers seem to be more harsh”.

Interviewer: “Age as well?”

Student three: “Yeah some older teachers can be a bit more strict or they could be a little bit more lenient themselves because they know, they’re experienced”.

Interviewer:

They could go either way, is that what you are saying? Do you think they’re likely to be in one group or the other the older they get? Like they either become more understanding or they become less? Is that what you’re saying?

Group members: “Yep, yeah”.

There were five students in this group interview and they were all in clear agreement that female teachers were more lenient in terms of giving students a chance. This, they interpreted as more caring. The impact of age upon caring practices was less clear; teachers either got more caring or less caring as they got older. Their inference is that teachers polarize one way or the other as they spend more time in the classroom and this issue may need further investigation.

8.5.3 Whether Teachers Could Become More Caring

Students in the discussion groups made a number of comments about ways in which teachers could become more caring. Some of these remarks have already been used previously under the heading ‘mindsets’ and referred to the choices teachers made to be caring or to be not caring of students. Discussion around this issue was quite lengthy and some students changed their stance on this topic as the discussion continued. Overall, the older students seemed to feel a little more strongly that teachers could develop skills in
caring, whilst the younger groups were somewhat more convinced that people are who they are, and if they are not caring then they would be unlikely to change. Some suggestions were made from the three older student discussion groups about becoming a caring teacher:

“You need to concentrate on open communications, that’s all it is. You need to communicate with your students…You need to adapt and be flexible with different people”.

“I think that teachers need to know, before they make it their career option, what they need to be like, the relationship—as [names other student] said, they need to establish with their students”.

“I think you need people skills. It’s how you relate to people”.

The students from the younger groups spoke more strongly about the fact that caring teachers are caring teachers because of their personality and the fact that their life experiences may have impacted positively upon them. They also discussed that some teachers will never be caring because that is who they are. Here are some sample comments:

“You can’t really train a person to be caring; they have to have it inside them. You can’t tell them how to show it”.

“You can’t train someone to be caring. You have to be it. You have to select them first”.

“I reckon it depends on the type of person”.
“If they [caring teachers] are grown up and born with it and their parents are kind and caring then it will pass through the genes, keep following on. If the parents are very kind to them then the kids should be kind as well”.

8.6 Findings from Study Four

The findings from Study Four were that caring teachers, according to each student in the group interviews, did indeed exist and were important to them as individuals. The students were able to identify that practices of care were quite often a choice teachers made about being caring or not being caring. The practices of care displayed by the teachers to their pupils were reflective of these choices or mindsets.

Not all of the mindsets or demonstrations of care mentioned in previous studies were raised by the students but an emphasis on praise and patience as part of relational behaviours was well worth highlighting from the student perspective.

Student behaviour and personal issues, in the view of the pupils, could encourage or discourage a teacher’s caring practices. Working with students in a more relaxed, student-centred environment and seeing students who needed specific help seemed to be a stimulant to care. Positions of responsibility required teachers to be tougher and hence, from the student perspective, less caring, which is interesting when you consider that seven out of the 10 nominated teachers held positions of responsibility within the schools.

Finally, some students could identify that caring teachers were different from nice teachers in that they were prepared to make the more difficult decisions if that meant growth for the class or individual. They attributed female teachers with more understanding than their male colleagues, and they reported that as you aged you either
got better or worse when it came to caring for students. From the perspective of the younger students, caring teachers are caring because they were made that way; it is inside of them. The older students reported that being caring can sometimes be something that can be encouraged through training or development of skills.

Gaining the student viewpoint has been a valuable exercise in sharpening understandings about caring teachers, the ways that demonstrate care to their students and the factors that impact on their caring.
9 STUDY FIVE

The purpose of Study Five was to gain further perspectives into the caring teachers’ capacity and demonstration of care, and the personal and contextual factors that impacted upon their caring. Study Five would also serve to triangulate the data already collected from the caring teacher interviews (Study Three) and student discussion groups (Study Four). The 10 peer-nominated caring teachers were asked to select two colleagues each with whom they had worked closely and who would be able to comment on them as teachers. Twenty questionnaires were distributed to the colleague teachers. The questionnaire (see appendix E) included the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale (Goddard et al., 2000) as well as open-ended questions. Thirteen of these questionnaires were returned giving a 65% return rate. One teacher was asked to comment on two teachers and so completed the efficacy scale and the more general questions (numbers seven to fourteen) only once but answered the questions one to six for each of the two teachers. Results from the analysis of these questionnaires follow.

9.1 The Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale

The Collective Teacher Efficacy long form (consisting of 21 items) developed by Goddard, Hoy & Woolfolk Hoy (2000) was administered. The items were phrased both negatively and positively and participants were asked to rate them on six point Likert scales. According to Goddard et al., collective efficacy includes two conceptually different factors: (a) Group-teaching competence – “judgments about the capabilities that a faculty brings to a given teaching situation”; and (b) Task analysis – “the perceptions of the constraints and opportunities inherent in the task at hand” (p. 100).
The long form utilised more group-teaching competence items than task analysis items, unlike the short form that equally balances them both. For this reason the long form was the preferred measure for this study as it was anticipated that it may more clearly indicate whether school context played a part in factors impacting upon caring teachers’ demonstration of care. In the present study the Cronbach alpha (α) was 0.7287 for the sub-scale of group competence and 0.6363 for the sub-scale of task analysis.

9.1.1 Colleague and Caring Teachers

A total of 22 completed scales (12 from the colleague teachers and 10 from the caring teachers) were completed and analysed. To determine any differences in collective efficacy means between the 10 caring teachers and their colleagues, independent samples t-tests were performed on the data. Table 9.1 shows the mean and standard deviation of both groups of teachers.

Table 9.1
Mean and Standard Deviation of Caring Teachers and Colleagues of the CTE (Long Form)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of teacher</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SD error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Caring</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.545</td>
<td>.466</td>
<td>.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleague</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.520</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td>.151</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was no significant difference between the two types of teachers (t = .116, df = 21 and p = .908).
Independent samples $t$-tests were also performed on the factors of group-teaching competence and task analysis. There was no significant difference between the types of teachers for either factor.

9.1.2 School

To examine collective efficacy means between schools, a one way ANOVA was performed. Table 9.2 shows the means and standard deviations of each of the schools using the long form. Table 9.3 shows the $F$-ratio, degrees of freedom and two-tailed significance between schools in collective efficacy (note that this represents both dimensions together).

### Table 9.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>$SD$ error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.887</td>
<td>.374</td>
<td>.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.367</td>
<td>.503</td>
<td>.225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.329</td>
<td>.468</td>
<td>.148</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 9.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$F$-ratio</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.932</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicate that teachers at school C have lower perceptions of collective efficacy than schools A and B ($p = .036$), suggesting that teachers at school C do not experience the same levels of collegial support as those teachers in schools A and B.
The schools were also compared according to the separate factors of group-teaching competence and task analysis. Table 9.4 shows the mean and standard deviation by school and table 9.5 shows the $F$-ratio, degrees of freedom and significance between schools for both these factors.

Table 9.4

*Mean and Standard Deviation for Teachers in Each School in the Factors of Group-Teaching Competence and Task Analysis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>$SD$ error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group competence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.827</td>
<td>.467</td>
<td>.165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.139</td>
<td>.604</td>
<td>.270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.342</td>
<td>.558</td>
<td>.176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.984</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td>.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.741</td>
<td>.460</td>
<td>.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.306</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.124</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicate that teachers at school C have significantly lower perceptions of task analysis than school A ($p = .041$), suggesting that teachers at school C perceive more constraints in the tasks required of them as teachers.

Table 9.5

*The $F$-Ratio, Degrees Of Freedom and Significance between Schools using the Factors of Group Competence and Task Analysis*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-factors</th>
<th>$F$-ratio</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group Competency</td>
<td>2.994</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Analysis</td>
<td>3.755</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 9.2 Open-ended Questions

The colleague teachers were asked a series of questions (see appendix G for the questionnaire) to determine greater understanding about (a) the personal factors that contributed to their caring approach, (b) how the caring teachers demonstrated care, and (c) the factors that supported or hindered teachers in their care of pupils. The first two areas of questioning focused on the colleagues’ perceptions of the caring teacher who nominated him/her and the last area focused on teachers generally in which their own experiences could be called upon.

#### 9.2.1 Personal Factors Contributing to a Caring Approach

Colleague teachers recognised that there were a number of personal factors that contributed to a caring approach towards students and staff. These personal factors can all be grouped using the term ‘life experiences’ because they refer to the upbringing and life of the teacher outside of school. Teachers made comments indicating that life experiences had an impact on making teachers more readily able to care for students. The personal factors covered such areas as (a) family (having his/her own children) and background (the circumstances in which the teacher was raised as he/she was growing up), (b) the number of years teaching (the more time you spend as a teacher the more able you will be to readily care), (c) the subject you teach (some subjects lend themselves to more opportunities to care), and (d) a balanced lifestyle (not just a work-focused teacher) were mentioned.
Family and background had previously emerged in the interview data with the caring teachers. The other three factors raised here: (a) the number of years teaching, (b) the subject you teach, and (c) the balanced lifestyle you lead, had not been mentioned. The statistical data from Study One where years of teaching experience and subjects taught were compared with means in the TSES and the S-CTI would not support that these factors had an impact on the ability to care for students. Despite this, some colleagues emphasised the contextual differences between themselves and the nominated caring teacher as perhaps a means of explaining why their colleagues were more easily able to care. An example of this can be seen in the following two comments when the teacher refers to the caring teacher’s marital status: “She is also single” and to her subject area: “I think, in part, her teaching area of [name of subject] enables this to happen more easily than some other disciplines”. An explanation could also be that these teachers held different values and beliefs towards teaching and people, in other words mindsets, and this also emerged from the data.

9.2.1.1 Mindsets

The mindsets (or teacher beliefs that drive the demonstration of care) raised in the interviews with the caring teachers (Study Three) were supported by the colleagues. All personal and teacher mindsets were mentioned with the exception of ‘people can change for the better’. In Study Four, the students did not mention this mindset either. This may indicate that the belief that people can change for the better is a higher priority to this group of teachers.

The mindset of ‘Be fair’ was placed as the most frequently mentioned mindset by colleague teachers and students but by the caring teachers in the interview data it was placed second to “Do all you can / try to solve the problem”. The act of justice lived out by caring teachers is
obviously clearly recognised by their colleagues, more so than their efforts to do all they can to help. Yet in many respects these two mindsets are quite closely linked. Doing all you can often means hearing students out and taking action that allows the fairest possible outcome.

No new mindsets emerged in this study. The mindsets with the number of times mentioned by colleague teachers with regard to caring teachers are listed in Table 9.6:

Table 9.6

*Number, Type and Name of Mindset Mentioned by Colleague Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Mindset</th>
<th>Mindset</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>Be fair</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>Do all you can / try to solve the problem</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>Everyone matters</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Work with the whole student</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Enjoy teaching / like kids</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>Good outcomes often require hard work / time</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Have boundaries</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Be concerned for both content delivery and student well-being but student well-being is more important</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Make a difference</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comments made with regard to each of these mindsets were very similar to those made by the 10 caring teachers in their interviews. An example of each is given in Table 9.7.

Table 9.7

*Example of Mindsets Mentioned by Colleague Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mindset</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Be fair</td>
<td>“He has a great sense of justice…and is fully committed to the Bully Busting...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mindset</td>
<td>Example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do all you can / try to solve the problem</td>
<td>“Gives her best all the time”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everyone matters</td>
<td>“She always makes time to listen to students whether she teaches them or not”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with the whole student</td>
<td>“[She gives] lessons that are interesting and has concern for the student as a whole”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy teaching / like kids</td>
<td>“[She has a] genuine passion for teaching.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good outcomes often require hard work / time</td>
<td>“She gives time and follows up any issues”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have boundaries</td>
<td>“[She is] professional – friendly but firm”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be concerned for both content delivery and</td>
<td>“[Name of teacher] has always demonstrated through both words and actions that the welfare of the students, both academically and pastorally are her primary concern”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student well-being but student well-being is more important</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make a difference</td>
<td>“A genuine desire to make a difference”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The similarity of the perceptions of the colleague teachers endorses the views held by the caring teacher group and the students.

9.2.2  Demonstration of Care

The nine practices of care detailed in Study Three from the interview data were also supported here in the responses from the colleague teachers. Table 9.8 gives the categories, the number of times mentioned and an example of each. Colleague teachers mentioned ‘relational behaviours’ twice as often as their next two most commonly mentioned categories of care: commitment and educational care. Colleague teachers, like the caring teachers, placed relational behaviours as the most prominent of all other practices of care and followed it with commitment,
but the placement of recognition of limitations is quite different to the caring teachers. Colleague teachers spoke of this particular demonstration of care significantly less than the caring teachers. An explanation for this could be that such a practice is more internalised than externalised by the caring teachers and that although they spoke in interviews of the times when they were aware they could not do any more or when they needed to do things differently, their colleagues may not have been aware of that particular decision-making process.

In Study Three, the first demonstration of care – relational behaviours - was further divided into six sub-categories and all of these were reflected in this study with the exception of ‘developing trust’ which was not recognised by the colleague teachers. Table 9.9 shows a further break down of the relational behaviours (which were given in Table 9.8) into five sub-categories and provides the number of times mentioned and an example of each.
Table 9.8

*Number and Examples of Practices of Care Mentioned by Colleagues*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice of care</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Relational behaviours     | 38 | “A great capacity to relate to others”.
|                           |    | “The ability to relate to the needs of a range of students”.             |
| Commitment                | 19 | “Very committed to all aspects of her role as a teacher”.                |
| Educational Care          | 19 | “Preparing high quality / creative lessons / opportunities for students”.|
| Compassion                | 11 | “Shows compassion when needed”.                                          |
| Empathy                   |  7 | “She is highly conscious of how teacher decisions affect students”.       |
| Flexibility               |  2 | “She always leaves room for students to amend any mistakes”.              |
| Persistence               |  2 | “She never gives up trying to teach something”.                           |
|                           |    | “He never backs down from a challenge”.                                  |
| Attentiveness             |  1 | “Awareness of how to teach content to her students”.                      |
| Recognition of Limitations|  1 | “He is not afraid of his own weaknesses”.                                 |
Table 9.9

*Number and Example of Sub-Categories of Relational Behaviours.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relational behaviour</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>“He models supportive and affirmative behaviour to students and staff”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting to know students</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>“She really knows them [her students] as individuals, knows about their families, interests, backgrounds, etc.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking and listening</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>“Will always listen to the student”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Always gives students the right of response and listens intently”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>“She is loved by all the [name of subject] staff as she genuinely cares for their needs”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>“Continually enforces and reinforces conflict – resolution techniques”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Six other practices of care were raised by colleague teachers that had not emerged in previous data. The majority appeared to focus more on the caring teachers’ work ethic than on actual mindsets and for this reason they are placed under demonstrations of care. Table 9.10 lists those practices raised by colleague teachers in order of most mentioned to least mentioned.
Table 9.10

*New Practices of Care Mentioned by Colleague Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New practice of care</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dedicated</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>“His dedication to the staff, school and students far exceeds his role description”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respects students</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>“The way [name] refers to students is respectful and caring – even ‘difficult’ students.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflects on own practice</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>“She reflects on her strategies”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accepts critical feedback</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>“She accepts critical evaluation”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsible</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>“Takes his work and responsibilities seriously”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>“She works diligently and consistently”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.2.3 *Factors That Support and/or Hinder a Caring Teacher’s Approach*

The responses from the 12 teachers in this section of the questionnaire were plentiful indicating that they were able to comment easily on the factors that supported and hampered caring for students. The colleagues raised more hindering factors than they did assisting factors (the opposite to the teachers of Study Three) resulting in an additional list of hampering aspects. Some supportive and hindering factors raised by the caring teachers were not noted by their colleagues. The next section will explore these hindering factors.

9.2.3.1 *Factors That Hinder Teachers in Caring for Their Students*
The colleague teachers had a lot to say about parts of the teaching job that made caring for students difficult despite the fact that only one question in the questionnaire specifically asked them for this input. At times, hindering factors were added to other questions asking about supportive features suggesting that this group of teachers was keen to express its opinion about this issue. In Table 9.11 the existing factors raised by the caring teachers in Study Three are listed with the number of mentions made by the colleagues and, where possible, an example of comments made about the factor.

Table 9.11

*Number and Example Comment by Colleague Teachers using Pre-Existing Categories Raised by Study Three*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hindering factor</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Example of comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tiredness and feeling drained</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students failing to respond to their practices of care</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>“Some students, no matter what you do, don’t change their ways”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“To be endlessly restorative with a student who is not responding to the restorative process”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too many other demands impacting on time</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>“Outside pressures, i.e. requirements of teaching outside actual teaching”, “increase in paperwork and unrealistic deadlines” and “workload is ever increasing”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff who don’t share the same mindsets</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>“Some teachers do not seem to like ‘kids’”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“They hate their job”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative emotions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>“Teachers with many personal problems”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disconnectedness in secondary schools</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen in Table 9.11, two factors were not mentioned at all: tiredness and feeling drained, and disconnectedness in secondary schools. This may indicate that the colleague teachers do not feel the same level of drained emotion about which the caring teachers spoke; they may not get as involved with student issues or they may not get as involved emotionally when they do. The lack of mention about the disconnectedness in secondary schools is also quite intriguing. It may be possible that these teachers do not seek the same level of relationship with their students that their caring colleagues do and therefore do not find the structure within secondary schools as much of an obstruction.

Despite the patchy concurrence with the factors raised by the caring teachers (only 66% showed agreement), there were several new hindrances mentioned. These factors ranged from across a number of topics: (a) student-related issues, (b) personal issues, (c) structural difficulties, and (d) difficulties with other teachers. These are listed in Table 9.12 with sample comments alongside.

Table 9.12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of hindrance</th>
<th>Hindrance</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student-related issues</td>
<td>Difficult students</td>
<td>“The presence of a student who has repeatedly committed major offences…and nothing is done about it” and “students who are negative”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding students</td>
<td>“Lack of understanding of students”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Special needs students</td>
<td>“Large ratio of special needs students”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal issues</td>
<td>Fear of getting involved</td>
<td>“Some teachers don’t want to know as they might be frightened to get involved”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal characteristics</td>
<td>“Their personality / characteristics of”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The 12 teachers raised significantly more hindrances to caring for students than their 10 caring co-workers and quite often with more anger (see ‘teachers who lack the skills’ and ‘difficult students’). There appears to be a greater sense of frustration from these teachers than was evident with the teachers in Study Three. Possibly these teachers felt less empathy for colleagues and students who did not share the same priorities. This may indicate that such hindering factors are stopping these colleague teachers from undertaking the work of a teacher in the way that they feel it should be done.
9.2.3.2 Factors That Support Teachers In Caring For Their Students

Three questions in the questionnaire asked teachers about the factors that they currently found supportive or what would be helpful in caring for students. Another question asked about how he/she felt they had supported the teacher that nominated them as their colleague. From all of these questions some of the pre-existing categories about support that had been derived in Study Three were mentioned. Table 9.13 lists the supporting factors from the caring teachers, the number of times they were mentioned and an example comment. Four of the factors listed by the caring teachers were also raised here by their colleagues. Notably, students responding to care, time spent with students in less formal situations, and continuity with classes was not mentioned at all in this study. In fact, it seems that this particular group of teachers recognised the support that they received from the school and their co-workers rather than the benefits they received from spending more positive time with students.

The colleague teachers also raised other new supportive aspects not identified by the teachers in Study Three. The focus of many of these factors was to gain assistance in teaching strategies; however, they were often accompanied by the request for time away from students to meet those professional needs. Only one comment reflected that spending more time with students would assist in caring for students. Table 9.14 identifies the newly raised supportive factors and at least one example comment is given for each.

Table 9.13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supportive factor</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Example comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School climate</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>“A positive, supportive school climate is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collegiality</td>
<td>“Provides professional advice”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Keeping a sense of humour to relieve tensions”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Structures</td>
<td>“A good pastoral care coordinator”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Buddy systems for all teachers”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reminding staff of relational aspects to teaching</td>
<td>“The staff have been in-serviced in the Restorative Justice approach”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“[Learning] strategies for reaching difficult students”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students responding positively to care</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good school leadership</td>
<td>3 “A pastoral principal”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“There will be consequences [if students break the rules]”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time with students in less formal situations</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good role models</td>
<td>5 “A climate of care modeled by influential members of the school community”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Funded mentoring positions on staff”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity with classes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9.14

*New Supportive Factors Mentioned by Colleague Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supportive factor</th>
<th>Example comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time to develop teaching ideas or for planning</td>
<td>“Greater awareness of individual special needs and skills for adjusting the curriculum to meet these needs”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More professional development</td>
<td>“More practical courses on student management,” and “allow time for [professional] support to take place”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time away from students for other tasks</td>
<td>“Teachers need support in regards to release time”, “Adequate release time” “A time allowance for year coordinators”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional counsellors</td>
<td>“Funds for the employment of counselors”. “Offer counseling [for staff]”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time with students</td>
<td>“Time to deal with students”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>“Availability of resources” and “Extra funding for programs for needy students”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The emphasis in these responses about factors that would assist teachers appears to be primarily on gaining skills and support from other professionals and resources.

9.3 Findings from Study Five

The findings from Study Five served to highlight some of the similarities and differences between the caring teachers and their colleagues. It also further validated categories that had emerged from Studies One to Four whilst adding new perspectives.

The use of the Collective Teacher Efficacy (CTE) scale with both groups of teachers showed there to be no significant difference between their means of collective efficacy. However, school
C staff members showed themselves to be significantly lower in their perception of task analysis than school A resulting in an overall statistical difference in the CTE mean between school A and school C respondents. This difference was not obvious in observations or the data from Study One.

The colleague teachers listed factors such as (a) having their own family, (b) a positive up-bringing, (c) the number of years teaching, (d) the subjects taught, and (e) a balanced lifestyle as reasons why their caring co-workers had a capacity to care. The years of teaching experience and the subjects taught were not statistically supported as factors that contributed to a caring teachers’ approach according to Study One. The difference between these two results is intriguing and may suggest that there is a difference in focus for these two groups of teachers.

The mindsets that emerged in Study Three were confirmed by the colleague teachers, with the exception of ‘people can change for the better’. The list of practices of care was also validated in this study but the frequency with which this group of teachers referred to the practices differed to the Study Three ranking. Further caring practices were added and these were: dedication, respect for students, reflecting on own practice, accepting critical feedback, being responsible, and showing consistency.

Finally, teachers in this study raised more hindering factors to caring than they did supportive factors. Whilst they agreed with 66% of factors mentioned by the caring teacher group they did not raise the issue of tiredness and feeling drained or the disconnectedness in the secondary school. To this list of factors they added, in some cases quite vehemently, four other categories of hindrances which covered several other sub-factors. These categories were (a) student-related issues, (b) personal issues, (c) structural issues and (d) other teacher issues.
Some of the pre-existing supportive factors provided by the caring teachers were confirmed by the teachers of this study, but the colleagues did not refer to those categories that found support in being with the students. However, a number of other supportive factors were raised and these primarily focused upon gaining support in skills and knowledge about how to work better with students.

Study Five revealed interesting differences between groups of teachers: those in the peer-nominated caring group and those who were their work colleagues, as well as those from differing school contexts. These differences will be explored in the discussion in the following chapter.


10 DISCUSSION

The purpose of this thesis was to extend understandings about the nature of caring teachers and their practices of care in the current Australian educational climate. Furthermore, given the importance of caring teachers in students’ development, the purpose was also to explore the factors that support and hinder the capacities of caring teachers and the maintenance of their practices. To this end, three research questions were developed and explored through a mixed methods approach. These research questions were:

1. How do caring teachers demonstrate care?
2. What are the personal factors that contribute to a caring teacher’s approach?
3. What are the contextual factors that hinder and/or support a caring teacher’s approach?

Three Catholic secondary schools in metropolitan Sydney were selected for investigation of the research questions; data from standardised interviews, open-ended questions, rating scales, an inventory, observations, and group interviews (administered through five studies) revealed the findings presented in chapters five to nine. Results showed that all participants agreed that caring teachers were important and that participants’ perspectives, insights and experiences provided important contributions that extended present understandings from the literature with regard to the (a) demonstration of care, (b) personal factors that influence a caring approach and (c) factors that hinder and/or support the demonstration of care. The following three sections explore these findings.
10.1 Research Question One – How Do Caring Teachers Demonstrate Care?

All five studies contributed to this research question. The model depicting educational and personal care in a matrix (Figure 3.1), originally constructed from the literature review, is explored throughout these studies. The findings from the five studies have resulted in a revised model. The practices of care that have been identified through the five studies have led to recognition of distinct caring behaviours and a different emphasis to the practices of care listed previously. The importance of these findings is further discussed in sections 10.1.1 to 10.1.2.

10.1.1 The Educational and Personal Care Model

The literature review, through its definitions and descriptions of care from both teachers and students, led to the development of a model of caring approaches that emphasised the balance between educational and personal care. Figure 3.1 shows the model derived from the literature.

![High personal care](image)

**Figure 3.1. Identification of caring approaches**

It was the intention of this study to ascertain whether the key participants in the study from the school community agreed with the model as presented in Figure 3.1. The findings from
Study One (which involved the teaching staff from the three schools) confirmed that most teachers agreed that the two dimensions of care featured in Figure 3.1 were central to the demonstration of care. Definitions of caring teachers provided by the teachers described both educational care (49%) and personal care (68%) dimensions. Secondly, the majority of teachers (91%) agreed that both dimensions were necessary components of care. Findings from observations of the 10 peer-nominated teachers for a full day of teaching also confirmed the two dimensions in the practices of the participants.

Of the nine distinct practices of care that emerged in the interviews, educational and personal care were clearly identified as two of them. However, separation of the personal and educational dimensions became more difficult as the 10 teachers spoke of their caring practices. Educational care emerged more distinctly because by nature its actions are directly related to teaching content and this connection could often be more clearly identified. Personal care, however, became entangled with compassion, empathy, relationships and simply being with students, and the distinction between this personal dimension and the educational dimension was quite difficult to define. Consistent with the existing literature from the teacher perspective, relationship was pivotal to caring (Acker, 1995; Chaskin & Rauner, 1995; Collinson et al., 1998; Lumpkin, 2007; Noddings, 2001; Shacklock, 1998). The importance of relationship as the basis of care was exemplified by a teacher in Study One who disagreed with the educational and personal model (Figure 3.1) and stated instead: “positive relationships have everything to do with being called caring”.

While teachers in this research acknowledged the importance of relationship, the dominance of relational behaviours also emerged from the student perspective. Students’ responses about how teachers demonstrated care showed that it is positioned far more strongly than was
perceived originally from the literature. So, whilst the educational and personal dimensions were still present and were upheld by teachers in their mindsets (which will be discussed further under the second research question), and by students in their group interviews, the relational aspect of teaching was considered by both groups of participants to be pivotal in supporting these dimensions in practice. The central role of relationship affirms the assertions made about care generally by Gilligan (1982), Noddings (1984) and Fisher and Tronto (1990), three of the four main theorists reviewed earlier in chapter two.

From an educational perspective, relationships, according to the caring teachers and students, were the vehicle by which both educational and personal care could be demonstrated. This observation is supported by Hargreaves (1998): “The teachers we studied, in other words, acknowledged that their practice is an emotional one and building emotional understanding with students in relationships which make this possible, is essential to successful academic learning” (p. 845). These findings, while confirming the dimensions of educational care and personal care suggest that these dimensions are facilitated through relationships.

Hence, what emerged are three important facets of care: educational care, personal care, and relationship. Educational care may still be defined as care that is concerned for academic progress; personal care may still be defined as care that is concerned for personal and social progress; but relationship refers to the vehicle through which both these types of care can be facilitated. This has resulted in the development of a new model which better expresses the role of relationship between teacher and students in the demonstration of the two key dimensions of educational and personal care (see Figure 10.1).
The model (Figure 10.1) illustrates the importance of both educational and personal care if a teacher is to be truly caring and incorporates the initial assertion in chapter three which showed that a caring teacher would display both educational and personal orientations towards his/her students. By placing both of these dimensions together within one circle the distinction between them is less defined showing that caring practices may sometimes be both. The placement of relationship between teacher and student at the top shows the central role of relationship in maintaining the facilitation of both types of care.

The placement of these three main facets of care is important to the way in which teachers and teacher educators view the teaching process. Rather than either viewing teaching as a means
of transmitting content, or caring for students at a personal level, the necessity of both types of care driven by relationship is important. Yet the current perspective of teaching is focused around teaching content in an engaging way to capture the students’ interest rather than focusing on building relationships with pupils and proceeding from there (Clark, 1995). The emphasis, and consequently the way in which teaching is driven, needs shifting so that teaching begins with relationship and educational and personal care is embedded within that context. Support for such a shift in focus is well supported by the placement of relational behaviours as the most frequent caring practice reported by both teachers and students in the five studies, and is exemplified in the following quote from one of the 10 caring teachers:

Dealing with them, the way you talk to them, the way you develop a relationship with them and as I said before – relationships are the most important thing. I don’t think that kids will let you teach them, if I can use that expression, unless they know you care for them.

And from one of the students:

When the teacher makes you feel you are like their age. They make you feel like mature; they treat you on their level. One of my teachers she is very nice to us, because she does teach us but during that she talks to us about how things are and if we need help with anything and she makes us feel like the same age, the same maturity level. Just makes you feel more welcome.

The construction of tertiary teacher training, timetabling in schools, and in-servicing of teachers may currently be more driven by educational care priorities hence implicitly devaluing the balance of personal care and making relationship building incidental. A change of perspective may be necessary if more caring teachers are to be present in our classrooms, which is a current aim of western society (Bowman, 2002; Knobloch, 2002; Noddings, 1995; Singh & McWilliam, 2005).
10.1.2 Categories of Caring Practices

The observations and interviews of the 10 caring teachers (Studies Two and Three) and the group interviews and colleague questionnaires (Studies Four and Five) have added to the already well-established list of caring behaviours. However, the descriptions of caring teachers given in Study One assisted in clarifying what sub-domains of care existed. From these descriptions three sub-domains of care were derived: action, commitment and personal qualities.

Action. This is any type of educational or personal care facilitated through relationship that promotes students’ growth, for example, planning effective lessons, assisting individuals with troubles in their work or personal life, or listening to student concerns. This category of care is consistent with (a) Caldwell and Sholtis’ (2008) work oriented care, (b) Goldstein’s (1998) description of ‘Martha’ working with her class in a morning meeting, (c) Lumpkin’s (2007) description of teachers who engage with students to show they care, and (d) McLaughlin’s (1991) account of ‘Kerry’ who strived to get the best from her students by taking account of their interests in the setting of work. Action is the observable assistance given, which caters for recognised needs and may be identified as either personal or educational or both. It is the category of care which most teachers could readily describe because it is observable and, at times, measurable.

Commitment. Commitment refers to the way in which teachers extend themselves for the needs of their students, for example, (a) staying back after school to help a student, (b) attending voluntary camps on weekends, or (c) helping out in school clubs or groups at the school in lunchtimes. Commitment, from the perspective of the teachers, was the second most mentioned
feature of care next to relationship in the empirical literature. This is also consistent with Noddings (1995) who spoke about the need for teachers to be committed to continuity with students, Hargreaves (1994a) who acknowledged that teachers who were committed to care fulfilled their focal motivation to teach, Nias who stated that care was underpinned by commitment and identity to the extent that teachers invested heavily in themselves and in their work, and Shacklock (1998) who spoke of commitment as a way in which teachers demonstrated their care through professionalism. Commitment is strongly linked to the attitudes caring teachers hold about teaching and students. Furthermore, while commitment is identified here as part of the demonstration of care it is also strongly linked to the personal capacity of a caring teacher.

**Personal Qualities.** Personal qualities are characteristics that assist with the way the caring action is administered, for example, with patience, approachability, understanding, and encouragement. Personal qualities were also found to encompass empathy, and optimism, which is consistent with the previous work of Cooper (2004) and Schussler and Collins (2006). The importance of a teacher’s personal qualities is important to not only the administration of care but also to encouraging students to share needs and concerns with a teacher. If a teacher is not approachable or is irritable and dismissive then it is unlikely that the student will disclose their needs, questions or desire for help. These personal qualities enable the recognition of the need for care to occur, and is therefore linked to the personal capacities of a caring teacher. It is unlikely that a student would identify an action as caring if it was conveyed in a manner that lacked understanding and tolerance. The use of approachable personal qualities in caring for students is an important part of caring practices.
As these three sub-domains of care – action, commitment and personal qualities - all clearly emerged from the findings of this research, it may be reasonable to assume that the more they can be demonstrated together, the stronger the caring for the student. This is consistent with a study undertaken by Teven and Hanson (2004) who found that students strongly agreed that teachers who showed caring for students verbally as well as actively held the highest credibility for teacher care. From this thesis it would be reasonable to suggest that where teachers combine caring actions, commitment and personal qualities for the development of the student(s), the perceived caring will have greater credibility and possibly acceptance. For example, if a teacher assists the student in a concrete way with an approachable manner and is committed to the endeavour then the result will most likely be that the student will feel cared for and will therefore respond. In other words, the student will receive the care as an important part of the caring process, as identified by Fisher and Tronto (1990) and Noddings (1984), and the caring action will then be complete (Noddings, 1984).

Whilst practices of care in the classroom have been described by many authors, no classification of such practices was identified from the literature. Placing behaviours into groups such as action, commitment, and personal qualities may assist in the measurement of teacher effectiveness and competencies (Day, 2004; Day et al., 2007; Gomez et al., 2004; Hargreaves, 1998; Korthagen, 2004). Teacher competence or teacher effectiveness is currently a strong focus of both government and educational systems in Australia and globally. Classification of caring teacher practices may assist in the inclusion of such practices in competency measures at both pre-service and in-service levels.
10.1.3 Caring Characteristics

In addition to the three main types of care just discussed, the observations and interviews with the caring teachers, the group interviews with students and the questionnaires with colleagues revealed that there were three less obvious or recognizable, yet important caring characteristics: attentiveness, flexibility and recognition of limitations.

The attentiveness with which the caring teachers worked with their students in the observation stage of data collection was quite marked, as illustrated in the teacher profiles outlined in chapter six. Attentiveness is the ability to notice discrepancies, differences or issues and then to intuitively respond to the situation appropriately. The teachers in Study Three were barely aware of such a practice perhaps because they were so intuitively perceptive or because their attentiveness was an unconscious behaviour. Nor was attentiveness overwhelmingly remarked upon by their colleagues. Yet, attentiveness was the fifth most commonly mentioned practice of the eight identified by students, clearly acknowledging how they benefited from this particular teacher skill. Attentiveness observed in this study has been previously identified by Day (2004), Elbaz (1992), Fisher and Tronto (1990), Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Van Manen (1995). Attentiveness is the ability to recognize the needs in others, “to watch for small signs of growth, to remember small bits of information at the right moment” (Elbaz, 1992 p. 426). Van Manen describes it as a “sensitive ability to interpret inner thoughts, understanding, feelings, and desires from indirect clues such as gestures, demeanour, expression, and body language” (p.44). Such an emotional ability may be strongly linked to the work of Salovey and Mayer (1990) who identify five domains of ‘emotional intelligence’, two of which are: (a) recognizing emotions in others, and (b) handling relationships. The second phase of caring appears to have much in common with the last two domains of Salovey and Mayer’s work. In other words, caring
teachers, as part of the process of caring, are able to recognise emotions in others and are able to respond appropriately within relationships. The findings in this research, and in particular the observations, suggest that attentiveness covers both of the types of capabilities described by these authors.

Highlighting the importance of attentiveness to the caring process, Fisher and Tronto (1990) identify it as the first highly important stage of caring, whilst Noddings (1984) claims that attentiveness plays an important role when the one-caring receives the cared-for at the beginning of the caring process. This appears to be also supported by this research through the observation of the caring teachers, which demonstrated clearly that the caring teachers were able to perceive when care was needed and how to address that care. Attentiveness, then, is important to the commencement of the caring act and will be discussed further in addressing the second research question about the personal factors of caring teachers.

Flexibility, as a characteristic of caring teachers has received little attention in the caring literature, and yet the findings suggest that the ability to compromise, alter and adapt as needed is an important skill in a caring teacher. This was emphasised by both sets of teachers in the research. Meeting the needs of children requires flexibility and even though the students failed to mention this as a caring practice, the emphasis given to it by the teachers shows that it is helpful in providing another indicator of caring teaching. The failure of students to mention flexibility as a characteristic of caring teachers may have been due to the fact that they did not always recognise where teachers adjusted requirements for them. However, their acknowledgement of the way in which teachers were ‘fair’ to them could, to some extent, identify the flexible character of the caring teacher.
Recognition of limitations is an important practice for caring teachers as it demonstrates their awareness of the boundaries of care and the limitations of their own resources. The 10 caring teachers mentioned this more frequently than six other practices of care, despite their colleagues and students mentioning it relatively less frequently. For the caring teachers, recognition of limitations stops the caring practice from ‘running out’ and from becoming an act of ethical care that is not inspired naturally at all (Noddings, 1984). It also acts as a self-protective factor and is important if teachers are to prevent burn-out or over-stepping professional boundaries with students. It is a caring behaviour because by recognizing the weakness in the situation or within themselves the teacher is able to refer the issue to someone whom they believe is better equipped to care.

The recognition of limitations supports the work of Fisher and Tronto (1990). They assert that in order to be able to give care (the second phase of the care process) one must have the skill or ability to care. When a caring teacher recognises the need for care thus completing the first phase of the caring process, according to Fisher and Tronto, he/she may find that the situation of the cared-for is more difficult or requires more expertise than he/she can contribute. The outcome will frequently be that the caring teacher will find someone else more able to care to take on the needs of the student rather than simply stop caring altogether. Sharing the delivery of care is also supported by Fisher and Tronto who claim that the caring process need not be completed by only one party. Caring may be undertaken by different people or groups as needs arise (Fisher & Tronto, 1990).

The stories and explanations teachers gave in their interviews highlighted this skill but it is possible that they were not entirely aware that this ability was so powerful in their own thinking. Their descriptions of teachers who were too familiar with students or who disempowered
students by doing the task for them showed, however, that they recognised that not all teachers exercised the same discretion. The ability to know when enough is enough may help in sustaining caring practices and adds further evidence to the debate with regard to ethical or natural caring. The way in which teachers recognise when someone else should take over the caring activity suggests that they support, to some degree, the notion put forward by Noddings (1984) that ethical caring is more superior because it energises the giver as well as the receiver. However, passing on the role of care does not mean that the caring has ceased entirely; instead the care takes on a different form through the skills that another may be able to bring, inferring that one may need both ethical and natural caring to accomplish the goal (Goldstein, 1999; Nias, 1999). The identification of recognition of limitations as an essential skill in caring practices is therefore useful in understanding more about how caring teachers enact their caring and could be a focus of further research.

From a student perspective, caring from teachers begins with relationships as discussed earlier, however students also gave a different perspective to the caring practices to those gleaned from the teachers. Whilst the categories were similar to those derived from the observational and interview data with the teachers, there were some further practices that can be included in caring teacher descriptions. Firstly, the use of praise was highly appreciated by students and it appeared that at a secondary level there wasn’t as much praise as perhaps one might hope for. Secondly, a patient manner, particularly when providing explanations of content and procedure, was also considered by students to be extremely helpful. Finally, caring teachers who are just and will take the time to ‘hear students out’ when things have gone wrong were considered important by students. Of course, this attitude takes commitment to giving time to such issues, courage to hear about situations that might make the decision that much more
difficult, and reading students and situations perceptively (attentiveness). Inclusion of praise, patience and justness in the lists of skills that should be part of a teacher’s manner with students is helpful in assisting teachers in the ways in which they can work positively with students, as well as assisting students to recognise a teacher’s intention to care.

The colleague teachers’ additions to the list of caring competencies: (a) dedication, (b) respect for students, (c) reflecting on own practice, (d) accepting critical feedback, (e) being responsible, and (f) showing consistency had received little attention in the literature attributed to caring teachers, but had been raised by Day (2004) in his work on passionate teachers. In particular, accepting critical feedback, and reflecting on own practice are two expectations already on the list of professional standards in some countries (MCEETYA, 2003; NSW Institute of Teachers, 2003; TDA, 2007).

Determining more about the ways in which caring teachers demonstrate care has been useful for the development and measurement of competent teaching. Placing relationship at the centre of these practices means a re-organisation of the way in which teacher preparation is conducted and extends the professional standards which tend to rely on a list of technical competencies without giving due weight to the personal and emotional characteristics necessary to good teaching. Categories of caring practices identified through this research may assist educational authorities and teacher training institutes in measuring some of these more important personal characteristics of human interaction in teachers and prospective teachers. However, there is more to a caring teacher than just observable behaviours, as the discussion of research question two will now indicate.
10.2 Research Question Two – What Are the Personal Factors That Contribute to a Caring Teacher’s Approach?

Exploration of the personal capacities of caring teachers suggested that the demonstration of care did not occur without a contribution from other important attributes in a caring teacher’s composition. This was alluded to earlier in the discussion concerning attentiveness, as the possession of ability to identify accurately where needs exist, and how these needs could be met, plays a key role in undertaking care. Findings from this thesis show that factors such as attentiveness, the response that a teacher feels when a student needs help, and beliefs and motivations are significant personal factors in a caring approach. Investigation of these factors in this research has led to a better understanding of the processes of care that preceded the demonstration of care. The following three sections (10.2.1 to 10.2.3) will explain these findings and their ramifications.

10.2.1 Phases of Educational Caring

The 178 teachers from across the three schools provided definitions of caring teachers. These definitions indicated that caring was represented by the values held by caring teachers and their internal response to students’ needs, as well as the actions undertaken to demonstrate care. The results from Study One showed that caring, in an educational context, was a three phase process. This was demonstrated in Figure 5.1.

Outward response has already been addressed as part of the demonstration of care in the last research question and so will not be addressed here as part of the personal factors that contribute to a caring teacher’s approach. However, both mindset and inner response provide some insight into the personal factors that support care and these will be discussed here.
10.2.1.1 Mindsets

Mindsets are effectively the foundation upon which the inner response and the outward action are built. In Study Three 10 mindsets became clear and the majority of these were reinforced by the students and colleagues who participated in the study. The mindsets were divided into two groups: personal mindsets and teacher mindsets. The personal mindsets appeared to underpin the caring teachers’ beliefs about how they should act in the world and they were described as: (a) do all you can /try to solve the problem, (b) be fair, (c) good outcomes
often require hard work and/or time, (d) people can change for the better, and (e) everyone matters.

The teacher mindsets also underpinned the beliefs of the caring teachers in relation to how they worked with students. The teacher mindsets identified in this research were: (a) make a difference, (b) work with the whole student, (c) have boundaries, (d) enjoy teaching and like kids, and (e) be concerned for both content delivery and student well-being but student well-being is more important. These 10 mindsets became a foundation for the decisions the teachers made for their care of not just the students but of staff and others within the school community.

The notion of mindsets is consistent with Korthagen (2004) who, in his work on change in teacher professional development, identified that mission, identity, and beliefs are part of the innermost core of teachers that will affect their competencies and behaviour in the classroom. Associated also with this notion is Agne’s (1999) claim that understanding what a teacher believes is the key to the classroom, and Day (2004) who asserts that “moral purposes are at the heart of every teacher’s work. They underpin their sense of commitment to their pupils, which includes but goes beyond the instrumental policy agendas of governments” (p. 24). Furthermore, Nias (1999) calls for increased understanding about the beliefs which: “frame the nature of teachers’ tasks and of the values which direct their work” (p. 81). Study Three’s contribution to understanding the mindsets of caring teachers has provided the clarity that Nias requested and will be addressed with greater detail in the following section.

The personal and teacher mindsets have some similarities to Korthagen’s (2004) inner circles of mission and beliefs. Korthagen describes ‘mission’ as deeply held personal values, thus providing some alignment to the personal mindsets that emerged from this study. Believing that one should do all one can to try and solve the problem, that it is important to be fair, that good
outcomes require hard work and/or time, that people can change for the better, and that everyone matters are deeply held values that affect the decisions that these teachers make, not just in their teaching but in their life. Korthagen states that “the level of mission could have direct relevance to teachers” (p. 86) and this thesis suggests that it does.

Beliefs, Korthagen continues, are attitudes about teaching and learning; attitudes that usually develop through the teacher’s own schooling. Beliefs relate strongly to the teacher mindsets raised in this research such as (a) making a difference, (b) working with the whole student, (c) having boundaries, (d) enjoying teaching and liking kids, and (e) placing priority on emotional and social well-being over content delivery. The beliefs are, like personal mindsets, the basis for making decisions when caring for students but, unlike personal mindsets, are confined to the role of teaching.

According to Korthagen, the inner levels of a teacher are more difficult to change than those of the outer levels like behaviour and competencies (the teachers’ outward caring actions). There has been ample conjecture about the effectiveness of university programs in changing already established perceptions of teachers and teaching (Bullough, 1991; Cooper, 2004; Gomez et al., 2004; Korthagen, 2004). The relative difficulty of changing beliefs may have implications for selection of teachers if mission and beliefs or personal and teacher mindsets are firmly embedded in each person. As Arnstine (1990) suggests, it might be more prudent to select people who already hold these caring teacher mindsets rather than seek to change them once they are part of the program.

More importantly, the overarching mindset of optimism that underpinned the personal mindsets encompassed the notion that (a) change in the current situation is possible, and (b) that things will be better if help is given. This fundamentally optimistic belief is reflected in the
caring literature. Mayeroff (1971) draws attention to hope (a similar construct) when he states: “there is hope that the other will grow through my caring” (p. 32). When a person believes that positive difference will likely result through efforts expended they could be called an optimist (Carver & Scheier, 1999; Knobloch, 2002). Mindsets such as: (a) do all you can/ try and solve the problem, (b) be fair, (c) good outcomes often require hard work and/or time, (d) people can change for the better, and (e) everyone matters rely on such an optimistic belief. As Day (2004) asserts: “In order to teach effectively, teachers must not only feel psychologically and emotionally ‘comfortable’, they must also have some sense of belief that they can make a difference in the lives of children they are teaching” (p. 74). This belief is exemplified with the following comment from one caring teacher:

I think I became a teacher in the end because I thought I had something to offer them and I wanted them to, you know, I know it sounds a bit idealistic, but I thought that I could change part of their life and I see, I hope that in my teaching that I make them better people with what I teach, with how I teach, and I think that’s why I care.

Teachers need to have hope in their efforts or they simply won’t try. They need to believe that through their care, change will result and that the changes will be better than whatever was before. Possibility for change is a fundamental belief of caring teachers and this is what motivates their inner response and their outward actions. Employing teachers with a belief in potential change is crucial to ensuring the presence of caring teachers in our classrooms.

Mindsets may assist teachers in making decisions in the complexity of the classroom. Teachers are frequently called upon to make judgements or decisions concerning matters of moral conflict (Hargreaves, 1995; Kelchtermans, 1996) as is demonstrated in the case study of Nicole in Kelchtermans’ description of a primary school teacher who had to decide whether to expose the whole class to extra learning opportunities to the possible detriment of the
standardised curriculum. In these circumstances, an internal belief system or mindsets may assist teachers with making the choice. Support for this perspective comes from Nias (1996) “Individuals have repeatedly to make decisions which are not just complex but are also set in a morally ambiguous context. Inevitably, therefore, they fall back on their own beliefs about what it is to be a teacher, and act in accordance with this perspective” (pp. 298-299).

On the other hand, when there are conflicts between mindsets then decision-making can become a more difficult prospect. In those situations, as one teacher explained in her interview, she has to go with the mindset that is strongest for her. A student had come to her to disclose a private matter, and the mindset of “be fair” by keeping her secret was in direct conflict with “have boundaries” by staying professional and reporting what she knew she should. Ultimately, her decision to report the incident may have also involved other mindsets, for example, “good outcomes take hard work” and “make a difference”, which hopefully culminated in a positive outcome for the student.

Further evidence that mindsets are critical to the nature of caring teachers is the number of times these mindsets were mentioned by the two groups of teachers in the research: the colleague teachers and the peer-nominated caring teachers. It would not be fair to say that the colleagues of the caring teachers were not caring themselves. In fact, there is some likelihood that the work colleagues selected by the teachers were of similar mindsets to themselves. In some sense this was true, for when they spoke of the caring teachers the colleagues identified similar mindsets with the exception of ‘people can change for the better’ which was not identified by the colleague teachers. However, the colleagues clearly saw some mindsets as more important or more distinctive than others as they mentioned them more frequently. The number of times each mindset was mentioned by the two groups of teachers differed. An example of this is the teacher
mindset of “making a difference”. This was the least frequently mentioned mindset by colleague teachers, and yet the most frequently mentioned teacher mindset for the caring teachers. This may suggest that making a difference was not as strong a desire for the colleagues as much as it was for the 10 caring teachers, or maybe they didn’t believe it was always possible. Asking teachers to rank mindsets may assist in the identification of caring teachers and may be helpful in the employment process of potential staff.

Identifying and understanding the mindsets of caring teachers is an important key to knowing more of the nature of caring teachers. The potential for using this understanding for selection of employment and entrance to universities for teacher training warrants serious attention.

10.2.1.2 The Inner Response

The inner response is the second phase of the caring process. It may be described as an awareness and recognition of a situation or person in need of assistance as well as the emotional response to that need. Teachers in Study One described inner response as having compassion for students, having the ability to look beyond the surface, being mindful of the individuality of their students and feeling concern for students’ difficulties. The inner response is a necessary stage in caring and has received limited attention in caring literature to date. Noddings (1984) and Mayeroff (1971) appear to be two of the few people to have called attention to this particular phenomenon. Noddings notes: “We first respond to the feeling that something is the matter” (p. 31) and then “there is also a motivational shift. My motive energy flows toward the other and perhaps, although not necessarily, towards his ends” (p. 33). Similarly, Mayeroff affirms that experiencing another’s potentialities and the need to grow is an important part of the caring process; one must be able to recognise the need and respond inwardly to it. The teachers in this
study demonstrated this inner response throughout their responses to students in the course of the observational study.

The recognition of need relates back again to Elbaz’s (1992) thoughts on attentiveness and to the words of one of the caring teachers in the interview: “They have to see it; they have to recognise it, the caring that’s needed to be done and the actual problems. They have to see the needs that are there”. Why is the inner response important? Without an inner response; without this stage of the process, caring cannot occur. Inner response recognises the need for care and responds compassionately to that need, for it is built on the mindsets mentioned earlier which motivate and inspire the caring teacher to respond inwardly and outwardly. The following section addresses other factors such as gender, efficacy, teaching experience and subjects taught and their influences on caring practices.

10.2.2 The Influence of Teaching Experience, Teacher Efficacy, Subjects Taught and Gender

The collection of demographic information about the teachers who had participated in the studies enabled a number of statistical tests to be performed comparing these personal factors with the number of times certain categories were mentioned. The use of the Student-Content Teaching Inventory (S-CTI) (Spier, 1974) also became a point of comparison with these personal factors. The rationale for comparing such factors was to see if there were particular demographics associated with being a caring teacher.

The years of teaching experience, the subjects teachers taught and the teachers’ sense of efficacy appeared to have no bearing on the ways in which the teachers defined care, the number of mentions that they made of educational or personal care, or the S-CTI scores. The research in
the past using the S-CTI has been extremely limited and so it is not possible to tell whether this result is unexpected.

Mean scores of the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) were compared with years of teaching experience for the sub-group of 10 caring teachers and the whole cohort of school staff \((N = 178)\) and no significant results were found. Referring to research in this area, it has been noted that there have been some studies cited on teacher efficacy that have returned a positive correlation between teaching experience and efficacy (Campbell, 1996; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), some that have returned a negative correlation (Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), and some that have not returned a significant result either way (Aydin & Woolfolk Hoy, 2005; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). This study seems to be quite consistent with the last group of studies that found no correlation. When gender differences were analysed from the perspective of the S-CTI, the results were somewhat intriguing and may provide insight into the gender debate that was raised by theorists in chapter two.

10.2.2.1 Gender

Mean scores for content and student orientation were calculated and compared with gender using independent \(t\)-tests. The results showed that males were less oriented to content than females at a significance level of \(p = .002\). Additionally, when teachers were grouped according to scores of both content and student orientations there were significantly more males in Group D representing teachers scoring below 10 out of 20 in both orientations. The reverse was also revealed: there were more female teachers who scored above 10 out of 20 in both content and student orientations (Group A). Why are males in this study over-represented in the group with low orientation towards content and students whilst the females are over-represented in the high
orientation towards content and students category? Why are the males significantly less oriented towards content than the females? The results concerning scores of content and student orientation could possibly be aligned with the educational and personal care dimensions proposed in this research. If the association between orientations in Spier’s work could be verified with the educational and personal dimensions of care then these results may contribute further to the gender debate surrounding care and may suggest that males in this study are less concerned with educational and personal caring than females.

There has been a suggestion by some researchers that women may be more understanding and more nurturing – more naturally caring (Bullough, 1991; Noddings, 2003) – which may support the findings from the Spier’s inventory with the 178 teachers. This perspective was also readily supported by the data found in one other part of this study: that female teachers were more empathetic to students’ current circumstances and consequently more understanding, was raised by students from years seven to nine in a group interview. Tronto (1999) has suggested that females are more concerned with the actual care-giving (‘care for’) while males tend to ‘care about’ others and are less involved with the ‘hands-on’ aspect of care giving. This study may indicate that there is some validity to this assertion.

Such findings are not consistent with the work of Barber (2002) who claims that in her research “male teachers are just as likely as female teachers to be attached to their students” (p. 393). Barber presents several accounts that illustrate male teachers’ concern for the interpersonal and emotional well-being of students. Vogt (2002) also similarly asserts that in his sample of male and female teachers there did not appear to be significant differences between the two groups with regard to ways in which teachers demonstrated care. While the role of gender with regard to student and content orientations appears to be quite clear in this research, its
transferability to the educational and personal care dimensions may not be conclusive and in this manner cannot further the research into the gender debate definitively.

Overall, the personal factors of teaching experience, teacher efficacy and choice of teaching subject, were not associated with the views held by the group of 178 teachers regarding student and content orientation or the ways that they defined care. However, whilst male teachers defined care similarly to their female counterparts and had similar beliefs about teacher efficacy to their female colleagues, males held lower orientations toward content and students. This could generate a concern that although male teachers agreed that both educational and personal caring practices were important, when they were tested through an inventory their beliefs reflected less orientation towards the content of their lessons and the students in their classes.

10.2.3 The Development of Mindsets, Qualities and Practices

The 10 caring teachers, their chosen colleagues and the student interview groups were all asked to comment on the personal capacity of caring teachers. Specifically, they were asked to contribute ideas as to how they believed caring teachers developed as people to be the sort of teachers that they are. The 10 peer-nominated caring teachers provided three sources that encouraged their development as caring teachers: (a) parents and family, who role modeled in word and action the importance of caring for others; (b) teachers at school, who helped them as students and taught them something of what a teacher should be and what a teacher could do; and (c) university staff who similarly taught their students about the importance of not labeling kids, of putting in effort and who treated them with fairness and understanding.

The student perspective was somewhat divided: the majority of students in the younger groups maintained that you were either born and made as a caring person or you weren’t and that
no amount of training or education would change that; the majority of students from the older
groups suggested that if people recognise the role of relationship in teaching and learn how to
relate to people then they will become caring teachers regardless of background or upbringing.

Colleague teachers considered both past experiences and present circumstances as influential
on whether a teacher is caring or not. They acknowledged the role of upbringing and family but
also maintained that (a) having a family of your own, (b) being single, (c) the subjects that you
taught, (d) the length of time you have been teaching and (e) a balanced lifestyle all played a part
in one’s level of caring. It is interesting that at no point in the interviews did the peer-nominated
caring teachers acknowledge present circumstances as having anything to do with caring. Their
sense was that caring was a notion that had embedded itself in their way of thinking about
teaching a long time ago. Influences from circumstances in the present appeared to hold little
bearing on their persistence in care, unlike their colleagues’ perspectives.

The current literature supports sources of care suggested by the caring teachers. Family as a
pervading influence is acknowledged by Chaskin and Rauner (1995): “The family is the first
influence in the development and promotion of caring because, by responding appropriately to
infants’ signals and cues, primary caretakers demonstrate caring behaviour” (p. 673). Others
have asserted similarly when they have stated that the roots of our caring are in the memories of
being cared for (Noddings, 1984) and that “growing up with the capacity to care for
people…depends on the early experience of receiving loving and affectionate care” (Bateson,
1989 p. 159).

Where two of the 10 caring teachers claimed that their parents were not good role models of
care they explained that other significant people in their lives, including teachers, played a part.
This is also supported by Chaskin and Rauner (1995) who note that “for children deprived of
such [caring] opportunities in the family, relationships outside the family that allow young people to experience personal efficacy within supportive systems can powerfully affect the development of caring” (p. 673).

The role modelling of caring teachers in school and the early years of teaching identified by teachers in this study are instrumental in developing the teacher mindsets of the role of care in teaching. As Noddings (1995) emphasises “educators must recognise that caring for students is fundamental in teaching and that developing people with a strong capacity for care is a major objective of responsible education” (p. 678). Several of the teachers in this study affirmed the fact that teachers that they had in school were a strong influence not only on their desire to become a teacher but also on the type of teacher they wanted to be. Korthagen’s views are aligned with these experiences when he refers to a study undertaken by Koster, Korthagen, & Schrijnemakers (1995) claiming that the study “brought to light clear examples of the extent to which student teachers were influenced by certain teachers in their own past. Those examples illustrate how past role models shape the professional self-image of teachers” (2004 p. 82).

Furthermore, five of the 10 caring teachers spoke of university experiences that assisted them in their development of care. For a few, their actual experience of staff afforded understanding and assistance and giving advice on how to treat students, was an important factor, whilst for others support for and encouragement of their views came from the university supervisors and school mentors in their experience of student teaching. How much their perspectives changed in their progress throughout higher education training was not a topic explored but there have been others who have shed light on the subject of the effect of teacher education programs on previously held beliefs, suggesting that some change has been found.
(Larson & Silverman, 2005; Nettle, 1998). Others’ research has shown that teacher education does more to suppress ideals than support them (Cooper, 2004; Gomez et al., 2004).

The role of vicarious learning also needs to be considered here in the development of these caring teachers as their confidence in not only their beliefs about the importance of caring for students but also their ability to carry those beliefs into action seems to be quite strong. Bandura (1994) explains this phenomenon: “Seeing people similar to oneself succeed by sustained effort raises observers’ beliefs that they too possess the capabilities to master comparable activities to succeed….The greater the assumed similarity the more persuasive are the models’ successes and failures” (p. 72). Certainly the interviewees strongly supported placing student and beginning teachers with caring teachers wherever possible so that the desirable practices and beliefs may develop and flourish.

The importance of examining how these beliefs and mindsets have developed is the key to understanding whether by in-servicing or teacher training programs, we can support the pre-existing caring beliefs or change those that are not desirable. Some say that changing beliefs is quite difficult (Cooper, 2004; Gomez et al., 2004; Korthagen, 2004), whilst others assert that there can be moderate success (Bullough, 1991; Nettle, 1998). The findings of this research suggest that the focus of teacher education institutions should be to spend more time assisting their students in recognizing their beliefs about teaching and creating an awareness of how these beliefs influence their actions. Another alternative is to direct energies to the selection of those who enter the profession in the hope that their mindsets might be desirable for supporting caring. If these mindsets are present upon entry the prospective teachers have a better chance of developing them further and sustaining them when they begin teaching and as they continue into their careers. The most experienced teacher in the interviews felt that this option had potential
and Arnstine agrees “How are we to get rational and caring teachers? We can certainly try to select our candidates who already have these dispositions” (1990 p. 250).

Ultimately, the results related to the second research question concerning the personal factors that contribute to a caring teacher’s approach have informed us that the mindsets teachers have about life and teaching are important in determining the actions and practices they demonstrate in the classroom. The types of mindsets are as important as the ranking of them, particularly when conflicting situations arise. These mindsets determine the amount of effort teachers expend (their efficacy to care) and the way in which they work with students. The data has also told us that without awareness and recognition of student need coupled with an emotive reaction toward that need that regardless of the mindset a caring approach will not result.

From the perspective of the school staff, the subject(s) you teach, the number of years you have been teaching, your gender and your orientations do not have a direct relationship with views on teacher caring. The sub-group of caring teachers did not significantly differ from their 178 teacher cohort in this matter. Likewise, student and content orientation as measured by the S-CTI is not influenced by these factors with the exception of gender. It appears that males, at least those taking part in this study, are not strongly oriented towards content and are less concerned with both student and content orientations.

Finally, the information from this study has also confirmed that prior experiences in family, schooling and training can have an effect on the ways in which teacher beliefs about caring are formed and that consideration of these influences is necessary if we are to support, encourage or change these beliefs with the hope of increasing the presence of caring teachers in our schools. Extending this notion, the more caring teachers that are working within our schooling system the
more caring teachers of the future will be cultivated (Noddings, 1992). Hence, it is important to consider teacher beliefs in the recruitment and training of teachers.

10.3 Research Question Three – What are the Contextual Factors that Hinder and/or Support a Caring teacher’s Approach?

Learning more about the factors that influence a caring teacher’s practice supports the maintenance of these teachers’ approaches. The importance of these conditions has emerged quite strongly in the literature and the following quotation confirms this perspective: “If care is an important quality in schools, both in its own right and because it creates conditions conducive for learning, then understanding contextual factors that facilitate caring relationships is imperative” (Schussler & Collins, 2006). Much of what emerged in the data from Studies Three, Four, and Five, which specifically looked at this research question, confirmed what researchers had already discovered about support and hindrance for teaching practices generally. The factors that support caring teachers will be addressed first.

10.3.1 Factors that Support a Caring Teacher’s Approach

Caring teachers claimed that (a) school climate, (b) professional development focusing on relational aspects of teaching, (c) good school leadership, (d) good role modeling, (e) students responding positively to care, (f) time with students in less formal situations and (g) continuity with classes all supported their continuance of caring practices. Naming supportive factors came easily to this group of teachers. All of these factors have been cited in literature previously: (a) a school climate built on collegiality and school structures (Day et al., 2007; Hargreaves, 2003; Nias, 1999; Schussler & Collins, 2006); (b) professional development focusing on relational
aspects of teaching (Agne, 1999; Hargreaves, 2003); (c) good school leadership (Day, 2004; Day et al., 2007; Hargreaves, 2003; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Muller, 2001); (d) good role modeling (Aydin & Woolfolk Hoy, 2005; Bandura, 1994; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Noddings, 1992, 2006; Shaughnessy, 2004); (e) students responding positively to care (Noddings, 1984; Noddings, 1992); (f) time with students in less formal situations (Bosworth, 1995); and (g) continuity with classes (Noddings, 1986; 1991; 1992; 1995). However, only Schussler and Collins (2006) have specifically researched supportive factors in a study on care.

Colleague teachers also raised most of the same factors of support but did not mention students responding positively to care, time spent with students in less formal situations, or continuity with classes. Furthermore, the caring teachers noted under school climate that ‘easy to manage students’ was an aspect of climate that encouraged their care, whilst the colleagues didn’t. The differences between the two groups of teachers is worthy of exploration. It appears that caring teachers gained much support from the students themselves. As Day (2004) confirms “they must feel their professional work is bringing about positive change in their pupils. Teachers need to feel wanted and important, and require affirmation of this by those with whom they live and work (Rudow, 1999)” (p. 74). Seeing the difference made as a result of care is the benefit of working so positively with children and adolescents – their growth and their improvement is a highly sustaining feature for teachers (Day, 2004; Goldstein & Lake, 1999; Nias, 1999; Noddings, 1984). Fulfilment of a teacher’s motivation for teaching contributes much to a teacher’s identity and commitment giving strong reinforcement to continuing caring practices (Day, 2004; Day et al., 2007; Hargreaves, 1994a; Kelchtermans, 2005; Nias, 1989, 1996; Palmer, 2007).
The supportive factors raised by the caring teachers appear to indicate that caring must be reciprocated in order to sustain the carer (Noddings, 1984); caring teachers are supported by observing the difference their caring has made. As one teacher described: “I think it’s a case of a certain amount of satisfaction on my part that I can see that something has worked, that they’re working better or seem happier in themselves”. This comment reflected the most frequently mentioned teacher mindset, that is, to make a difference. In fulfilling that mindset caring teachers were able to continue their caring for others.

However, previously raised in chapter two was an assertion by White (2003) who stated that sometimes the carer will not always recognise that caring has made a difference because the cared-for may choose to suppress a reaction or be unable to show it. White further argued that Noddings’ claim that a carer had the right to withdraw care if they thought it would not be reciprocated was wrong and that the people who were most likely to need care were indeed the ones who may appear to be least able to demonstrate a response. How did this present study further this discussion regarding reciprocity? The caring teachers in their interviews detailed examples where their care was not reciprocated or did not appear to make the difference that they had hoped for and in some of those instances they chose to withdraw further care. However, equally often their response resulted in withdrawal of their own care in favour of passing on the caring responsibility to someone more able or skilled to achieve a better outcome. It is then questionable that this is an example of caring that is withdrawn. Instead it is a good example of the recognition of limitations and a call for ‘shared care’ as suggested by Fisher and Tronto (1990).

Given that the reception of care was supportive to caring teachers, it is intriguing that the colleague group seemed to perceive quite different forms of support. Maybe the colleague
teachers don’t see the results of their labours so convincingly; maybe they don’t work as hard as their caring co-workers. At this point it would be difficult to draw any firm conclusions but it is clear that being with the students supported the caring practices of the caring teachers and sustained them in their care (Noddings, 1984) yet did not appear to have such a strong effect on colleague teachers. The student group interviews supported the notion that spending time with teachers in relaxed and less formal settings enhanced their relationships and assisted teachers in caring.

A final difference between these two groups of teachers was that the colleagues raised some factors of support that the caring teacher sub-group did not. A call for more professional support in terms of in-servicing and resources, as well as more time for effective planning and more time away from classroom teaching were the main factors raised by this group of teachers. These factors have not been mentioned in the literature prior to this study except generally in terms of teachers needing more time to complete their tasks (Hargreaves, 1994a, 1994b; Nias, 1999). Despite the lack of difference between these two groups in terms of their collective efficacy, the application of attribution theory may contribute some understanding to the other differences noted. Bandura (1997) states that:

People who credit their successes to personal capabilities and their failures to insufficient effort will undertake difficult tasks and persist in the face of failure. They do this because they see their outcomes as influenceable by how much effort they expend. In contrast, those who ascribe their failures to deficiencies in ability and their successes to situational factors will display low strivings and give up readily when they encounter difficulties. (p. 123)

If the colleague teachers attribute lack of success with students to their own deficiencies rather than to lack of effort, their desire for more assistance in this matter through the help of professional development opportunities, more time away from students in planning, and extra
resources, may possibly be explained. This theory assumes that the colleague teachers have experienced less success in caring for their students than their caring co-workers but this assumption is partly based on their view that spending time with students is not necessarily supportive.

Students in this study, like the caring teachers, recognised the importance of teachers spending time with students in less formal circumstances and of students responding to teachers’ care in a positive way. They readily acknowledged that thanking teachers and praising them for them for their hard work and efforts would be helpful and supportive. To assist with summarising the results from all participants with regard to supportive factors, Table 10.1 shows the factors raised by the caring teachers regarding the agreement or lack of agreement from the colleague teachers and students.
Table 10.1

Concurrence between Participants of Supportive Factors of Caring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supportive factors</th>
<th>Caring teachers</th>
<th>Colleague teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Climate</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Easy to manage students</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Structures</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Supportive staff</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional development</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good role modeling</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive student response</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal time with students</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity with students</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In conclusion, this discussion of support is worth noting in that one way in which schools can assist teachers in caring for students is to build into their infrastructure time with students that will enhance relationship building. Time with the students that is less formal and academically demanding, where students and teachers can work alongside each other rather than in more...
traditional structures of teacher directed strategies, and where classes of students can maintain relationships with their teacher in subsequent years by remaining as a group will encourage the caring processes to take place. This last strategy of continuity with teachers and groups is one that Hargreaves (1998), Newberg (1995), Perez (2000) and Noddings (1995; 2005) endorse. Strategies allowing time for teachers and students to interact informally could assist teachers in the maintenance of caring approaches. Such strategies on face value appear to contradict the academic focus of schools as less time on academic work could be considered time not well spent. The importance of care in student learning would suggest that those with the power in educational decision-making need to be persuaded that allowing time and structures for enhancement of relationship building between teachers and students should be the priority rather than minimising these interactions for the sake of absorbing content. The rest, we are assured by the caring teachers, will follow, provided teachers are committed to both educational and personal care.

10.3.2 Factors that Hinder a Caring Teacher’s Approach

The factors mentioned in this research with regard to hindering a caring approach were explored through Studies Three to Five. A list of hindering factors identified by caring teachers is as follows: (a) tiredness and feeling drained, (b) students failing to respond to care, (c) too many other demands impacting on time, (d) staff who don’t share the same mindsets, (e) negative emotions from their personal life, and (f) disconnectedness in secondary schools. All of these factors have been raised for a number of years as hindrances to caring practices as can been seen by the following: (a) tiredness and feeling drained (Day, 2004; Day et al., 2007; Hargreaves, 1998; Nias, 1989); (b) students failing to respond to care (Brooks & Scott, 2000;
Day, 2004; Mayeroff, 1971; Noblit et al., 1995; Noddings, 1984); (c) too many other demands impacting on time (Bosworth, 1995; Cooper, 2004; Day, 2004; Day et al., 2007; Hargreaves, 1998, 2000; Nias, 1989, 1999; Schussler & Collins, 2006); (d) staff who don’t share the same mindsets (Arnstine, 1990; Cooper, 2004; Day, 2004; Schempp et al., 1999); (e) negative emotions from personal life (Agne, 1999; Day, 2004; Nias, 1989); and (f) disconnectedness in secondary schools (Newberg, 1995; Noddings, 1995). Only a few of these hindering factors have been empirically researched (Cooper, 2004; Schussler & Collins, 2006).

These factors are very complex to address as they come from many layers – personal and social; societal and familial; and emotional and academic. They discourage caring teachers’ practices of care to their students and yet, as the caring teachers emphasised, the factors were not sufficiently influential that the teachers stopped caring altogether. Finding instances where they had not cared for a student was extremely difficult. This is fortunate because it would appear that simple solutions, given the number of years over which these have been raised as a concern, are not easily found. Key points concerning these factors raised by the caring teachers however extend previous understandings about this issue. Firstly, when asked about the demanding nature of caring, the older teachers seemed less bothered by the tiredness experienced from caring for students than the younger, less experienced teachers. The older teachers appeared to use less energy when dealing with issues concerning students. Their practices, as it were, became more expedient over time. Secondly, the demanding nature of caring was mentioned by one mid-career teacher when she felt that intensification of her workload undermined her attentiveness to student needs. Both of these findings are helpful in understanding factors that hinder caring for students. The data gathered from the colleague teachers however, told a slightly different story of hindering factors.
Colleague teachers did not list ‘tiredness and feeling drained’ and ‘disconnectedness in the secondary school’ as hindering factors, unlike their caring teacher cohort. This may indicate that the colleague teachers did not feel the same level of drained emotion about which the caring teachers spoke; they may not have become as involved with student issues or they may not have become as involved emotionally when they did. This lack of emotional intensity in colleagues may be best explained by Hargreaves (2000), Bosworth (1995) and Brooks and Scott (2000) who state that secondary teachers are primarily concerned with the content of the lesson and may professionally distance themselves more from the students. This being the case, why is there a group of secondary teachers who are concerned for content yet are feeling tired and drained? It seems that although they are educationally caring they are not distancing themselves. The answer may be found in their mindsets and consequent value they place on getting to know students and building relationships with them, and in their desire to be caring teachers both personally and educationally. They do not distance themselves and consequently feel the effects of such a choice. Despite this, the caring teachers’ responses about this factor were quite pragmatic; if you are going to take the time with students in assisting them with all their needs, if you are going to open Pandora’s Box by enquiring after a student then the outcome will likely be tiredness. Two methods, according to the caring teachers of this research, assist with the tiredness factor: firstly, the recognition of their own limitations as a mechanism to potentially stop them from becoming completely exhausted and secondly, seeing the difference made and observing the growth that was achievable through their help. If these factors do not transpire then becoming emotionally engaged with students in caring for them could very powerfully affect teachers in their endeavours and consequently lead to guilt, frustration and burn-out (Hargreaves,
The lack of mention of the disconnectedness in secondary schools is also quite intriguing. It may be possible that the colleague teachers do not seek the same level of relationship with their students that their caring colleagues do and therefore do not find the structure within secondary schools as much of an obstruction. It may also be possible that the disconnectedness gives the colleague teachers the time away from students or the break that they would consider to be supportive, as one of the caring teachers claimed.

Colleague teachers, in contrast to their caring counterparts, listed significantly more obstacles to their caring. Aside from the ones already listed they also indicated that (a) students were difficult in their behaviour, difficult in their needs and understanding them was complicated; (b) that a teacher’s personality could often inhibit them to care; (c) the size of classes, lack of resources and an unsupportive school climate made caring hard; and (d) other teachers with an inability to do the job were a burden. This is a considerable list of hindrances. It is interesting that these issues, whilst there is no doubt that they do exist (for most schools would suffer from these types of problems to some degree) were not raised by the caring sub-group of teachers. For the colleague teachers these issues were obstacles, and for their caring co-workers, they were not. This begs the question: why? The answer, despite the lack of difference between the cohorts in collective efficacy, may well lie in teacher efficacy attributions. The caring teachers attribute lack of caring success to personally controllable events and where defeat transpires then they simply need to do better next time. They learn from the experience and try again; they are persistent. As one teacher remarked: “you can’t help but feel that sometimes perhaps I could have done something, yeah, what else could I have done?”. In contrast, the colleague teachers

appear to attribute lack of caring success to factors that are external, about which they can do nothing because it is someone else’s problem.

The students also offered their perspective on the matter and claimed that student behaviour was likely to hinder teachers in their caring for them. Interestingly, this gained only one mention from a caring teacher despite its presence on the colleague teacher list of hindrances. For this caring teacher, students who were difficult to manage became an example of ethical caring rather than natural caring – the caring still continued. Students who misbehave and make teaching onerous can be frustrating and can sometimes leave a teacher feeling as though care is the last thing they want to lavish on them. The students recognised that a teacher’s resentful feelings, as a result of misbehaviour were a possible outcome. Interestingly, the youngest teacher in the group of 10 peer-nominated teachers had some management difficulties that were observed in her teaching. She was not in full control of her class at all times and there were students that made teaching difficult. She didn’t focus on this when it came to hindrances; instead she raised personal problems and lack of time to help students as her two main concerns. As a caring teacher, her hindrances seemed to have a different emphasis to her colleagues. This may have been due again to her distinct mindsets that underpinned her inner response and her outward actions. To assist with summarising the results from all participants with regard to hindering factors, Table 10.2 shows the factors raised by the caring teachers regarding their agreement or lack of agreement from the colleague teachers and students.

Table 10.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hindering factors</th>
<th>Caring teachers</th>
<th>Colleague teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tiredness and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling drained from working with students</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students failing to respond</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of time</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff with different mindsets</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative emotions from personal life</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disconnectedness in secondary schools</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 10.3.2.1 Quantitative Results That Indicated Hindering Factors

Where schools were compared statistically in Studies One and Five some differences emerged from the data which might shed further light on this section. School C and school A differed from each other in terms of the number of mentions of commitment as a factor of caring teachers, and in task analysis (one of the two factors of collective efficacy). In both instances, school A scored higher than school C at a significant level although it is interesting to note that school A respondents were approximately three years younger in mean age than those in school C.

Firstly, the issue of commitment is raised in Study One as a key characteristic of caring teachers. If teachers in school A considered commitment more strongly as a characteristic of
caring teachers than those in school C, it may be possible that school C teachers either did not agree that commitment was a characteristic of care or they did not think it was as important as other features of a caring teacher. Teachers in school C may show less commitment to caring for students than those in school A.

Secondly, in Study Five, school C scored a lower task analysis score which effectively impacted on their overall collective efficacy mean. Goddard (2002) states that task analysis (TA) “refers to perceptions of the constraints and opportunities inherent in the task at hand. In addition to the abilities and motivations of students, TA includes teachers’ beliefs about the level of support provided by the students’ home and community” (p. 100). Such a result may suggest that the community of school C is less supportive than school A or is perceived to be less supportive. School C is situated in an area of higher multicultural difference and is socio-economically less advantaged than school A. This may explain school C’s respondents’ perception of difficulties and constraints within their context as they may actually have more constraints than school A. The staff in school C, as a result, may need to expend more effort to effect positive change than teachers at school A and, if they extend less commitment as the results from Study One suggest, then the overall effects of their endeavours may be less. Comparing the ratio of males to females in each school may shed further light when one considers that males were less orientated towards students and content than their female counterparts. Schools A and B were represented by a 2:1 female to male ratio unlike school C with a ratio of 3:2. Perhaps the males on the staff of school C diminished slightly the level of commitment shown to students and their work. The implications of these results could suggest that where there are more external factors such as socio-economic difficulties and multi-cultural issues (as in school C) teachers may need more assistance in caring for students.
10.3.3 Perceptions of the Effect of School Context

Teachers in the interviews in Study Three were asked to respond to the following question: “As a caring teacher can you operate independently from the school climate?” and the answer from nine out of the 10 teachers was an emphatic “yes”. The explanation was given that one might face more challenges, one might work with others less caring but in the end “when I am in that room, that’s my room, I’m me”. This confidence in themselves as teachers was quite remarkable. Their attitude was that supportive factors were helpful and hindering factors were unfortunate. Ultimately, the teachers believed it was about them as people and how they did their job. Again, despite results in teacher efficacy showing no difference between this group of teachers and the cohort across the three schools, such an attitude does suggest that these teachers are highly efficacious. The purpose of the TSES is to measure teachers’ sense of efficacy with regard to the central tasks of teaching and at the time of collection of data the TSES was the most widely accepted scale. However, concern has been raised by Labone (2004) in a review of teacher efficacy scales that the TSES is too narrowly focused on classroom based teaching skills, whereas earlier measures of efficacy were concerned with the level of control teachers had over student life outcomes. Data from this research indicate that the teachers have a mindset consistent with these broader conceptions of teacher efficacy. The use of the TSES as a measure of teacher efficacy in this study may have contributed to the non-significant results. From another perspective, Day (2004) attributes this phenomenon to a different possibility. He notes that some teachers manoeuvre around the external pressures placed on them, allowing them to do their job as they see fit. He states: “Such teachers survive and once again flourish in the most challenging circumstances, principally because of the strength of the values they hold” (p. 63).
Shacklock’s study (1998) identifying a teacher who was able to sustain her caring for students despite a significant increase in workload is another example of how a teacher’s beliefs may resist hindering factors. So, perhaps then, it is the mindsets that support the personal capacity of these teachers in the face of contextual difficulties and assist in the maintenance of their caring practices.

Factors that hinder seem significantly more complex to address than their supportive counterparts. Reducing the educational and personal pressures on teachers appears to be a fearsome task. Changing the attributions of efficacy of teachers so that they consider the lack of caring success on factors that are personally controllable rather than simply blaming the system, the environment or the other people they have to work with are equally formidable. The focus here, like that of the caring teachers, may instead need to be on increasing the factors that are helpful rather than concentrating only upon those factors that need to be minimised.

10.3.4 A New Model of Factors and Their Impact on Teaching

At the conclusion of the study, the model presented from literature in chapter two was revised to show the important factors that impacted on caring. It had become clear through this research that the factors that hindered and supported caring, whilst involving school and class contexts, were also highly dependent on the mindsets and inner response that had been developed through experiences in families, own schooling and teacher training. These important factors needed to be included in the model that identified the supportive and hindering influences so that the dependence of caring teachers’ practices on these foundational factors could be clearly demonstrated. Hence, Figure 10.2 effectively incorporates both Figures 10.1 and 5.1 showing how the demonstration of care is facilitated.
Development of a caring teacher
(influence of families, teachers, teacher trainers through the giving of care and role modeling)

Personal capacity
(mindsets and inner response)

Hindering Factors for Teacher
School
- Staff with different mindsets
- Other work demands
Students
- Failing to respond to care
- Lack of continuity
- Tiredness from working with student problems
Personal
- External stress & worries

Supportive Factors for Teacher
School
- Climate
- Collegial support
- School structures
- Professional development
Students
- Continuity & time with them
- Positive response

Demonstration of Care

Care for students
(personally and educationally)

Figure 10.2
The process of care development and its influencing factors
The first box (‘the development of a caring teacher’) at the top of the model shows that families, school teachers, and teacher trainers influence the development of caring teachers through role modeling the caring interaction. The ‘development of caring teacher’ is the foundation upon which caring capacities are built and ultimately affects the motivational mindsets and the inner response a teacher experiences when there is a need for assistance, as well as the way in which care is demonstrated. The second box from the top (‘personal capacity’) recognises the role of the beliefs and attitudes (mindsets), and the ability to recognise and emotionally respond to the needs of students (inner response). The capacity of the inner response is dependent on the development of the caring teacher, and the positioning of these two important processes in the model suggests that the demonstration of care (the outward response from Figure 5.1) cannot transpire without these first two important processes.

The final box shows two important features in the demonstration of care. The first feature may be found on the left of the model where two smaller boxes list the hindering and supportive factors to caring practices raised by the 10 caring teachers. The factors listed have been explained in detail in section 10.3. The second feature is the inclusion of Figure 10.1 concerning the demonstration of care and the focus on relationship by which educational and personal care is administered. The inclusion of the first model (Figure 10.1) demonstrates the important relationship between the preceding development of caring capacities and the actual act of caring for students.

Connecting the factors that support and hinder with the demonstration of care through educational and personal dimensions are dotted arrows showing that there is a relationship between the two. The decision to use dotted arrows rather than a blocked line shows that the effect of factors on caring may not be as strong as earlier research has suggested. This is due to the finding that the majority of the caring teachers in this study believed that ultimately their
personal capacity would sustain their demonstration of care despite difficult circumstances. However, despite this belief, they also recognised that hindering factors were not helpful and that supportive factors encouraged them and assisted them in sustaining care for their students.

10.4 Conclusions

Through the application of three research questions and two frameworks in this research, a range of understandings from the literature have been confirmed and extended concerning the demonstration of care, the development of personal capacities, and the factors that impact on caring. Further research is warranted to explore the transferability of these findings to other contexts. Conclusions and recommendations will form the basis for the following chapter.
11 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

11.1 Summary of Findings

Findings from this thesis have made a significant contribution to the understanding of the nature of caring teachers. Specifically, the research has developed an integrated model (Figure 10.2) that describes the (a) process of care, (b) the development of caring teachers, and (c) the contextual factors that support and hinder the caring teacher. One of the most significant contributions has been the identification of distinctive mindsets of caring teachers and the factors that contribute to the formation of these mindsets. According to the findings of this study, caring teachers have distinct mindsets that underpin their motivation and decision-making when working with students. All of the 10 mindsets identified are characterised by the optimistic belief that things will be better if people care. The mindsets are divided into two groups: five mindsets that apply to all situations called personal mindsets and five mindsets that apply to teaching situations called teacher mindsets. All mindsets assisted caring teachers in the choices they made to care for students. The colleague teachers did not seem to have all of the same mindsets nor did they place as great an emphasis on the mindsets as the caring teachers. The underlying optimistic belief that change is possible and that change will make things better differentiated the two groups of teachers with regard to their mindsets and assisted in understanding more about the nature of caring teachers.

Another significant contribution made by this thesis was the identification of the second phase of caring – the inner response. This was evident when caring teachers demonstrated their attentiveness to the need for care and their response to those needs. In other words, the teachers were able to read situations and people with whom they worked and respond emotionally to those needs. The attentiveness (Fisher & Tronto, 1990) and emotional reaction or motivational shift (Noddings, 1984) described in this thesis is called the inner response of caring teachers.
Teachers may hold numerous mindsets but if they fail to identify those who need help and the best way to respond to that need then they may be unable to activate the mindsets through the act of caring.

The third phase of caring can be seen in the action of assisting students, in being committed to the students’ needs and working with them in approachable ways. The active caring is explained further as part of the demonstration of care. The teachers described caring actions in three specific ways: (a) the actual assistance given to students when needed – either personal and/or educational; (b) the commitment which characterised the assistance, that is, going beyond what would normally be expected at a basic level; and (c) the personal qualities that teachers demonstrate when working with students. Teachers who cared regularly demonstrated their commitment to students by assisting them personally and educationally in a manner that was approachable, patient and affirming.

Furthermore, with regard to the demonstration of caring practices, the two key dimensions of personal and educational care approaches featured in Figure 3.1. (Identification of caring approaches) were confirmed by teachers and students who participated in the study. However, as a result of descriptions of caring practices given by participants, the model has been modified to demonstrate the centrality of relationship as the most important method for facilitating personal and educational care. The new model proposed (Figure 10.1.) identifies the facilitative role of relationship in the demonstration of the educational and personal dimensions of care.

Finally, three new features of caring teacher practices were identified as a result of the interviews with the 10 peer-nominated teachers: flexibility, recognition of limitations, and attentiveness (the latter having already been discussed as part of the second phase of caring). Caring teachers, although keen to be consistent, judge each situation or person according to
circumstances and do not hesitate to alter conditions, punishments or practices to adapt to the appropriateness of the situation – this is how flexibility is demonstrated as part of care. Furthermore, caring teachers were aware when circumstances or situations went beyond their personal resources, and would seek help or assistance from others thus ensuring that care continued for the student. The recognition of limitations is a valuable asset to teachers who expend enormous energy with their students as it protects the teachers from becoming overburdened.

Personal factors such as gender and the development of care in the individual also contributed to understandings about the nature of caring teachers. Comparisons between males and females identified that males in the three schools studied were less student and content oriented than their female counterparts. This has provided empirical evidence for the debate concerning gender and care (Fisher & Tronto, 1990; Gilligan, 1993; Noddings, 1984; Noddings, 1986; Thayer-Bacon, 1997; Tronto, 1999). Other personal factors such as the subjects taught and the years of experience did not appear to have any bearing on a teacher’s capacity to care.

The findings of this research confirmed the role of family, teachers at school, and university lecturers during teacher training as important in the development of caring practices. These sources have been acknowledged by others such as Arnstine (1990), Chaskin and Rauner (1995), Larson and Silverman (2005), and Noddings (1984). Vicarious learning combined with dialogue about care, it would seem, are important features of the process in learning how to be a caring teacher and, as will be discussed later in this chapter, this has important implications for teacher training, induction and professional development of teachers.

Establishing the nature of caring teachers was an important outcome of this thesis in that it was anticipated that through learning more about how a caring teacher has developed, how
he/she thinks and feels, and how he/she behaves, strategies could be developed which would facilitate more caring teachers in schools. In a similar way, examining the factors that impact on caring teachers’ practices would also assist in learning more about how to sustain them in the long term. Identifying the aspects that hinder and support teachers in secondary schools was an important goal of this research and the following paragraphs summarise the findings in this area.

Factors that appeared to support the practices of caring teachers confirmed what had been established in the theorised literature and were found to be those that came from within the school community such as (a) supportive colleagues, (b) good leadership, (c) professional development that focused on relational aspects, (d) students responding to care, (e) less formal time with students to encourage the development of relationships, and (f) continuity of classes. The students in this study similarly mentioned many of the factors identified by the caring teachers. Teachers appeared to gain much support from being with the students themselves, unlike their colleagues who, amongst some similar claims, also argued that more time in planning, professional development and resourcing would assist them in their caring for students. The disparity between these two groups of teachers has provided insights into how teachers may view the need for support and where teachers gain their energy and motivation to carry out their work.

The caring teachers also identified a list of hindering factors but these were fewer in number than their colleagues’ list of hindrances and also fewer than the caring teachers’ supportive factors. The factors raised by the caring teachers were (a) tiredness and feeling drained, (b) students not responding to care, (c) too many other demands, (d) staff who don’t share the same mindsets, (e) negative emotions from personal life, and (f) disconnectedness in secondary schools. However, it appeared that the identified caring teachers were less hampered
by these factors and ultimately, although these were a frustration and sometimes a burden, in most instances the teachers persisted with their caring. Nine out of the 10 teachers claimed that even if they were in different schools that were not supportive they would still be caring teachers. In contrast, the colleague teachers identified several more factors such as (a) student behaviour, (b) lack of resources, (c) size of classes, and (d) incompetent staff as reasons why caring could be difficult. The obstacles named appeared to be factors outside of the control of the colleague teachers and therefore, according to attribution theory (Weiner, 1979), led to a less efficacious perspective of caring. The differences in mindsets between the two sets of teachers may also have played a part in how hindrances impacted upon caring practices.

The model (Figure 10.2) resulting from these findings integrates the factors that hinder and support caring practices with the process of care, resulting in a firm basis for future research into the investigation of the dynamics within the caring process. Such research will assist in the development and maintenance of caring teachers’ practices with students.

11.2 Limitations of and Recommendations for Research

This study, while providing confirmation for some previous understandings concerning the demonstration of care and the factors that impact on caring, has significantly extended those understandings through the investigation of teachers in an Australian context. Additionally, the study has contributed knowledge about the process of caring within an educational context by placing mindsets and inner responses at the foundation of caring practices with students. Nonetheless there are a number of limitations and further recommendations that need to be considered from the perspective of these findings.

The setting for this study was restricted to three secondary catholic schools in Sydney, Australia. Therefore there are a number of diverse types of schools and teachers that have not
been examined within the Australian context, for example, teachers who work in schools other than Catholic schools where mindsets or practices may be different, as the Fullarton (2002) study of student engagement with Australian schools suggests; or teachers that are situated in a rural setting where socio-economic and ethnic compositions may impact upon them in ways that are unlike this study. These three schools were thus not a representative sample, and to increase transferability the same data collection techniques would need to be undertaken with many more schools to confirm the findings. It is recommended then, that further research be undertaken with other samples of schools across more diverse systems of education in varying geographical contexts to determine if the results that emerged from this study are consistent across a range of Australian contexts.

The use of the Student-Content Teaching Inventory (Spier, 1974) has been useful as a means of determining teachers’ orientations towards students and content. Evidence for the validity of the measure has been supported by the qualitative results. However, further research would benefit from the development of a psychometrically valid scale where teachers are required to rate items rather than make forced choices between two options.

Concerns have already been noted in chapter 10 about the lack of disparity between the teacher efficacy results of the sub-set of caring teachers with the larger cohort of 178 teachers. This is despite what appears to be a very strongly held mindset of the caring teachers which argues that school or class context does not significantly affect their caring practices. Recent research in 2003 (Butcher et al., 2003) identified the need for a teacher efficacy measure that addressed (a) dimensions of building relationships, (b) awareness of social issues, and (c) empathetic awareness and response. It was suggested that a scale needed to be developed that would adequately address these dimensions of teaching. Furthermore, an efficacy scale that was able to measure a teacher’s beliefs about his/her ability to make a difference (the first
teacher mindset) may have produced more contrasting results. The findings in this study would support the need for such a measure in the future.

In order to not overburden the teachers who participated in the whole school staff questionnaire it was decided that the Collective Teacher Efficacy (CTE) scale (Goddard et al., 2000) would only be administered to the two sub-sets of teachers: the peer-nominated caring teachers and their selected colleagues. The result was that only 23 teachers completed this scale which limited the conclusions which could be drawn from these findings. Further use of this scale with larger numbers of teachers would be required to more fully confirm the relationship of collective efficacy to caring attitudes and beliefs. Additionally, the 10 caring teachers identified for this study provided much of the insight into the mindsets and inner response about which so few researchers have previously enquired. However, the sample is quite small and further research using a larger number of participants would enable the conclusions to be generalised.

It is important to note that the descriptions of caring teachers’ practices and motivations came not only from the caring teachers’ subjective perspective but also from the perspective of their students and colleagues. In this sense, the contribution from students and fellow staff is a secondary source of data and the results must be viewed in this light. Despite these limitations, the exploratory nature of the study has contributed findings that are a useful springboard for future research.

### 11.3 Recommendations for Teacher Education and School Leaders

The presence of caring teachers ensures benefits to students (a) academically through enhanced teaching practices (Day, 2004; Doyle & Doyle, 2003; Goldstein, 1999; Lumpkin, 2007; Newberg, 1995; Perez, 2000; Rogers & Webb, 1991; Sanacore, 2004; White, 2003), (b)
emotionally and socially (Doyle & Doyle, 2003; Noddings, 2001; Perez, 2000; Rogers & Webb, 1991) and (c) in learning to care for others (Noddings, 1995). On the basis of the findings from the research conducted and from suggestions made by the 10 caring teachers who were the focus of this research, there are a number of recommendations that are made with regard to teacher training institutions and school leaders in enhancing the development and maintenance of caring teachers.

Development of measures that assist in identifying the mindsets of prospective teachers may be a useful way of selecting those that are most likely to care for their students. It is recommended that, rather than relying primarily on academic scores derived from work in the final years of schooling, teacher training institutions choose as well to use such instruments or scales that discern those more committed to care for students and sustain their caring due to strong, optimistic personal and teacher mindsets.

Preparing potential teachers for ways in which they could build relationships and how to make good use of informal opportunities with the students is another way that teacher educators could enhance the likelihood of preparing teachers for a caring profession. Pre-service teachers need to be encouraged to recognise the opportunities that lie in informal situations with students, for example, during playground duties, pastoral care lessons, excursions, and days marked for school celebrations. Furthermore, it is recommended that teacher training institutions focus more on the affective elements of the classroom and teach pre-service teachers, for example, about not labeling students and treating all pupils with fairness. Emphasising the importance of building positive relationships both within and outside of the classroom would assist future teachers in caring for students educationally and personally.
The role of vicarious learning should also be considered as important to the development of caring teachers. Teacher educators need to model caring practices in their work with their students rather than just talk about caring, noted Goldstein and Freedman (2003). The impact of such modeled behaviour combined with dialogue about care can have a strong effect on pre-service teachers (Larson & Silverman, 2005; Noddings, 1986; 1992; Rogers & Webb, 1991; Teven & Hanson, 2004), and should be encouraged amongst staff in teacher education institutions. In a similar way, as suggested by some of the caring teachers who participated in this study, when pre-service teachers are placed with experienced teachers in professional experiences in schools, it would be advantageous to ensure that the mentor teacher is one who demonstrates educational and personal care through relationships with his/her own school students. Furthermore, the mentor teacher needs to demonstrate educational and personal care to the pre-service teacher through building a relationship with him/her, thus encouraging the growth of the pre-service teacher while at the school. Reflection and dialogue must supplement the pre-service teacher’s experience of care from the mentor to assist in developing a sound perspective of caring practices.

Similarly, once employed in schools, the caring teachers in this study suggested that school leaders have a responsibility to ensure that the induction period of new teachers is also enhanced by caring mentors who will explore the new teacher’s capabilities and weaknesses in an appropriate way. Like the mentor teachers in teacher education, if mentors during induction are demonstrating care to their school students as well as to the beginning teachers then the likelihood of new teachers working through issues of control and care may be greater (McLaughlin, 1991). It is therefore recommended that school leaders carefully appoint mentors who have the capacity and skill for working with beginning teachers in caring ways.
Schools also have a responsibility to ensure that informal opportunities in which teachers and students can build relationships are not diminished by busy school agendas. Time needs to be deliberately left available to enhance occasions to care. Furthermore, the school leadership teams who plan professional development for staff would further assist in the expansion of caring practices if opportunities were made available to teachers to understand more about how children or adolescents feel and to explore the issues that students currently face. This recommendation received some support from the caring teachers interviewed, who mentioned that learning more about what students are going through would enhance empathy and understanding in teachers and assist them in the ways in which they deal with issues of conflict. One of the schools in the study had participated in significant development in Restorative Justice (Karp, 2001; Watchel, 1999) – a conflict resolution tool that has been adapted for classroom purposes. This appeared to add considerably to the repertoire of resources the caring teachers and some of their colleagues felt that they had available to them when working in difficult situations with students. A focus on techniques such as these, it is recommended, will be helpful in enhancing the attentiveness and emotional responses teachers exercise towards their students’ needs and may encourage them to complete their caring by helping students and being committed to students in an affirming and approachable manner.
11.4 Conclusion

The purpose of the research undertaken for this thesis was to determine the nature of caring teachers and their practices in a secondary school context and to determine the factors that enabled them to sustain their practices in the face of time and work pressures. The results have provided insights into the roles of mindset, and inner response as essential aspects of the nature of caring teachers. It has revealed the importance of good role models of care within one’s family, own schooling, and teacher training in the development of caring teachers. The identification of relationship as the focal way in which caring teachers demonstrate educational and personal care in Australian secondary schools has highlighted the need for time and opportunity to foster these relationships. The findings of this research have resulted in greater understanding of the specific factors that support and hinder caring teachers in the Australian teachers’ context and have provided suggestions about the types of professional development opportunities that teachers need to develop and sustain their caring practices. Furthermore, recognising that mindset is a significant factor in maintaining caring practices despite time and work pressures, has been of great importance to understanding the need to foster and preserve caring beliefs and attitudes.

While there needs to be significantly more research conducted in the areas of beliefs and capacities of caring teachers using larger samples of teachers across a number of different types of educational contexts, this thesis has contributed to identifying the key factors that influence the development, nature and practices of caring teachers. The final model (Figure 10.2), which shows the factors that impact on caring practices also combines the elements of earlier models (Figures 10.1 and 10.2) and provides a strong framework upon which future research about caring teachers may be structured. If care is a key construct by which good teaching is
identified (Day, 2004) then increasing the likelihood of good teaching in all classrooms will be achieved through the presence of caring teachers in our schools.
12 APPENDIXES
APPENDIX A

Summary of Empirical Literature on Caring
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors and date</th>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acker 1995</td>
<td>Ethnographic</td>
<td>Teachers at one primary school</td>
<td>Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acker &amp; Feuerverger 1996</td>
<td>In-depth interviews</td>
<td>27 Female academics</td>
<td>Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alder 2002</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Urban middle school – 2 teachers identified as caring by principals and</td>
<td>United States of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Focus groups</td>
<td>12 students who returned forms</td>
<td>America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Classroom observations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Open and axial coding of transcribed tapes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Barber 2002</td>
<td>Ethnographic</td>
<td>Teachers at one secondary school</td>
<td>Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosworth 1995</td>
<td>Interviews (n=100) and observations (n= 300 classes)</td>
<td>Years 6, 7 &amp; 8 students</td>
<td>United States of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caldwell &amp; Sholtis 2008</td>
<td>Q methodology – students ranked and sorted statements derived from literature. Participants then reported which they felt were most important</td>
<td>Average students (identified by school counselors) from 4 different high schools: urban, parochial, suburban and vocational</td>
<td>United States of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collinson, Killeavy &amp;</td>
<td>A cross-cultural study using a pre-interview survey then a 2-3 hour semi-structured interview</td>
<td>Four secondary teachers from the three countries</td>
<td>England, Ireland and States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stephenson 1998</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Cooper 2004</td>
<td>Interviews and observations</td>
<td>16 primary and secondary teachers</td>
<td>U.K.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellett, Hill &amp; Liu 1997</td>
<td>Human caring Inventory; A professional learning environment inventory; and a Teacher self and organisational efficacy assessment. These were mailed out to participants</td>
<td>1009 teachers from primary and secondary schools (n= 29 schools)</td>
<td>United States of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferreira &amp; Bosworth 2000</td>
<td>Interviews and observations</td>
<td>101 middle school students</td>
<td>United States of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>participant observations</td>
<td></td>
<td>America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors and date</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>Country</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ferreira &amp; Bosworth 2001</td>
<td>Interviews participant observations</td>
<td>101 middle school students</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goldstein 1998</td>
<td>Case study – participant observation and discussion</td>
<td>One primary teacher</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goldstein &amp; Lake 1999</td>
<td>Dialogue journal writing emailed to lecturers on a weekly basis.</td>
<td>17 pre-service teachers in a primary education course</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goldstein &amp; Lake 2000</td>
<td>Dialogue journal writing emailed to lecturers on a weekly basis with discussions.</td>
<td>19 pre-service teachers in a primary education course</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goldstein &amp; Freedman 2003</td>
<td>E-journals that were commented upon weekly</td>
<td>17 teacher education students (16 females and 1 male)</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goldstein &amp; Lake 2003</td>
<td>Dialogue journal writing emailed to lecturers on a weekly basis with discussions.</td>
<td>19 pre-service teachers in a primary education course</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gomez, Allen, &amp; Clinton 2004</td>
<td>Instrumental case study</td>
<td>One pre-service, secondary teacher</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hansen &amp; Mulholland 2005</td>
<td>Interviews at two different times: end of degree and then after one year of teaching.</td>
<td>16 male graduates from primary education course (study 1) and 8 male beginning teachers (a sub-set of the first group) for study 2</td>
<td>Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hayes, Ryan &amp; Zseller 1994</td>
<td>Demographic information was collected about participants through a survey that also required a small essay on two teachers who were memorable as caring teachers (2 ½ inches space was allowed) – called an ethnographic technique</td>
<td>208 6th grade students from one urban and two suburban public schools. Racial differences between schools were present.</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors and date</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>Country</td>
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<tr>
<td>Larson &amp; Silverman 2005</td>
<td>Observed and formally and informally interviewed</td>
<td>4 identified as caring PE teachers – 2 high school and 2 elementary teachers</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lindsey 2000</td>
<td>Narratives – written and spoken dialogic texts from interviews, class evaluations and researcher’s journals.</td>
<td>2nd Year Early Childhood majors - two classes (n not given)</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McLaughlin 1991</td>
<td>Observations, interviews, informal discussions and teaching documentation</td>
<td>One female student teacher (primary?)</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marlowe 2006</td>
<td>4 studies conducted: Study 1 survey after use of texts vs lore. Studies 2 &amp; 3 – similar but with a different topic area. Different scales used depending on topic.</td>
<td>1 – 38 pre-service teachers (N=20) + (N=18 control) 2 – 62 pre-service teachers (N=32) + (N=30 control) 3 – N = 29 (no control used) pre-service teachers 4 – N= 132 inservice teachers who had been through these courses over the past ten years</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muller 2001</td>
<td>Used a survey called NELS (National Longitudinal Study of 1988) to view data about test scores, surveys, information from teachers and students.</td>
<td>Public school students in 10th grade (n=6007) and some of their maths and science teachers</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noblit 1993</td>
<td>Ethnographic study where the researcher was a participant</td>
<td>One primary teacher called Pam</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noblit, Rogers &amp; Mc Cadden 1995</td>
<td>Two case studies</td>
<td>Two elementary teachers and at least three of their students</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors and date</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>Country</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>O’Donoghue, Brooker &amp; Purdie 1994</td>
<td>Case Study – semi-structured group interviews were conducted</td>
<td>60 (30 male and 30 female) primary school teachers in the State system. Four primary schools with five groups of participants in each school</td>
<td>Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schussler &amp; Collins 2006</td>
<td>Observations and interviews of teachers as well as interviews with students</td>
<td>3 rounds of in-depth interviews with 16 students. The number of staff is not made clear.</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shacklock 1998</td>
<td>Grounded narration</td>
<td>One secondary school – teachers’ views</td>
<td>Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teven 2001</td>
<td>Using the perceptions of the students who last taught them a university course students completed a questionnaire.</td>
<td>249 (142 males and 107 females) communications students at University</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teven &amp; Hanson 2004</td>
<td>Participants were asked to respond to 4 written scenarios and 4 videotapes of teaching that reflected the different dimensions of immediacy and verbal caring.</td>
<td>Undergraduate communications course (n = 275) for study involving written scenarios; (n = 289) for study involving four videotapes.</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vogt 2002</td>
<td>Interviews Photographs of their own teaching practices, and drawing themselves as teachers</td>
<td>32 participants were from Switzerland and England (22 women teachers and 10 men teachers) – primary.</td>
<td>U.K.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weinstein 1998</td>
<td>Teacher Beliefs Survey</td>
<td>141 teacher education students (primary and secondary)</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wentzel 1997</td>
<td>248 students were followed longitudinally for three years (6th to 8th grade)</td>
<td>Students from Years 6 – 8 (middle school)</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

Whole Staff Questionnaire for Study One
Secondary School Teachers’ Perceptions of Caring Teachers and Teaching

The following questionnaire is divided into three sections:

1. Open-ended questions about caring teachers
2. An inventory of 40 paired items about the way you believe teachers should act
3. 12 statements about difficulties that teachers may face in the classroom

1. Name: _________________________________________________________
2. Number of years teaching in secondary schools: ___________________________

Section 1

3. How would you define a caring teacher? ________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

4. Do you believe that a teacher caring for his/her students is important Yes / No (cross out whichever does not apply)

From a study of the literature caring teachers demonstrate their caring in two dimensions. The first dimension is concerned with the best possible educational achievement of the students whilst the second is concerned with the emotional and social well-being of the students demonstrated through the teacher’s warm manner as well as the positive relationships with students in the classroom.

5. Do you believe that caring teachers need to demonstrate both these dimensions to be called caring teachers? Yes / No (cross out whichever does not apply). Please explain your answer.
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

Consider the staff that you are currently working with. Please nominate below the names of up to five staff who you believe are caring teachers. These do not have to be ranked in any order.
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

______________________________________
______________________________________
______________________________________
Section 2
Each of the forty items below consists of two statements, either about what a teacher can do or ways he/she can act. Circle the letter (A or B) in front of the statement that you think is the more important way for a teacher to act. In the case of some items you may think that both alternatives are important, but you still should choose the statement you think is more important. Sometimes you may think both alternatives are unimportant; still you should choose the statement you think is more important.

It is more important for a teacher to:

1)  (a) organise his/her teaching around the needs and skills of every type of student.
    (b) maintain definite standards of classroom performance.

2)  (a) let students have a say in course content and outcomes.
    (b) set definite standards of classroom performance.

3)  (a) emphasise completion of the term's course.
    (b) let students help set course goals and content.

4)  (a) give examinations to evaluate student progress.
    (b) allow students a voice in setting course content and outcomes.

5)  (a) reward good students.
    (b) allow students to evaluate the performance of the teacher.

6)  (a) allow students to make their own mistakes and to learn by experience.
    (b) work to cover the term’s subject matter adequately.

7)  (a) make it clear that he/she is the authority in the classroom.
    (b) allow students to make their own mistakes and to learn by experience.

8)  (a) be available to confer with students on an ‘as needed’ basis.
    (b) have scheduled contact hours.

9)  (a) give examinations to evaluate student progress.
    (b) tailor the course content to the needs and skills of each class.

10) (a) draw a line between him/her self and the students.
    (b) let students plan their own course of study according to their interests.

11) (a) take an interest in the student as a person.
    (b) make it clear that the teacher is an authority in the classroom.

12) (a) draw a line between him/herself and the students.
    (b) be available for conferences with students on an ‘as needed’ basis.

13) (a) modify his or her position if one of the students where he/she was wrong.
    (b) maintain definite standards of performance.

14) (a) allow students to have a say in evaluating teacher performance.
    (b) draw a line between him/herself and the students.

15) (a) see that the class covers the subject matter for the course.
    (b) be concerned about the student as a person.

16) (a) let students learn by experience.
    (b) maintain definite standards of performance.

17) (a) allow students a voice in setting course outcomes and content.
    (b) make it clear that the teacher is an authority in the classroom.

18) (a) discourage talking amongst students during class time.
    (b) establish an informal classroom atmosphere.

19) (a) allow student evaluation of a Key Learning Area.
    (b) make it clear that the teacher is an authority in the classroom.

20) (a) draw a line between him/herself and the students.
    (b) let students make mistakes and learn by experience.
21) (a) be an authority on class materials covered.
(b) keep up to date in the field.

22) (a) be respected as a person of high technical skill in the field.
(b) up-date class and lesson notes constantly.

23) (a) attend to his/her own professional growth.
(b) be an authority on the class materials covered.

24) (a) attend to his/her own professional growth.
(b) set an example for his/her students.

25) (a) see that each student is working at his/her full capacity.
(b) plan, at considerable detail, all class activities.

26) (a) construct fair and comprehensive examinations.
(b) set an example for his/her students.

27) (a) be known as an effective teacher.
(b) see that each student is working at his/her full capacity.

28) (a) construct fair and comprehensive examinations.
(b) see that each student is working at his/her full capacity.

29) (a) be an authority on class materials covered.
(b) plan and organise his/her coursework carefully.

30) (a) be a model for his/her students to emulate.
(b) try out new ideas and approaches on the class.

31) (a) see that each student is working at his/her full capacity.
(b) plan and organise his/her coursework carefully.

32) (a) have scheduled contact hours.
(b) be an expert in on the course subject matter.

33) (a) set an example for his/her students.
(b) try out new ideas and approaches on the class.

34) (a) teach basic courses as well as more advanced courses.
(b) be a model for his/her students to emulate.

35) (a) plan and organise the class activities carefully.
(b) be interested in and concerned with student understanding.

36) (a) be an authority on the course content.
(b) be known as an effective teacher.

37) (a) give examinations to evaluate student progress.
(b) be an authority on class materials covered.

38) (a) attend professional meetings.
(b) be respected as a person of high technical skill in the field.

39) (a) be respected for his/her knowledge of the course subject matter.
(b) try out new ideas and approaches on the class.

40) (a) be an authority on the course content.
(b) construct fair and comprehensive examinations.
Section 3

Directions: This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers in their school activities. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below by circling the number which best represents your response. Your answers are confidential.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nothing</th>
<th>Very Little</th>
<th>Some Influence</th>
<th>Quite a Bit</th>
<th>A Great Deal</th>
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<td>12</td>
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</table>

1. How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
2. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
4. How much can you do to help your students value learning? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
5. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
6. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
7. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
8. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
9. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
10. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
11. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
12. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Thank you for your time and contribution to the research into caring teachers.
APPENDIX C

Checklist for Observation of Caring Teachers - Study Two
Name of Teacher: ____________________________________________________

Classes Observed: _________________________________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Demonstrated</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Displays warmth and concern for students</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Extends empathy if needed</td>
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<td>3. Shows acceptance of students</td>
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<td>4. Shows tolerance to all students</td>
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<td>5. Demonstrates nurturance and/or support</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Demonstrates interest in students</td>
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<td>7. Students clearly feel comfortable and relaxed with teacher</td>
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<td>8. Mutual respect is obvious between teacher and students</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Inclusive atmosphere in classroom</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Encourages dialogue with students</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Is sensitive to students' needs and interests</td>
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<td>12. Has knowledge about students from forming a relationship with them</td>
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<td>13. Meticulous preparation for lessons</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Is committed to teaching the students</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. Lively presentation of lessons</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. Strong academic and cognitive activities in lessons</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>17. Encourages critical thinking</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. Encourages constructive evaluation</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. Develops social skills in students</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>20. Develops academic knowledge in students</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>21. Engaging and meaningful activities</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>22. Caters for all students' needs</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>23. Manages the group of students well</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>24. Is effective instructionally</td>
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<tr>
<td>25. Assists students to reach their full potential</td>
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<tr>
<td>26. Concern for the development of the whole student</td>
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</table>

Additional behaviours/comments
27. 
28. 
29. 
30. 
31. 

Comments about Teacher: ___________________________________________
____________________________________________________
____________________________________________________
APPENDIX D

Interview Questions for Caring Teachers – Study Three
Interview Questions for Caring Teachers

The interviews to be held with each of the ten caring teachers are semi-structured and open-ended and the questions listed below, whilst they will definitely be used, will also serve as a springboard for other questions as they arise. The interviewer will use additional probing questions in order to tease out areas of interest or for points of clarification. The teachers will also be shown their own questionnaires that they completed in Study 1 and will be asked to discuss some of the answers that they provided.

1. Could you please tell me a little about where you completed your training and the schools you have taught in and for how long, etc. so that I can gain an idea of your teaching career?

2. As you are aware, the staff at the school have nominated you as a caring teacher, why do you think they have that impression?

3. Do you believe that you are a caring teacher?

4. What are some of the ways that you demonstrate this to your students?

5. Are there other ways that other teachers demonstrate care that you personally don’t choose to engage in? Why not?

6. Do you think that caring teachers vary the level of care from day-to-day? Lesson to lesson? Class to class? In what way?

7. Could you describe particular situations where you believe that you demonstrated particular care of a student or group of students?

8. Do you believe that caring for students in the ways that you have described is a demanding task? Do you find it draining?
9. Why do you think some teachers are better able to demonstrate care than others?

10. What personal capacity do you bring to the caring role in your teaching?

11. Are there times in your career when you have not been able to demonstrate care to students? Tell me about those times.

12. What were the factors then, that hindered your caring?

13. What about the times when you were easily able to care for students. What are the factors that supported your caring?

14. Discuss the results of the 2nd section of the questionnaire they completed in Study 1. Questions will be framed surrounding this data of content/student orientation.

15. Discuss the results of the 3rd section of the questionnaire they completed in Study 1. Questions will be framed surrounding this data on teacher and personal efficacy.

16. As a caring teacher can you operate independently from the school climate?

17. The longer you teach do you find the less support you need?

18. How much of a part does school context play when it comes to caring for students?

19. What about individual classes and/or students?

20. In terms of teacher preparation, do you feel that aspects of your own training assisted you in developing your caring practices?
21. In terms of what you know about teacher preparation now, are you aware of any particular features that would currently assist pre-service students in developing caring practices?

22. What else could teacher training courses do to support pre-service teachers in the development of caring practices?

23. What about once young teachers begin their teaching, do you believe there are mechanisms in place to assist beginning teachers in the development of caring practices?

24. And as teachers progress in years of teaching how could CEO or professional development opportunities assist teachers in caring for students?

25. To what extent do school structures assist or hinder caring practices?

26. If there were recommendations to emerge from this thesis with regard to how universities, school systems and school structures could improve support for teachers in caring for students what would you suggest?
APPENDIX E

Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale – Studies Three and Five
### Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale

The following scale has been formulated to gather information about the collective nature and support of schools. Please select the number that best describes your response to each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th></th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th></th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th></th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teachers here are confident that they are able to motivate their students.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teachers in this school have what it takes to get the children to learn.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Teachers in this school really believe every child can learn.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Teachers in this school are able to get through to difficult students.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>These students come to school ready to learn.</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Learning is more difficult at this school because students are worried about their safety.</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Teachers don’t have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning.</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Students here just aren’t motivated to learn.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Teachers in this school do not have the skills to deal with student disciplinary problems.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>If a child doesn’t want to learn teachers here give up.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Teachers here fail to reach some students because of poor teaching methods.</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Teachers here need more training to know how to deal with these students.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>The opportunities in this community help ensure that these students will learn.</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Teachers here are well-prepared to teach the subjects they are assigned to teach.</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Drug and alcohol abuse in the community make learning difficult for students here.</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>If a child doesn’t learn something the first time teachers will try another way.</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Teachers in this school think there are some students no one can reach.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Home life provides so many advantages students are bound to learn.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Teachers in this school are skilled in various methods of teaching.</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>The lack of instructional materials and supplies make teaching very difficult.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>The quality of school facilities here really facilitates the teaching and learning process.</td>
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APPENDIX F

Group Interview Questions for Students – Study Four
Group Interview Questions for Students

The focus groups to be held with the six groups of students from across Years 7 - 11 are semi-structured and open-ended and the questions listed below, whilst they will definitely be used, will also serve as a springboard for other questions as they arise. The interviewer will use additional probing questions in order to tease out areas of interest or for points of clarification. Where possible each student will be given the opportunity to speak in response to each question unless they choose to not respond.

1. To begin I would ask that each of you quickly introduce yourselves by your first name only and also tell us what year you are in.

2. As an icebreaker, maybe you could all share a story about a teacher who you thought was really good at primary school and why you thought he/she was good.

3. Let’s now do a similar thing. Can you please tell me about a teacher who you thought was not very good but please don’t mention names. Why did you think they were not very good?

4. As many of you would know if you read my information letter my study is about caring teachers. I really need to know if you think that there is such a thing as caring teachers. Who would agree? Who would disagree?

5. Can you describe what a caring teacher would do or act to show they care? (this question and the respondents’ answers will be extensively probed to get as many answers as possible)

6. Can you describe a teacher who you believe does not care?

7. In my study I define caring teachers as people who demonstrate care through positive relationships with their students and an approachable manner in the classroom as well as
by ensuring that the students in their class learn what needs to be learnt. Would you agree with that definition?

8. How does it make you feel when you know that a teacher cares about you as a person as well as a student?

9. Do you think caring teachers are important? On a scale from 1 – 10 with 1 being not important at all and 10 being extremely important where would each of you place caring teachers’ importance?

10. Why do you think some teachers don’t care? How do they show that?

11. Are there things that students can do either as individuals or even as a class that would help a teacher care for them?

12. What are the things students might do to discourage a teacher from caring?

13. Do you wish there were more caring teachers?

14. When is the time you are most likely to experience a teacher caring for you e.g. time of the day, or particular types of days at school, or particular activities within subjects?

15. Could schools do things differently in they way that they organise the school day or in the way that teachers spend time with students that would make it easier for teachers to demonstrate their caring?

16. Do you believe that the particular teachers who care, care because it has a lot to do with the type of person that they are? Or do you think there are there other reasons?

17. Or do you believe that any teacher could care for students if they were trained to do so or if they had the opportunity to demonstrate it?
Some other questions in a similar vein may be added to this during the focus groups should the need to clarify become evident.
APPENDIX G

Colleague Questionnaire and Collective Efficacy Scale – Study Five
Colleagues’ Perceptions of Caring Teachers and Teaching

Your colleague who has been working with me on my study of caring teachers suggested that you would be able to comment on the influences and factors that both hinder and support him/her as a caring teacher. So that I am able to gain as full a picture as possible of how caring teachers work within the school environment would you please answer the following questions? This should only take 15 to 20 minutes to complete.

There are two sections to this questionnaire:
- Section 1: open-ended questions; and
- Section 2: 21 statements about teachers working in this school (circle the response most suited)

Section 1
1. Name of colleague about whom you are referring _______________________
2. How many years have you worked with your colleague? ___________________
3. Why do you think your school staff nominated your colleague as a caring teacher? ________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
4. What qualities do you think enable him/her to be a caring teacher? ________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
5. Do you believe that most teachers have these qualities? Yes/No (circle one).
6. What is it about your colleague that makes him/her unique in this regard? ______
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
7. How does he/she demonstrate care for students? ______________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
8. What do you think enables some teachers to care for students more easily or more readily than others? ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________

9. What are the factors that make caring for students difficult for a teacher?
   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________

10. What level and type of support do you think all teachers need to be able to care for students? ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________

11. What part do you feel you play in supporting your colleague?
    ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________

12. What role do you believe the school plays in supporting teachers to care for their students?
    ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________

13. Are there particular ways that the Catholic Education Office could support teachers’ caring for students? ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________
14. Do you believe that there could be strategies or processes in teacher preparation that would prepare teachers better in caring for their students?  
   Yes/ No (circle one). If yes, can you please list your suggestions. _________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________

   (end of section 1)
Section 2

The following scale has been formulated to gather information about the collective nature and support of schools. Please select the number that best describes your response to each statement.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Somewhat Disagree</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Somewhat Agree</td>
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<td>Agree</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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</table>

1. Teachers here are confident that they are able to motivate their students. 1 2 3 4 5 6
2. Teachers in this school have what it takes to get the children to learn. 1 2 3 4 5 6
3. Teachers in this school really believe every child can learn. 1 2 3 4 5 6
4. Teachers in this school are able to get through to difficult students. 1 2 3 4 5 6
5. These students come to school ready to learn. 1 2 3 4 5 6
6. Learning is more difficult at this school because students are worried about their safety. 1 2 3 4 5 6
7. Teachers don’t have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning. 1 2 3 4 5 6
8. Students here just aren’t motivated to learn. 1 2 3 4 5 6
9. Teachers in this school do not have the skills to deal with student disciplinary problems. 1 2 3 4 5 6
10. If a child doesn’t want to learn teachers here give up. 1 2 3 4 5 6
11. Teachers here fail to reach some students because of poor teaching methods. 1 2 3 4 5 6
12. Teachers here need more training to know how to deal with these students. 1 2 3 4 5 6
13. The opportunities in this community help ensure that these students will learn. 1 2 3 4 5 6
14. Teachers here are well-prepared to teach the subjects they are assigned to teach. 1 2 3 4 5 6
15. Drug and alcohol abuse in the community make learning difficult for students here. 1 2 3 4 5 6
16. If a child doesn’t learn something the first time teachers will try another way. 1 2 3 4 5 6
17. Teachers in this school think there are some students no one can reach. 1 2 3 4 5 6
18. Home life provides so many advantages students are bound to learn. 1 2 3 4 5 6
19. Teachers in this school are skilled in various methods of teaching. 1 2 3 4 5 6
20. The lack of instructional materials and supplies make teaching very difficult. 1 2 3 4 5 6
21. The quality of school facilities here really facilitates the teaching and learning process. 1 2 3 4 5 6

(end of section 2 and whole survey)

Thank you for your time and contribution to the research into caring teachers.
APPENDIX H

Student-Content Teaching Inventory (Spier, 1974)
S.C. TEACHING INVENTORY
Marie S. Spiker

The following inventory assesses your feelings about some teaching practices by having you write your own comments about yourself as a teacher. There are no right or wrong answers. The true you will be part of the inventory. If you are honest and open, you will prove to yourself what you truly believe about your teaching and your students. Therefore, your only realistic concern will prove to you that you have made progress.

Each of the following items presents a statement, following which teacher can do or avoid. Be sure to circle the letter (A or C) is front of the statement that you think is the more important way for you to act. In the case of some items you may feel that both alternatives are important, but you will lose the chance to present your views. Sometimes you may find that a different aspect is more important. Sometimes you may find that a different aspect is more important. Sometimes you may find that a different aspect is more important. Sometimes you may find that a different aspect is more important. Sometimes you may find that a different aspect is more important.

1. (A) To promise to treat all students with some indication of extra effort.  
   (C) To promise to treat all students with some indication of extra effort.

2. (A) To remember that students are not always rational and objective.  
   (C) To remember that students are not always rational and objective.

3. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

4. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

5. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
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   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

8. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

9. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
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10. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

11. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

12. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

13. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

14. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

15. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

16. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
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17. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
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19. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
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20. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
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   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

22. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

23. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

24. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

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28. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

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   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

30. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
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31. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

32. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

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   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

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   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

37. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

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   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

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   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

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   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

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   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

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   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

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   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.

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49. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
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50. (A) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.  
   (C) To remember that I teach in a classroom that operates under the same rules.
APPENDIX I

Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale – Short Form

(Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001)
### Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (short form)

#### Teacher Beliefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much can you do to maintain positive student-teacher interactions?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much can you do to help your students value learning?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much can you do to maintain student cooperation or resolve conflict?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much can you do to make a student who is disruptive or obnoxious?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent can you provide alternative explanations or examples when students are confused?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much can you enable students to help each other in making sense?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX J

Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale – Long Form

(Goddard, Hoy & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000)
## Table 2
Revised Collective Teacher Efficiency Instrument

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Plot no.</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Item Code</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CTE1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teachers in the school have what it takes to get the children to learn.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teachers in the school are able to get through to difficult students.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>If a child doesn't learn, simply give him/her an extension or start over.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Teachers are very confident they will be able to motivate their students.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teachers in the school really believe every child can learn.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>If a child doesn't learn, keep teachers from giving up.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Teachers have encountered students who are very difficult to teach.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teachers in the school believe there are some students that can learn.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Teachers believe that students need help.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>The atmosphere in the community helps students to get along with their students.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>The atmosphere in the community helps students to get along with their students.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>The community provides so many advantages they are forced to learn.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>The lack of instructional materials and supplies makes teaching very difficult.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Teachers have not developed materials to teach.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>The quality of the school facilities have only facilitated the learning and teaching processes.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>The atmosphere in the community helps students to get along with their students.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Teachers have not been exposed to teaching the subjects they are assigned to teach.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Teachers in the school need to develop techniques of teaching.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Teachers in the school need to develop techniques of teaching.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Students and parents are interested in the education of their children.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Students and parents make learning difficult for students.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTE22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Teachers at the school have the skills to deal with student discipline problems.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: GC = group comparison; TA = total average; CR = collective teacher efficiency.*
APPENDIX K

Australian Catholic University Research Services Human Ethics Approval
Human Research Ethics Committee

Committee Approval Form

**Principal Investigator/Supervisor:** Dr Elizabeth Labone  
Sydney Campus

**Co-Investigators:** Professor Barry Fallon  
Sydney Campus

**Student Researcher:** Mrs Wendy Moran  
Sydney Campus

Ethics approval has been granted for the following project:
The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring - Study 1

for the period: 10 March 2006 to 1 March 2007

**Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) Register Number:** N200506 34

The following standard conditions as stipulated in the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans* (1999) apply:

(i) that Principal Investigators / Supervisors provide, on the form supplied by the Human Research Ethics Committee, annual reports on matters such as:

- security of records  
- compliance with approved consent procedures and documentation  
- compliance with special conditions, and

(ii) that researchers report to the HREC immediately any matter that might affect the ethical acceptability of the protocol, such as:

- proposed changes to the protocol  
- unforeseen circumstances or events  
- adverse effects on participants

The HREC will conduct an audit each year of all projects deemed to be of more than minimum risk. There will also be random audits of a sample of projects considered to be of minimum risk on all campuses each year.

Within one month of the conclusion of the project, researchers are required to complete a *Final Report Form* and submit it to the local Research Services Officer.
If the project continues for more than one year, researchers are required to complete an *Annual Progress Report Form* and submit it to the local Research Services Officer within one month of the anniversary date of the ethics approval.

Signed: K. Pasley

Date: 10 March 2006

(Research Services Officer, McAuley Campus)
APPENDIX L

Sydney Catholic Education Office Ethics Approval
13 February 2006

Wendy Moran
24 Singars Road
BERCROFT NSW 2119

Dear Wendy,

Thank you for your application dated 6 February 2006, to conduct research in Catholic systemic schools in the Archdiocese of Sydney. CEO Sydney approves your research project, subject to Ethics Committee Approval.

In-principle permission is given to you to approach the Principals of the schools nominated, listed below, requesting participants for your study: The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring. Please note that a copy of the Ethics Committee Approval is required to be forwarded to this office prior to the commencement of research.

As you no doubt appreciate, it is the prerogative of any Principal whom you might approach to decline your invitation to be involved in this study or to withdraw from involvement at any time. Also, as you have outlined, written parental permission is required for any child to participate in the study.

The privacy of the school and that of any school personnel or students involved in your study must, of course, be preserved at all times and comply with requirements under the Commonwealth Privacy Amendment (Private Sector) Act 2000. Additionally, if your study requires unaccompanied contact with student subjects, it is essential that a Working with Children Check has been satisfactorily undertaken in compliance with current Child Protection legislation. To discuss this aspect you should contact the Child Protection Officer, Carolyn Hadley, on (02) 8556 6942 or email carolyn.hadley@ceo.nsw.catholic.edu.au.

When you have established your participating schools, please complete the attached form and return it to this office. It is a condition of approval that when your research has been completed you will forward a summary report of the findings and/or recommendations to this office as soon as practicable after results are to hand.

Please do not hesitate to contact me or Karen Popovic at this office if there is any further information you require. I wish you well in this undertaking and look forward to learning about your findings.

Yours sincerely,

Christopher Barrett
Education Officer, Human Resources
on behalf of
Br Kelvin Cassava
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR OF SCHOOLS

OUR MISSION CELEBRATING BEING CATHOLIC IN AUSTRALIA • ENSURING QUALITY TEACHING AND LEARNING • MAKING A DIFFERENCE IN OUR WORLD

27

435
APPENDIX M

Information Letters and Consent Forms – Studies One to Five
Information Letter to Participants

The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring

Names of Supervisor: Dr. Elizabeth Labone

Name of Student Researcher: Wendy Moran

Course Enrolled In: Doctorate of Philosophy

The purpose of this study is to explore the nature of caring teachers and the factors that impact on their caring. Data will be gathered through questionnaires given to staff at three secondary Catholic schools, through interviews with caring teachers and observations of their teaching and finally by talking with sample groups of students at the three schools.

In this section of the data gathering, participants will be required to complete a questionnaire during a staff meeting taking no more than twenty-five minutes of their time. It is not anticipated that this procedure will cause any inconvenience, risk or discomfort.

Through exploration of the nature of caring teachers and the factors that impact on their caring it is anticipated that findings will inform both school structures and classroom teachers about ways to minimise negatively impacting factors and encourage positively impacting factors. If more classrooms can be characterised by caring approaches to students there will be benefits to both students in their development academically, emotionally and socially as well as for the teachers in their satisfaction within their teaching career.

All invited to participate in this study are free to decline consent to be involved. Choosing to participate does not place you under any obligation to continue with any subsequent part of the study.

Whilst you are asked to write your name on the attached questionnaire and you are asked to nominate staff members who you believe are caring teachers please be assured that all information will be kept confidential. Giving the names of colleagues will result in a shortlist of ten most nominated teachers across the staff at your school. These teachers will then be invited to be part of a subsequent stage in the study. Naturally, they may decline to be further involved. At no stage will the number of nominations each participant received be revealed to anyone other than the researcher and supervisors.

Results of data collection will be analysed and written up in journal articles and conference papers and the final thesis, however, names of schools or participants will not be revealed at any stage in these publications. Anonymity will be maintained but the answers to questions will be utilised where needed.
Any questions regarding this project should be directed to: Mrs. Wendy Moran on telephone number 9701 4251 in the School of Education, Australian Catholic University, Locked Bag 2002, Strathfield, NSW 2135.

Should you wish to find out the accumulated results of this part of the study you are most welcome to contact the researcher (Mrs. Wendy Moran) and ask for feedback.

This study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at the Australian Catholic University.

In the event that you have any complaint or concern about the way that you have been treated during the study, or if you have any query that the Supervisors and Student Researcher has not been able to satisfy, you may write to the Chair of the Human Research Ethics Committee care of the nearest branch of the Research Services Unit: Chair, HREC

C/- Research Services
Australian Catholic University
Strathfield Campus
Locked Bag 2002
Strathfield NSW 2135
Tel: 02 9701 4059
Fax: 02 9701 4350

Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated. The participant will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree to participate in this project, you should sign both copies of the Consent Form, retain one copy for your records and return the other copy to the Student Researcher.

Principal Supervisor……………………………… Student Researcher……………………………………
Information Letter to Participants

The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring

Names of Supervisor: Dr. Elizabeth Labone

Name of Student Researcher: Wendy Moran

Course Enrolled In: Doctorate of Philosophy

The purpose of this study is to explore the nature of caring teachers and the factors that impact their caring. Data will be gathered through interviews with the three staff most nominated by their peers at each of the three secondary Catholic schools selected, and through observations of these nominated caring teachers as they demonstrate their caring for students in the course of a normal teaching day. We invite you, as a frequently nominated teacher at your school, to be part of these two aspects of the data gathering.

The interview will be audio-taped and will later be transcribed. It is not anticipated that this procedure will cause any inconvenience, risk or discomfort. The observations of teaching will be taken down in hand-written form and checked against a list of expected behaviours of caring teachers. It is possible that the nominated teachers may experience some nervousness due to presence of the researcher observing their teaching but it is not expected that this would be more than slight discomfort and certainly not an inconvenience or risk.

In this section of the data gathering, participants will be required to give approximately an hour and a half of their time for the interview and to arrange a day of observation at a time convenient to both themselves and the researcher. It is expected that the interviews will take place at your school.

Through exploration of the nature of caring teachers and the factors that impact on their caring it is anticipated that findings will inform both school structures and classroom teachers about ways to minimise negatively impacting factors and encourage positively impacting factors. If more classrooms can be characterised by caring approaches to students there will be benefits to both students in their development academically, emotionally and socially as well as for the teachers in their satisfaction within their teaching career.

We invite you to participate in this study with the understanding that you are free to decline consent to be involved. Choosing to participate does not place you under any obligation to continue with any subsequent part of the study.

It is likely that other staff will recognise through the researcher’s presence at the school that the participant has been a highly nominated teacher for his/her caring practices. As a result the selected teachers will not remain anonymous in this study amongst their own teaching staff. Results of data collection will be analysed and written up in journal articles, conference papers and the final thesis, however, names of schools or participants will not be revealed at any
stage in these publications. Confidentiality will be maintained whilst the answers to questions will be utilised where needed.

Any questions regarding this project should be directed to: Mrs. Wendy Moran on telephone number 9701 4251 in the School of Education, Australian Catholic University, Locked Bag 2002, Strathfield, NSW 2135.

Should you wish to find out the accumulated results of this part of the study you are most welcome to contact the researcher (Mrs. Wendy Moran) and ask for feedback.

This study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at the Australian Catholic University.

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Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated. The participant will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree to participate in this project, you should sign both copies of the Consent Form, retain one copy for your records and return the other copy to the Student Researcher.

Principal Supervisor.................................. Student Researcher.................................
Information Letter to Parents of Participants

The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring

Names of Supervisor: Dr. Elizabeth Labone

Name of Student Researcher: Wendy Moran

Course Enrolled In: Doctorate of Philosophy

The purpose of this study is to explore the nature of caring teachers and the factors that impact on their caring. Data will be gathered through questionnaires and interviews with teachers but also through focus groups using two sets of volunteer students from across Years 7 – 12 from each of the three secondary Catholic schools selected for the study. We are inviting your child to be a part of the focus groups to be held at the school during school time.

The focus groups will be audio-taped and will later be used to develop central themes and ideas that emerge from the groups. It is not anticipated that this procedure will cause any inconvenience, risk or discomfort.

In this section of the data gathering, participants will be required to give a half an hour of their time for the focus group. Food will be provided so that your child will not miss out on the opportunity to eat during his/her lunch time.

Through exploration of the nature of caring teachers and the factors that impact on their caring it is anticipated that findings will inform both school structures and classroom teachers about ways to minimise negatively impacting factors and encourage positively impacting factors. If more classrooms can be characterised by caring approaches to students there will be benefits to both students in their development academically, emotionally and socially as well as for the teachers in their satisfaction within their teaching career.

Your child has been invited to participate in this study but as parents you are free to decline consent for your child to be involved. Choosing to participate does not place you or your child under any obligation to continue with any subsequent part of the study. It is important to note that your child will not suffer any academic penalty should he/she refuse to participate withdraw from the study in this research.

First names of students and the year group that each student represents will be recorded however, full names will not be kept with the audio tapes or the notes taken during the focus groups. Results of data collection will be analysed and written up in journal articles, conference papers and the final thesis, however, names of schools or participants will not be revealed at any stage in these publications. Confidentiality will be maintained whilst the answers to questions will be utilised where needed.

Any questions regarding this project should be directed to: Mrs. Wendy Moran on telephone number 9701 4251 in the School of Education, Australian Catholic University, Locked Bag 2002, Strathfield, NSW 2135.
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Fax: 02 9701 4350

Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated. The participant will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree to participate in this project, you should sign both copies of the Consent Form, retain one copy for your records and return the other copy to the Student Researcher.

Principal Supervisor………………………………… Student Researcher…………………………………...
Information Letter to Participants

The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring

Names of Supervisor: Dr. Elizabeth Labone

Name of Student Researcher: Wendy Moran

Course Enrolled In: Doctorate of Philosophy

The purpose of this study is to explore the nature of caring teachers and the factors that impact on their caring. Data have been gathered through interviews with the three to four teachers most nominated by the staff at your school, and through observations of these nominated caring teachers as they demonstrate their caring for students in the course of a normal teaching day. Student focus groups have also been held to gain a student view of caring teachers. One of the nominated caring teachers at your school has selected you as a colleague who would be familiar with their teaching practices and would be able to comment on them in the survey enclosed.

In this section of the data gathering, participants will be required to complete a survey which should take approximately 15 – 20 minutes. It is not anticipated that this will cause any inconvenience, risk or discomfort.

Through exploration of the nature of caring teachers and the factors that impact on their caring it is anticipated that findings will inform both school structures and classroom teachers about ways to minimise negatively impacting factors and encourage positively impacting factors. If more classrooms can be characterised by caring approaches to students there will be benefits to both students in their development academically, emotionally and socially as well as for the teachers in their satisfaction within their teaching career.

We invite you to participate in this study with the understanding that you are free to decline consent to be involved. Choosing to participate does not place you under any obligation to continue with any subsequent part of the study.

For mailing purposes the researcher will know the identity of the colleague teachers completing the survey. However, the two envelopes for return ensure that the consent form and the survey are kept separate from each other and will ensure that returned surveys will not be identifiable with the participant. Results of data collection will be analysed and written up in journal articles, conference papers and the final thesis, however, names of schools or participants will not be revealed at any stage in these publications. Anonymity will be maintained whilst the answers to questions will be utilised where needed.

Any questions regarding this project should be directed to: Mrs. Wendy Moran on telephone number 9701 4251 in the School of Education, Australian Catholic University, Locked Bag 2002, Strathfield, NSW 2135.
Should you wish to find out the accumulated results of this part of the study you are most welcome to contact the researcher (Mrs. Wendy Moran) and ask for feedback.

This study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at the Australian Catholic University.

In the event that you have any complaint or concern about the way that you have been treated during the study, or if you have any query that the Supervisors and Student Researcher has not been able to satisfy, you may write to the Chair of the Human Research Ethics Committee care of the nearest branch of the Research Services Unit:  Chair, HREC

C/- Research Services
Australian Catholic University
Strathfield Campus
Locked Bag 2002
Strathfield NSW 2135
Tel: 02 9701 4059
Fax: 02 9701 4350

Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated. The participant will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree to participate in this project, you should sign both copies of the Consent Form, retain one copy for your records and return the other copy to the Student Researcher.

Principal Supervisor……………………………… Student Researcher…………………………………
Consent Form for Participants (Participant’s copy)

The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring

Names of Supervisor: Dr. Elizabeth Labone

Name of Student Researcher: Wendy Moran

I …………………………………………………… I have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this questionnaire, realising that I can withdraw at any time. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify me in any way.

Name of participant: ……………………………………………………………………………………..
  (block letters)

Signature: ……………………………………….  Date: ……………………………………………………

Signature of supervisor: …………………………..  Date: ……………………………………………..

Signature of Student Researcher: …………………………….  Date: ………………………………………

Consent Form for Participants (Researcher’s copy)

The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring

Names of Supervisor: Dr. Elizabeth Labone

Name of Student Researcher: Wendy Moran

I …………………………………………………… I have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this questionnaire, realising that I can withdraw at any time. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify me in any way.

Name of participant: ………………………………………………………………………………………

Signature: ………………………………………..  Date: …………………………………………………...

Signature of supervisor: ………………………………..  Date: ……………………………………………..

Signature of Student Researcher: ……………………………………………………….  Date: ………………………………...
Consent Form for Participants (Participant’s copy)

The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring

Names of Supervisor: Dr. Elizabeth Labone

Name of Student Researcher: Wendy Moran

I …………………………………………………… have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this interview (which will be audio-taped) and the observation of my lessons, realising that I can withdraw at any time. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify me in any way.

Name of participant: …………………………………………………………………….. (block letters)

Signature: ………………………………………… Date: ……………………………

Signature of supervisor: ………………………………… Date: ……………………………

Signature of Student Researcher: …………………………………………… Date: ……………………………

Consent Form for Participants (Researcher’s copy)

The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring

Names of Supervisor: Dr. Elizabeth Labone

Name of Student Researcher: Wendy Moran

I …………………………………………………… have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this interview (which will be audio-taped) and the observation of my lessons, realising that I can withdraw at any time. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify me in any way.

Name of participant: …………………………………………………………………….. (block letters)

Signature: ………………………………………… Date: ……………………………

Signature of supervisor: ………………………………… Date: ……………………………

Signature of Student Researcher: …………………………………………… Date: …………………………..
Parent/Guardian Consent Form

The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring

Names of Supervisor: Dr. Elizabeth Labone

Name of Student Researcher: Wendy Moran

I …………………………………………………… (the parent/guardian) have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree that my child, nominated below, may participate in this focus group which will be audio taped, realising that I can withdraw my consent at any time. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify my child in any way.

Name of parent/guardian: …………………………………………………………… (block letters)

Signature: …………………………… Date: ………………………

Name of Child: …………………………………………………………………………… (block letters)

Signature of Supervisor: ……………………… Date: ………………………

Signature of Student Researcher: ……………………… Date: ………………………

Assent of Participants aged under 18 years

I ……………………………………………….. (the participant aged under 18 years) understand what this research project is designed to explore. What I will be asked to do has been explained to me and I understand that the focus group will be audio taped. I agree to take part in the project, realising that I can withdraw at any time without having to give a reason for my decision.

Name of participant aged under 18 years: ………………………………………………… (block letters)

Signature: …………………………… Date: ………………………

Signature of Supervisor: ……………………… Date: ………………………

Signature of Student Researcher: ……………………… Date: ………………………
Consent Form for Participants (Participant’s copy)

The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring

Names of Supervisor: Dr. Elizabeth Labone

Name of Student Researcher: Wendy Moran

I …………………………………………………… have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this survey realising that I can withdraw at any time. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify me in any way.

Name of participant: ……………………………………………………………………….. (block letters)

Signature: ……………………………………….  Date: ……………………………

Signature of supervisor: …………………………….  Date: ……………………………

Signature of Student Researcher: …………………………….  Date: ……………………………

Consent Form for Participants (Researcher’s copy)

The Nature of Caring Teachers and the Factors that Impact on Their Caring

Names of Supervisor: Dr. Elizabeth Labone

Name of Student Researcher: Wendy Moran

I …………………………………………………… have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this survey realising that I can withdraw at any time. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify me in any way.

Name of participant: ……………………………………………………………………….. (block letters)

Signature: ……………………………………….  Date: ……………………………

Signature of supervisor: …………………………….  Date: ……………………………

Signature of Student Researcher: …………………………….  Date: ……………………………


