



Jessica Aspfors

Induction Practices

Experiences of Newly Qualified Teachers





Jessica Aspfors

- Matriculation exam, Pedersöre gymnasium 1996
- M.Ed., Faculty of Education, Åbo Akademi University 2002
- Studies for vocational school teachers (60 ECTS), Åbo Akademi University 2006
- Doctoral student 2007–2012

Has worked in administration, teaching and research at the Faculty of Education, Åbo Akademi University since 2003. Member of the coordinating group of the Finnish national programme Osaava Verme since 2010, which is developing support for new teachers through peer-group mentoring. Has been involved in several international research networks focusing on NQTs and mentoring such as NorTEP (2008–11), NQT-COME (2009–12) and FN-mentorship (2010–).

Cover image: Kasper Gustavsson

INDUCTION PRACTICES



Induction Practices

Experiences of Newly Qualified Teachers

Jessica Aspfors

Faculty of Education
Åbo Akademi University
Vasa, Finland, 2012

© Jessica Aspors and copyright holders of the articles

ISBN 978-952-12-2806-3

Painosalama Oy

Vasa, 2012

Abstract

The thesis consists of four studies (articles I–IV) and a comprehensive summary. The aim is to *deepen understanding and knowledge of newly qualified teachers' experiences of their induction practices*. The research interest thus reflects the ambition to strengthen the research-based platform for support measures. The aim can be specified in the following four sub-areas: to scrutinise NQTs' experiences of the profession in the transition from education to work (study I), to describe and analyse NQTs' experiences of their first encounters with school and classroom (study II), to explore NQTs' experiences of their relationships within the school community (study III), to view NQTs' experiences of support through peer-group mentoring as part of the wider aim of collaboration and assessment (study IV).

The overall theoretical perspective constitutes teachers' professional development. Induction forms an essential part of this continuum and can primarily be seen as a *socialisation process* into the profession and the social working environment of schools, as *a unique phase of teachers' development* contributing to certain experiences, and as *a formal programme designed to support* new teachers. These lines of research are initiated in the separate studies (I–IV) and deepened in the theoretical part of the comprehensive summary. In order to appropriately understand induction as a specific practice the lines of research are in the end united and discussed with help of practice theory. More precisely the theory of practice architectures, including semantic space, physical space-time and social space, are used.

The methodological approach to integrating the four studies is above all represented by *abduction* and *meta-synthesis*. Data has been collected through a questionnaire survey, with mainly open-ended questions, and altogether ten focus group meetings with newly qualified primary school teachers in 2007–2008. The teachers (n=88 in questionnaire, n=17 in focus groups), had between one and three years of teaching experience. Qualitative content analysis and narrative analysis were used when analysing the data.

What is then the collected picture of induction or the first years in the profession if scrutinising the results presented in the articles? Four dimensions seem especially to permeate the studies and emerge when they are put together. The first dimension, the *relational - emotional*, captures the social nature of induction and teacher's work and the emotional character intimately intertwined. The second dimension, the *tensional - mutable*, illustrates the intense pace of induction, together with the diffuse and unclear character of a teacher's job.

The third dimension, the *instructive - developmental*, depicts induction as a unique and intensive phase of learning, maturity and professional development. Finally, the fourth dimension, the *reciprocal - professional*, stresses the importance of reciprocity and collaboration in induction, both formally and informally. The outlined four dimensions, or integration of results, describing induction from the experiences of new teachers, constitute part of a new synthesis, *induction practice*. This synthesis was generated from viewing the

integrated results through the theoretical lens of practice architecture and the three spaces, semantic space, physical space-time and social space. In this way, a more comprehensive, refined and partially new architecture of teachers' induction practices are presented and discussed.

Key words: professional development, induction, newly qualified teachers, experiences, practice theory

Acknowledgements

This research process is finally coming to its end and it is with a grateful mind that I am finishing the work. I owe thanks to many persons who, in different ways, have contributed. First of all, the participating new teachers, who generously shared their stories and experiences with me. When listening to you I have recognised many similarities between being a novice researcher and a novice teacher. Neither teaching nor research, however, needs to be a lonely process. Fortunately, during my years as a doctoral student, I have had many collaborators from whom I have learnt, become inspired and been supported in the world of research.

Above all, I would like to extend my warmest thanks to my supervisor, Professor Emeritus Sven-Erik Hansén, for inviting me to conduct research in the first place and for all his encouragement, positive recognition and tireless support through the years. You have been a true mentor for me in all ways possible. I am also grateful to my second advisor, Professor Terese Bondas, particularly for giving me robust supervision when I felt lost in the tremendous amount of qualitative data, but also for all support concerning the writing of one of the articles and the comprehensive summary.

To my other co-authors and friends, i.e. doctoral student Marina Bendtsen and her supervisor Professor Kaj Sjöholm, Associate Professor Hannu L.T. Heikkinen and Associate Professor Göran Fransson – my deepest and sincere thanks. In the writing process together with you I have learnt immensely and you have shown me what research collaboration is all about. This thesis would not be the same without you.

I have continuously received valuable input from national as well as international collaboration through the networks and members of ‘Osaava Verme’, NQT-COME, NorTep and FN-mentorship. Thank you also Associate Professor Mary Hill and Dr Lexie Grudnoff at Auckland University for a kind reception and a lot of inspiration during my research visit in New Zealand early in my research career in 2008. Moreover, I am thankful to Dr Pat Bazeley for introducing me to NVivo at her excellent research facilities in Bowral, Australia.

I would like to thank the preliminary examiners, Associate Professor Emeritus Thomas M. Ganser at the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater, USA and Professor May Britt Postholm at the Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU) in Trondheim for their positive and constructive examination and comments. Likewise, Professor Petri Salo and doctoral student Eva Edman-Stålbrandt at Åbo Akademi University for reading and giving valuable feedback on the manuscript at the final research seminar in spring 2012.

I would also like to thank, one and all, of other colleagues and friends at the Faculty of Education, Åbo Akademi University, particularly on the 6th floor. Thank you for important discussions and the patience and support you have given to a sometimes absent-minded researcher. Grateful thoughts go also to all my fellow research students/colleagues at the research tower, Tritonia. The calm working area with its sea view, together with indispensable coffee breaks with

plenty of good laughs, has given me the necessary strength and energy to fulfil this task. You all know what peer support means!

I am grateful to the Centre for Lifelong Learning at Åbo Akademi University and Novia University of Applied Sciences for the collaboration when starting mentoring groups in 2007, in relation to which I had the opportunity to collect research data for this thesis. The excellent collaboration has continued also later within the Finnish network for teacher induction 'Osaava Verme'. I am indebted to Johanna Björkell for help with language and transcriptions, John Shepherd and Barbro Wiik for proofreading, Tarja Grahn-Björkqvist for assistance with technicalities and Maria Norrlin-Asplund for the layout of figures. Katri Karjalainen deserves special thanks for being a listening, understanding and supportive tandem-partner during countless meetings during the past years. We have not only improved our language skills, but in many ways walked the research path together and shared most of the ups and downs during our times as doctoral students.

Without financial support the collection of data, attendance at important research conferences and seminars, as well as international collaboration would have been impossible. Therefore, I would like to extend my thanks for the research support from the following institutions and foundations: Åbo Akademi University (Internationella enheten vid Åbo Akademi, Ledningsgruppen för forskarutbildningen, Stiftelsens för ÅA forskningsinstitut, JPÅA), Svenska kulturfonden, Waldemar von Frenckells stiftelse, Svensk-Österbottiska Samfundet, Svenska Folkskolans Vänner and Högskolestiftelsen i Österbotten.

Most importantly I would like to thank Anders for always being there, with both feet steadily on the ground, offering perspective and support both in good times and in bad. Till mina vänner och min stora, härliga familj – tack för att ni finns och för alla livsviktiga andningshål ni erbjuder under åren!

I dedicate this thesis to my mom and dad.

Vasa, October 21, 2012

Jessica Aspfors

PART I

Table of Contents

1 Introduction	1
1.1 Background	2
1.2 Motives	4
1.3 Aim, research questions and design	8
1.4 Context of the study	10
1.5 Clarification of concepts	13
2 Theoretical landscape.....	17
2.1 New teachers' socialisation.....	18
2.2 Social working environment and school culture	20
2.3 New teachers' experiences	23
2.4 New teachers' professional development.....	26
2.5 Induction and mentoring	28
2.6 Induction through the lens of practice theory.....	35
3 Methods and implementation.....	49
3.1 Methodological approach.....	49
3.2 Data collection and procedure.....	53
3.2.1 Questionnaire	55
3.2.2 Focus groups	58
3.3 Analysis of the data.....	67
3.4 Ethical considerations	74
4 Results	79
4.1 Study I: Experiences of the profession in the transition from education to work	79
4.2 Study II: Experiences of the first encounters with school and classroom	80
4.3 Study III: Experiences of relationships within the school community	84
4.4 Study IV: Experiences of support through peer-group mentoring	87
4.5 Integration of results	89
5 Discussion and conclusions	93
5.1 Induction practice.....	93
5.2 Methodological considerations	103

5.3 Conclusions	107
5.3.1 Implications	109
5.3.2 Recommendations for further research.....	111
Svensk sammanfattning	113
References.....	125

Appendices

List of abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in the thesis:

CLL	Centre for Lifelong Learning at Åbo Akademi University and Novia University of Applied Sciences
CoP	Communities of Practice
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
DEPT	Doctoral Education Programme in Tanzania
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
ESF	European Science Foundation
FSL	The Organisation of Swedish-Speaking Teachers in Finland
FIER	Finnish Institute for Educational Research
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
NQT	Newly Qualified Teacher
NQT-COME	Supporting Newly Qualified Teachers through Collaborative Mentoring
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
Osaava Verme	The Finnish Network for Teacher Induction 'Osaava Verme'
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PGM	Peer-Group Mentoring
PLC	Professional Learning Communities
STURE	Study Register at Åbo Akademi University
TEPT	Teacher Education Project in Tanzania

List of Figures

<i>Figure 1</i> Induction as an integrated part of teachers' lifelong professional development.	7
<i>Figure 2</i> Overall research design.	9
<i>Figure 3</i> Map illustrating the Swedish-speaking areas of Finland (Sjöholm, 2004, 640).	11
<i>Figure 4</i> Overview of the theoretical landscape of induction.	17
<i>Figure 5</i> Design of the empirical data collection.	54
<i>Figure 6</i> Initial inventory of discussion topics in the focus groups.	65
<i>Figure 7</i> Example of abstraction.	71
<i>Figure 8</i> The results viewed through the lens of practice architecture.	93

List of Tables

<i>Table 1</i> Nine ecological principles: Practices as living entities (Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2012).	41
<i>Table 2</i> Distribution of gender and qualification.	57
<i>Table 3</i> Three main phases of analysis.	67
<i>Table 4</i> Categories integrated in the relational – emotional dimension.	89
<i>Table 5</i> Categories integrated in the tensional – mutable dimension.	90
<i>Table 6</i> Categories integrated in the instructive – developmental dimension.	90
<i>Table 7</i> Categories integrated in the reciprocal – professional dimension.	91
<i>Table 8</i> Overview of including studies and results.	92

PART II

List of original articles

The thesis consists of the following articles (also addressed as studies I–IV):

- I Aspfors, J., Bendtsen, M., Hansén, S-E. & Sjöholm, K. (2011). Evolving views of the teaching profession – Voices from student teachers and newly qualified teachers. In U. Lindgren, F. Hjärdemaal, K. Sjöholm & S-E. Hansén (Eds.), *Becoming a teacher - Nordic Perspectives on Teacher Education and Newly Qualified Teachers* (pp. 23–46). Vasa: Åbo Akademi, Faculty of Education.
- II Aspfors, J., Bendtsen, M. & Hansén, S-E. (2011). Nya lärare möter skola och klassrum. In S-E. Hansén & L. Forsman (Eds.), *Allmändidaktik – Vetenskap för lärare* (pp. 331–353). Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- III Aspfors, J. & Bondas, T. (accepted for publication). Caring about caring – Newly qualified teachers’ experiences of their relationships within the school community. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*.
- IV Aspfors, J., Fransson, G. & Heikkinen, H.L.T. (2012). Mentoring as dialogue, collaboration and/or assessment? In P. Tynjälä, M-L. Stenström & M. Saarnivaara (Eds.), *Transitions and Transformations in Learning and Education* (pp. 271–290). Dordrecht: Springer.

The articles are reprinted with kind permission of the publishers.

Outline of the thesis

The present compilation thesis consists of two parts. Part I constitutes the comprehensive summary and Part II the four original articles (studies I–IV).

The comprehensive summary includes five chapters. In *Chapter 1*, the background, motives and aims of the study are outlined, as well as the overall study design, the context of the study and clarification of the concepts.

The theoretical landscape of the thesis is outlined in *Chapter 2*. Some lines of research initiated in the studies are presented: newly qualified teachers' socialisation into the profession and the social working environment of schools, new teachers' professional development and experiences of their first years in the profession, as well as induction and mentoring as formal support programmes. The lines of research are at the end of the chapter bundled together with the help of the theory of practice architectures developed by Kemmis and Grootenboer (2008) and the three spaces: semantic space, physical space-time and social space.

Chapter 3 looks more closely at the methodological questions in focus in this thesis. The methodological approach, the specific research methods used, as well as data collection and procedures are presented. Ethical considerations in relation to the analysis and interpretation of the data are discussed at the end of the chapter.

The results of the four studies, included in the meta-synthesis, are presented in *Chapter 4* in the form of newly qualified teachers' experiences. These concern experiences of the profession in the transition from education to work (study I), experiences of the first encounters with school and classroom (study II), experiences of relationships within the school community (study III) and experiences of support gained through peer-group mentoring (study IV). The results are integrated in the end, forming four overall dimensions of new teachers' induction experiences.

In *Chapter 5*, the results are discussed in the light of practice theory and previous research, explicating a new induction practice that has not previously been presented in the separate studies. The chapter also includes some methodological considerations, concluding thoughts, implications and suggestions for further research.

Part I

ent before managing the
appreciate students in
onal **development** of
ments, give support, a
quires much time."
"Yes, s

1 Introduction

The actual thesis is entitled *Induction Practices – Experiences of Newly Qualified Teachers*. What is then “induction practices” referring to? Is it about certain policies and procedures to introduce new teachers to their profession or is it best practices of mentoring new teachers? The title may evoke various associations. In this work induction¹ is in centre, reflecting the transitional phase and newly qualified teachers’ (NQTs)² experiences of their first years in the profession, later explored in terms of a certain practice. Induction is thus viewed as part of teachers’ lifelong continuum of professional development, as it today is more or less a matter of course to participate in continuing education after finishing basic education.

However, it has not always been like this. A couple of decades ago, a person was considered to be “finished” as a teacher after undergoing teacher education, fully qualified and able to handle all tasks of the profession. At that time it was not unusual to spend the whole of one’s working life at one and the same school. Between 1875 and 1971, for instance, about 64 percent of Finland-Swedish elementary school teachers stayed in the profession for their entire career and no obligatory or regular in-service programme was offered. About 40–45 percent stayed at their first school during the same period of time, while 55–60 percent of them changed positions one or several times, chiefly during the beginning of their career³⁴. The turnover of personnel was thus quite low and the teacher’s role relatively clear in structure. Without any formal programmes, older colleagues socialised NQTs into the existing school culture (Aili, Persson, & Persson, 2003; Koskenniemi, 1965; Nyholm, 1999).

The teacher’s role and tasks have, however, changed during recent years, mainly due to rapid societal changes, changes in education and the view of learning. Hansén, Sjöberg and Sjöholm (2008) specify such trends as globalisation, enlarged citizenship, homogenisation⁵ and postmodernism as especially

¹ The concept teacher induction often refers to *a unique phase in the teacher’s development* that coincides with the first year(s) of teaching; it represents the process that characterises *teachers’ socialisation* into the profession as well as referring to *formal induction programmes* (Feiman-Nemser, Schwillie, Carver & Yusko, 1999, 4–5, 20, 25–26). See a more elaborated description in the section operationalisation of concepts.

² The concept *newly qualified teacher* (NQT) and *new teacher* are used synonymously.

³ Not everyone reached retirement age, since many had to leave their post because of sickness.

⁴ For example, 91 percent of the male and 95 percent of the female teachers in Koskenniemi’s longitudinal study (1965) had a permanent teaching post already in the beginning of their third year of teaching. A total of 29 percent of male and 40 percent of female teachers changed jobs after their first year of teaching, while the corresponding figures were 23 percent and 30 percent after the third year of teaching. The turnover was thus low, and none of the teachers had left the teaching profession permanently.

⁵ Homogenisation aims at the now prevailing unifying processes. For instance, higher education in Europe, the so-called Bologna Process, the aim of which is to create a

important societal factors influencing teachers and teacher education. On a concrete level these movements are characterised by changed family structures, the expansion of information and communication technology (ICT), which results in new ways of human interaction, and a new approach to knowledge. More diverse groups of pupils from different backgrounds and with different levels of ability and disability constitute an additional factor. All in all, these trends contribute to increased demands on teachers than previously (cf. OECD, 2005).

Niemi and Jakku-Sihvonen (2006) claim, therefore, that teachers practice one of the most central professions in today's society. The teacher is in a key position when it comes to preparing the younger generation to meet these changing conditions. The welfare and economy of society are dependent on the quality of the teaching results and these are in turn closely connected to teachers' competence. At the same time, Goodson and Numan (2003) believe that teachers' work is perhaps one of the most pressured political and social areas of all working environments. Schools are overburdened by higher authorities with directives, decrees, tests, curricula, examinations and evaluations. Day (2008) asserts that constant national initiatives and reforms are placing more and more demands on teachers regarding both academic and social responsibilities. Even though some studies may have demonstrated improved school effectiveness, they continue to challenge teachers' substantive identities, pressure teachers to conform uncritically, reduce their time with individual pupils, threaten teachers' capacities to sustain motivation, efficacy and commitment, as well as their sense of agency and resilience. Day (ibid.) argues that "teachers in all countries need support for their commitment, energy and skill over their careers if they are to grapple with the immense emotional, intellectual and social demands... by ongoing government reforms and social movements" (p. 258).

It is from this reality that my thesis stems and from which the following questions arose. How do new teachers manage and experience their first years of teaching? How do they develop as teachers, and how could they be better supported in order to handle the increasingly complex everyday life? What happens to teachers during their first years is not without meaning, as it not only determines whether they will continue teaching, but also what kinds of teachers they will develop into and their effectiveness as teachers throughout their career (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Jensen, Sandoval-Hernández, Knoll & Gonzalez, 2012). These kinds of questions centring on induction will be more closely examined in this thesis from different perspectives in four studies (I–IV, Part II) and the comprehensive summary (Part I).

1.1 Background

The teaching profession is sometimes described as an *early career plateau*, referring to the full juridical and pedagogical responsibility from day one that does not significantly increase during the career unless the teacher assumes another position and becomes, for instance, a head teacher. In other professions,

European Higher Education Area (EHEA) based on international cooperation and academic exchange.

conversely, the career most often progresses gradually with growing responsibilities and tasks and recognition in the form of stepwise changing of job titles (Heikkinen, Jokinen & Tynjälä, 2012). This responsibility, together with the increasing demands on the profession pointed out previously, expose teachers' careers to different dynamics compared to earlier.

Whisnant, Elliott & Pynchon (2005) recognise in the USA that reduced work satisfaction amongst teachers is caused by increasing lack of public appreciation, poor working conditions and low pay. Further, Johnson, Berg and Donaldson (2005) argue that the organisation and culture of today's schools do not meet the needs of new teachers. If anything, the policies are favouring experienced teachers. The struggle of new teachers to start off in their profession is therefore currently a well-known fact worldwide. Research shows that there are numerous unexpected situations for teachers to handle that their teacher education does not always prepare them for. Feiman-Nemser (2001, 1026) asserts that "no matter what initial preparation they receive, teachers are never fully prepared for classroom realities and responsibilities associated with meeting the needs of a rapidly growing, increasingly diverse student population". She continues by arguing (1999, 6–8) that new teachers are expected to do their work as effectively as their older colleagues at school, regardless of the many elements in the profession that are unknown, i.e. pupils, curriculum and school culture. As Ducharme and Ducharme suggest; "Veteran teachers often confront problems that they have not seen before; Beginning teachers are almost always encountering problems they have never seen before" (in Romano & Gibson, 2006).

In a way, new teachers have several jobs: "to teach and to learn to teach" and to develop "from a student of teaching to teacher of students". This is a protracted and complex process. The situation is paradoxical as the teachers need to display skills and abilities they do not yet have, while the only way to gain them is to do what they do not yet fully understand. In addition, some researchers highlight that new teachers often face the situation where they are given the most difficult class, including a higher number of pupils with disrupting behaviours than their more experienced colleagues. The device in many contexts seems to be that what does not kill you makes you stronger (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, 1026–1027; Riggs & Sandlin, 2007, 318). Researchers describe the challenging situation when teachers start out in their profession therefore often as a shock: *reality shock* (Hebert & Worthy, 2001; Jokinen, Heikkinen & Välijärvi, 2005; McCormack & Thomas, 2003; Veenman, 1984), *transition shock* (Corcoran, 1981), *culture shock* (Wideen, Mayer-Smith & Moon, 1998) or *praxis shock* (Andersson & Andersson, 2004; Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002). Moreover, researchers identify the first period as critical and as a time of survival and discovery, adaptation and learning, and furthermore, as a trial and error phase, with new teachers' concerns about acceptance, control and adequacy (cf. Fransson & Gustafsson, 2008)

New teachers have, in general, been left alone without any or little support to handle and survive the new situation. This "sink or swim approach" can be seen as fatal, since the first years are a decisive period for development and growth as a teacher (Williams & Williamson, 1996), and "...teacher quality is one of the most, if not the most significant factor in students' achievement and educational

improvement” (Riggs & Sandlin 2007, 317). Support and mentoring programmes have therefore gained ground in dealing with the above discussed problems and a growing volume of research confirms the positive effects of such programmes (cf. Hobson, Ashby, Malderez & Tomlinson, 2009; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Whisnant et al., 2005). The discussion of how to support NQTs in Finland has nevertheless not started in real earnest until the beginning of the 2000s. Several reasons behind this can be found. One reason is probably, in comparison to many other countries, the focus on long research-based teacher education⁶. This and other aspects in connection to the problem field will be more closely examined in the following section.

1.2 Motives

From the previously sketched background, my choice of research project can be condensed into the following four *societal*-, *system*-, *research*- and *personal* motives. Necessary features important for this study will be considered in connection with the motives. These also expose at the same time the relevance of the thesis.

My first motive for choice of subject is *societal* and emanates from signals from the research in other countries about NQTs’ demanding working situation during the first years of teaching. The indications that NQTs to a minor extent start to work as teachers and established teachers to a greater extent look for other jobs does not bode well. Within five years as many as 50 percent of NQTs in the USA leave the profession due to reasons other than ordinary retirement. This has been called the “revolving-door syndrome” when there are a fairly large number of teachers moving into, through and from schools annually. Some of the turnover is normal and reflects postmodern society, where a lifelong career is rare. Some of the turnover is perhaps even necessary, as not all teachers should remain in the profession, but the annual turnover is nevertheless significantly higher than compared to other occupations (Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). The trend seems currently to be consistent worldwide. Kyriacou and Kunc (2007) claim, for instance, that in England 40 percent of student teachers never start working as teachers, and 40 percent of those who start their teacher career leave the profession within five years. As many as 25 percent of NQTs in the Czech Republic choose not to enter the teaching profession (Hebert & Worthy, 2001) and up to 40 percent of Norwegian teachers in a recent study had left teaching within two years (Rones, 2011). The school communities thus face severe school staffing problems and unfortunately the best and most suitable teachers tend to be those leaving the profession (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Rots, Aelterman, Vlerick & Vermeulen, 2007).

As in many other countries, Finland is also facing a situation where teachers more frequently leave their jobs, particularly in larger urban areas. Leading to a higher academic (Master’s) degree, the teaching profession, as a polyvalent

⁶ The average length of teacher education for primary school teachers in Europe is four years (Coba Arango & Valle, 2011), but in Finland five years.

vocation⁷, provides excellent opportunities to work in other fields as well. Training skills and experience in public performance have been valued by business enterprises, for example. Discussions about the increasing flow of teachers leaving the teaching profession to apply for other positions have been quite lively in Finland over the last few years. Laaksola (2007ab), for instance, refers to a study from 2007, which reveals that 1/5 of teachers nationwide and 1/3 of teachers in the capital area leave the profession within a few years. Of the teachers, 2/3 asserted that they were prepared to leave the profession if alternatives were offered. Attractive choices are considered to be human resource management in companies, media, and administrative posts in the municipalities. Reasons for leaving the profession are the low level of salaries and perceived tough working situation.

Another study in Finland indicates that 20 percent of male primary school teachers change jobs within the education system and 16 percent move to areas outside education. The stated reasons were new working possibilities, low salary, heavy workload, stress at times and the profession's public nature (Blomqvist, Keihäs, Hansén & Wikman, 2008). These figures can be compared to the study of Koskenniemi (1965) at the end of the 1950s, where none of the teachers (n=63) had left the profession after three years of teaching. At the same time as reflecting a general tendency in society today of more frequently changing profession during a career, it is also connected to labour market mechanisms and trade cycles (Rots, Kelchtermans & Aelterman, 2012). Teacher shortage is, nevertheless, a growing dilemma, especially since pupil enrolments have increased and a large amount of teachers will be retiring in the coming years (Laaksola, 2007ab).

Yet the teaching profession is still a popular choice of vocation in Finland. The education for primary school teachers, special education teachers and student counsellors are examples of the number of applicants exceeding the number of available student places. There are annually approximately 5000 applicants for about 800 student places in teacher education programmes (Väljjarvi & Heikkinen, 2012). This number can in an international perspective be regarded as extraordinary, as international surveys suggest that it is necessary to make efforts to improve the image of the teaching profession in order to attract sufficient good new applicants in the future (OECD, 2003).

The second motive stems from an identified *system weakness*, since Finland still does not have any formal, legally prescribed system for inducting NQTs. Even though the interest in mentoring has increased significantly in Finland during the last years, education providers and schools have no obligation to offer new teachers a mentor during their first years of teaching. Induction programmes are likewise more an exception than the rule in most schools, since there are no formal requirements that these have to be offered. Hence, schools may choose themselves how to organise their introduction for new teachers and therefore these are often occasional or completely missing (Heikkinen, Jokinen & Tynjälä, 2010). Some teachers may be welcomed with an information folder about the

⁷ Polyvalence refers here to professions with an exam appropriate for several other occupations (cf. Hopmann, 2006).

practices of the school or directed to a web page containing such necessary information, while others might be offered the opportunity to participate in an introduction meeting for a couple of days. The main emphasis is usually on the adaptation to the work community rather than on professional development aspects. Therefore, this kind of orientation or introduction should not be mistaken for comprehensive support in the form of induction. The Teachers' Union often offers similar courses, but focuses then mainly on relevant issues for them, such as rights and duties, working time or questions concerning salary. Thus, it is often up to the individual teacher to look for support. However, a recently established national network for teacher induction, '*Osaava Verme*'⁸, providing peer-group mentoring (PGM) and mentor education throughout Finland is breaking new ground. The project comprises all the teacher education departments of universities and all vocational teacher education institutions in Finland and is coordinated from the Finnish Institute for Educational Research (FIER) at the University of Jyväskylä (Aspfors & Hansén, 2011a; Heikkinen et al., 2012; Heikkinen, Jokinen, Markkanen & Tynjälä, 2012).

The previous weak interest in implementing induction programmes in Finland can mainly be seen as the result of a relatively high teacher status, high numbers of teacher applicants, good PISA results and a long and research-based teacher education (cf. Sahlberg, 2011; see also further context description of this study). Emphasis on induction and mentoring for NQTs has, however, lately increased at a national level, in the future principles for *Finnish teacher education 2020* and the funded mentoring initiative '*Osaava Verme*' (Ministry of Education, 2007), at a European level in, for example, the reports *Improving the quality of teacher education* (Commission of the European Communities, 2007) and *Beginning teachers: A challenge for educational systems* (Picard & Ria, 2011), and finally at an international level in the OECD reports *Teachers matter – Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers* (2005) and *The experiences of new teachers: Results from TALIS 2008* (Jensen et al., 2012).

Accordingly, my research project is in line with the intentions of the Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture, since it is emphasised that teacher education needs to be developed to a continuum where initial teacher education, induction and continuing professional development form an integrated, continuous and supportive whole (cf. European Commission, 2010). Figure 1 exemplifies the vision of an integrated continuum of teachers' professional development.

⁸ The name '*Osaava Verme*' comes from peer-group mentoring in Finnish, "vertaisryhmämentorointi", which is shortened as "Verme". "Osaava" refers to the national programme for teacher development in Finland which '*Osaava Verme*' network is part of. For more information see <http://ktl.jyu.fi/ktl/osaavaverme/mainenglish>



Figure 1 Induction as an integrated part of teachers' lifelong professional development.

Creation of an integrated continuum between teacher education and continuing professional development is one of the most urgent targets of development in further education. Such an educational continuum has the potential to support lifelong learning and establish more successful solutions to determine the educational contents that are best provided in initial education and those that are by nature more suitable for continuing education. Development of a continuum requires, however, close co-operation between the national educational administration, schools, bodies responsible for teacher education and employers of teachers (OECD, 2003).

My third motive for selecting this topic is the current need for *research-based knowledge* in times when support programmes are more frequently being developed and established at national levels. How do NQTs experience their first years of teaching? What kind of support do they really need? Although a lot of previous studies have addressed the above discussed issues, fewer have been carried out in the Finnish context. It would therefore be important to scrutinise the Finnish conditions, since the society, education system and teacher education differs from other countries. Moreover, there is a lack of research-based knowledge specifically within Swedish-Finland⁹, which is the context of data collection in this study. To take a starting point locally gives relevance to the study since I hope the results can be utilised within teacher education and future support programmes. My hope is, of course, that the results from the local perspective can also be used in a global context.

A fourth motive derives from a *personal interest*, since I myself qualified as a teacher in 2006. I choose to follow primary school teachers which I participate in educating at the Faculty of Education, Åbo Akademi University. This category of student teachers is the largest group educated in this faculty. Furthermore, primary school teachers have another kind of responsibility, since they are responsible for a whole class of pupils and teach them the majority of subjects during a longer period of time than, for instance, secondary school teachers, who teach different groups of pupils in a minority of subjects.

⁹ Swedish-Finland means the areas of Finland that are mainly populated by Finland-Swedes (Sjöholm 2004).

1.3 Aim, research questions and design

With reference to the motives presented and discussed above, the overall aim of this study is to *deepen understanding and knowledge of NQTs' experiences of their induction practices*. A deeper understanding and increased and systematised knowledge is of importance, particularly as Finland still is in the beginning phase of developing and implementing support and mentoring programmes for NQTs. The aim can be specified in the following four sub-areas: to scrutinise NQTs' experiences of the profession in the transition from education to work (study I), to describe and analyse NQTs' experiences of their first encounters with school and classroom (study II), to explore NQTs' experiences of their relationships within the school community (study III), to view NQTs' experiences of support through peer-group mentoring as part of the wider aim of collaboration and assessment (study IV).

From the perspective of the problem field and the overall aim, the following research questions have guided this work and the four studies:

- What are NQTs' expectations on and experiences of the teaching profession? (study I)
- What are the experiences of NQTs' first encounters with school and classroom? (study II)
- What are the characteristics and experiences of NQTs' relationships? (study III)
- What are the experiences of NQTs participating in peer-group mentoring? (study IV)

Furthermore, on the basis of the background, theoretical landscape and presented results, a synthesis has been developed. The research question guiding this synthesis has been:

- What is the synthesis between the integrated results describing induction and previous research from a practice-theoretical perspective? (studies I–IV)

The thesis comprises articles written together with other researchers and includes subsequently also empirical data collected by others (see article I and IV). The meta-synthesis will, however, primarily focus on the empirical data concerning NQTs' experiences from a Finland-Swedish perspective and thus the data collected and analysed by myself. This means, for example in study IV, that the meta-synthesis will deal only with new teachers' experiences of participating in peer-group mentoring, rather than on collaboration and/or assessment in mentoring, which is the main focus of the article.

The relevance of the study has already been exposed in different ways. To sum up, I want to emphasise that a deepened knowledge and increased understanding of induction as a certain practice is of importance for our understanding of the factors related to teachers' entrance into the profession and their need for support. This is identified as an internationally important subject (see, for instance, Jensen et al., 2012; Picard & Ria, 2011) which needs to be further

researched (cf. Ingersoll & Strong, 2011), especially since, in many countries, there are increasing difficulties in recruiting to the profession and in retaining good teachers in the profession (Rots et al., 2012). Today there is also research showing that the greatest influence on learner outcomes is the quality and effectiveness of the teacher (Jensen et al., 2012; Schollaert, 2011). Therefore, investment in new teachers at the beginning of their career is essential in order to facilitate professionalism and effectiveness of teaching. Furthermore, there seem to be different kinds of support measures developed in connection with teacher education in different countries. Simultaneously, many countries are at the moment developing national support programmes and this research is also a contribution to specific conditions concerning support for NQTs in the Finnish context. The knowledge this compilation thesis contributes to can, therefore, be utilised in the development of support and mentoring programmes for new teachers, as well as within teacher education.

Research design

In the present research study there is a dialectic process between previous research and theoretical knowledge, as well as analysis and interpretation of collected data. Figure 2 below illustrates the mode of reasoning and overall research design.

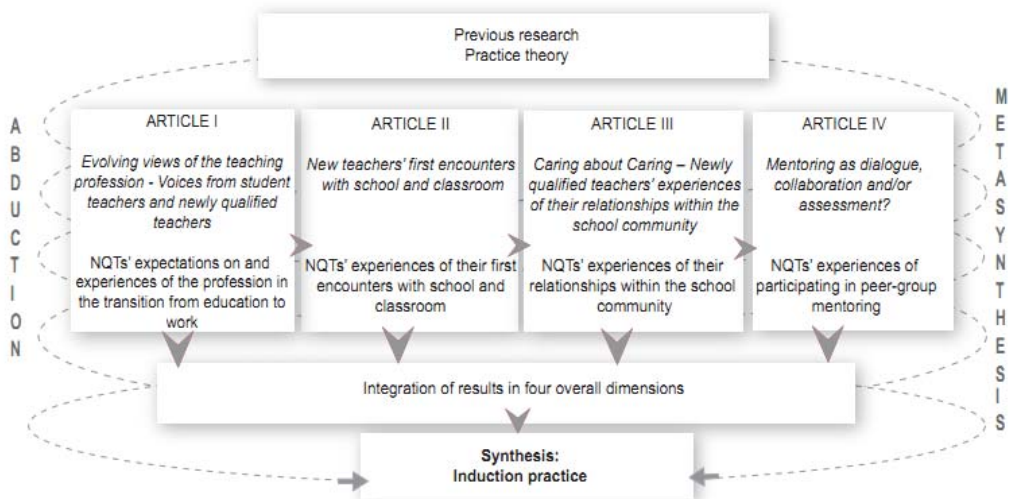


Figure 2 Overall research design.

Data collection in the form of a questionnaire survey, with mostly open-ended questions, and focus group interviews was conducted in an early stage of the research process. The data were analysed inductively using qualitative content analysis and narrative analysis. Furthermore, the data were analysed separately for each study. The four articles focusing on different aspects of induction were written, forming a continuing whole ranging from NQTs' first expectations and experiences of the profession to experiences of participating in peer-group

mentoring. Consequently, themes emerging as important in one study could be highlighted and deepened in another in line with abductive reasoning. The results from the four studies are integrated and constitute part of a final synthesis, *induction practice*, together with previous lines of research and practice theory (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008; Schatzki, 2002). Accordingly, a specific architecture of induction on the basis of NQTs' experiences is portrayed through the lenses of semantic space, physical space-time and social space.

The overall study is thus characterised as a pendulum movement between inductive and deductive principles of analysis, as well as a pendulum between part and whole, i.e. first looking at the data in its entirety, then analysing parts of the empirical data for the separate studies, and then moving on to see the whole again in the light of theory (cf. Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2008).

1.4 Context of the study

The study was conducted in Finland in the Finland-Swedish region. Finland is one of the countries in Europe which is officially bilingual. This means that the two national languages in Finland, Finnish and Swedish, are guaranteed by Finland's Language Law from 1922 (McRae, 1999). Every citizen has the right to use his/her mother tongue, either Finnish or Swedish, when in contact with the authorities i.e. in the courts, armed forces, education and health and welfare. Finland-Swedes, Finns who speak Swedish as their mother tongue, the minority language spoken by approximately 5.4 percent of the population (about 290 000)¹⁰, have as a consequence a separate school system and teacher education in Swedish. These are, however, regulated by the same law and national curricular frameworks as the Finnish majority (Sjöholm, 2004). Hansén (2004) has outlined the forces that have contributed to the development of a separate but equal school system in both languages, the *homogenisation* and *differentiation* processes. Homogenisation in this respect refers to the guarantee of equal opportunities for education, regardless of language, whereas differentiation stands for the adjustments to specific needs of the minority language. This can be seen as important as a way to maintain the special features of the minority culture and language.

A great part of the Swedish-speaking population is bilingual and mainly settled in the south of Finland and on the west coast (Ostrobothnia). There is also a group of monolingual Swedish-speakers living in the Åland Islands¹¹. Some differences can be found between these areas concerning demography and linguistics. First, it is important to make clear that the Swedish spoken in Finland differs somewhat from that spoken in Sweden. In the southern area,

¹⁰ For more details about the Finland-Swedish population visit The Swedish Assembly of Finland at <http://folktinget.fi/eng/home/> and their publication *Swedish in Finland* (2010) available at http://www.folktinget.fi/Site/Widget/Editor/137/files/SVENSK_i_FINLAND_ENGLISH_A4_WEB.pdf. For more details in Swedish see Finnäs, F. (2010). *Finlandssvenskarna 2009. En statistisk rapport*. Helsingfors: Svenska Finlands Folkting.

¹¹ Åland is a unilingual Swedish-speaking province, which has a semi-independent status and a legitimated protection of the Swedish language (McRae, 1999).

predominantly urban municipalities, Swedish is a minority language and the Finland-Swedes here tend to be more influenced by Finnish and consequently to a greater extent fluent speakers of Finnish than the other areas. Ostrobothnia, which mostly is a rural area, has in contrast Swedish as a large minority or even a majority language. A rich selection of local Swedish dialects is to be found here, which on the other hand may cause difficulties for some children to learn the standard language (Sjöholm, 2004). As Finland-Swedes represent a linguistic minority in Finland, they can be seen as a distinct ethnic and cultural group with a strong self-identity; thus it would be important also to receive more research-based knowledge about this category of newly qualified Finland-Swedish teachers.

The map of the southern and western parts of Finland shows the monolingual Swedish and bilingual Finnish and Swedish areas (Figure 2). It is noteworthy that the situation is changing due to an ongoing change of the municipality structure; the map will therefore very likely look different within a few years.

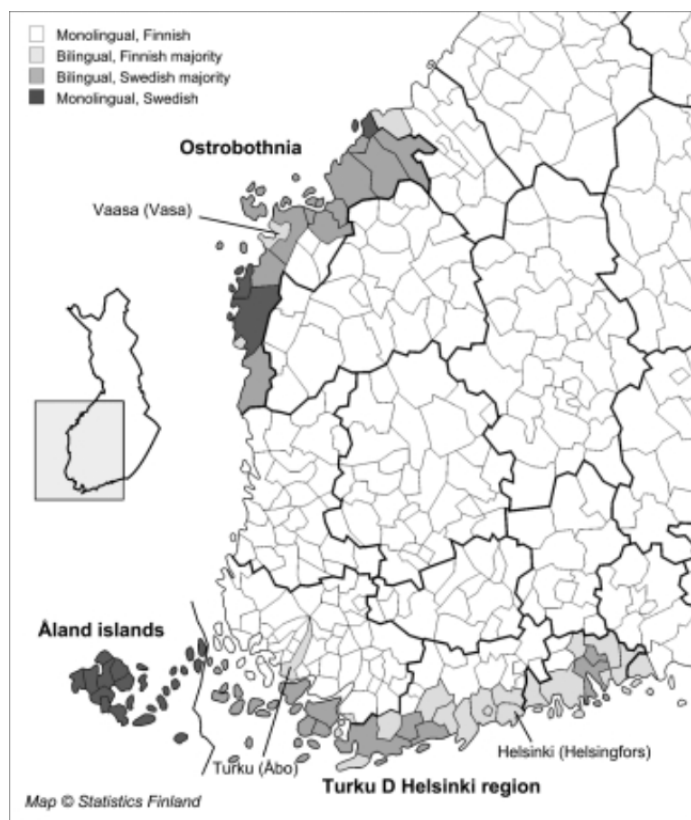


Figure 3 Map illustrating the Swedish-speaking areas of Finland (Sjöholm, 2004, 640).

Finnish teacher education

Teacher education is provided by nine universities and five vocational teacher education institutions in Finland. One of these serves the Finland-Swedish population, but according to the same standards as the Finnish. Finland has received great attention recently due to successful results in international comparisons of student achievements. One reason often cited behind this success is Finnish teacher education, which has been university-based since the 1970s and highly research-oriented. Primary and secondary school teacher education leads to a higher academic (Master's) degree, which is required of all teachers in basic education and in general upper secondary education. The research-based approach aims at developing critical thinking and reflection amongst teachers to prepare them, as much as possible, for an uncertain future. A research approach is intended to permeate every course, and courses in research methods are introduced from the beginning of the studies. The students complete a Bachelor's thesis and a Master's thesis during their studies, which usually lasts about five years. The purpose of this is to internalise a research-oriented attitude towards the work. A distinctive trait of the teaching practice is the three-part cooperation between supervisors from the universities (university lecturers), practice school teachers and the student teacher him/herself (see more in e.g. Jakku-Sihvonen & Niemi, 2006; Sahlberg, 2011; Sjöholm & Hansén, 2007; Välijärvi & Heikkinen, 2012).

Continuing professional development

Compared to the long and solid research-based teacher education, *continuing professional development* (CPD)¹² is, however, surprisingly weak and dysfunctional in terms of its structure and design. To date, continuing education in Finland has paid relatively little attention to changes in educational needs in different phases of the teaching career. Surveys indicate, for instance, that the opportunities for teachers to receive support for their work vary considerably, depending on teacher groups and the municipality where they work. Current continuing education¹³ is often haphazard in terms of both funding and provision as well. As provision is often based on disconnected training days and courses,

¹² *Continuing professional development* is still a relatively new concept and is, according to Villegas-Reimers (2003, 11–12), “a long-term process that includes regular opportunities and experiences planned systematically to promote growth and development in the profession”. Furthermore, effective CPD needs to be “teacher led, linked to pupil learning, grounded in reflection, a sustained cooperative effort and embedded in institutional development” (Schollaert, 2011, 26). This concept, along with *professional development*, is nowadays preferred ahead of the previously used terms as *in-service training*, *in-service education* or *staff development*.

¹³ Teachers in Finland must attend three in-service training days each school year. These are compulsory, but free of charge. It is the individual employers', usually the municipalities', obligation to decide about the contents and implementation method of this training. Often universities, in-service training departments at universities, The Finnish National Board of Education, local school authorities or private consultants are entrusted with the service.

school communities and teachers are not able to obtain continuous support for their work. One dilemma is also that initial and continuing teacher education has relatively little contact with each other. There is no formal link between the two, and a teacher is fully qualified when graduated (Jakku-Sihvonen & Niemi, 2006; OECD, 2003). The report from the Commission of the European Communities (2007) proves that European countries do not yet meet teachers' new demands as discussed earlier. According to them the investment in teachers' continuing education and development is low and the available education limited across the European Union. The situation in Finland is therefore not unique. In-service education or staff development, consisting of workshops or short-term courses, has traditionally been the main form of professional development for teachers around the world.

1.5 Clarification of concepts

There seem to be many concepts in connection to the theme of this thesis. As well as the concept *new teacher*, also *newly qualified teacher* (e.g. UK), *beginning teacher* (or beginner teacher), *novice teacher* and *early career teacher* (e.g. Australia) are frequently used in the research literature. The differences between the concepts seem sometimes to be very fine. Fransson and Morberg (2001) define new teachers as those who have passed some kind of teacher examination and after that start to work as relatively inexperienced in the profession. In the recent OECD report outlining the experiences of NQTs (Jensen et al., 2012), teachers with less than two years of teaching experience were categorised as new. Hobson et al. (2009) regard beginning teachers to be those that work their first three years as qualified teachers, whilst the Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture determines new teachers to be those with 1–5 years of experience, and Andersson (2005) defines teachers with between one and six years of experiences as newly qualified. The largest difference between the definitions seems therefore to be the length of time in the profession, while the common denominator seems to be the demand of a qualification.

Langdon (2007) stresses, however, that the nomenclature is not that simple. She has found three different meanings of the concept *novice* or *beginning teacher* in the international research literature. They either refer to students being on practicum within teacher education, to persons new in teaching, but without qualification, or to new teachers with a recent qualification. The concepts used seem thus to chiefly be a result of the context, the language used and ideological principles (Fransson & Gustafsson, 2008). It is therefore important to be cautious in the use of the concepts and in the interpretations of research results, as the terms have different connotations in different contexts. For me, the concepts novice teacher or beginning teacher associate with the dichotomy of novice – expert and the question of whether anyone at all can be called an expert when lifelong learning is the catchword of today.

If we scrutinise more closely the concept new teacher, it can be regarded as somewhat vague, as one can be new as a teacher in many senses. Even though a person has long teaching experience, situations can arise when the person can still be regarded as new, when she/he teaches a new subject or a new form of

pupils. In this study and in the Finnish context in general, new teachers are considered to be those with a recent teacher qualification. They are fully qualified and employed with the same responsibilities as more experienced teachers. The concept *newly qualified teacher* seems therefore most natural for me to use, as it clearly refers to a recently finished teacher education and a fully qualified teacher, who is, however, still inexperienced. I use the concept *new teacher* interchangeably with newly qualified teacher, primarily for practical reasons, as the term is short and runs smoothly in the text. I consider the concepts to be so close to each other that they can be used synonymously. In the empirical part these concepts refer especially to teachers with qualifications as primary school teachers between the years 2004 and 2006. This group of teachers consists to a large extent of teachers with a sole qualification as primary school teachers or both as primary school and special education teachers. The teachers had between one and three years teaching experience after finishing teacher education (cf. Flores, 2007; Hobson et al., 2009 or Jokinen, Morberg, Poom-Valickis & Rohtma, 2008).

What can then be defined as the “first years” in the profession? As the previous definitions already indicate, the first period at work can be anything from zero to about six years. Within the research of teacher socialisation, the three to five first years can be considered to form teachers most. When referring to the first years of teaching, the concepts *induction* or *induction phase* are commonly used. The term comes originally, according to McLaughlin and Burnaford (2007), from the military world and it is an Anglo-Saxon concept still without an appropriate corresponding term in Swedish, the language used in the Finland-Swedish context. In Finnish, the other national language in Finland, *induktio* or *induktiovaihe* is used to a certain extent. These concepts are very much a translation from English and the terms are not unambiguous as they can also refer to phenomena in medicine, biology, electricity, chemistry, philosophy or mathematics as well¹⁴ (Oxford English Dictionary).

Feiman-Nemser et al. (1999, 4–5, 20, 25–26) found three different meanings of the concept teacher induction. First, it aims at *a unique phase in the teacher’s development* that coincide with the first year(s) of teaching and which differs from the previous and the following phase. It is also called *transition phase* by some researchers (see Hebert & Worthy, 2001) and is a critical period in the process of learning to teach. Second, the concept represents the process that characterises *teachers’ socialisation* into the profession. Fransson and Gustafsson (2008, 13) remind us, however, that induction in this respect is not merely an aid to survival or becoming a member of a new organisation. This is important to remember, as new teachers are competent and (at least in the Nordic context) fully qualified teachers even though they still lack experience. Third, the concept refers to *formal induction programmes*, which are designed in order to support new teachers, normally for one year. These can either be part of

¹⁴ The meaning of induction is “the action of introducing to, or initiating in, the knowledge of something; the process of being initiated; the initial step; the formal introduction to an office, position, or possession; gradual transition from one thing to another” (Oxford English Dictionary).

the initial teacher education and thus mandatory to become fully registered as a teacher, or a programme for professional development of NQTs. Langdon (2007, 15) also suggests, on the basis of Britton (2003), that induction is “a process for learning, a particular period of time, a specific phase in teaching and a system”. Both argue that induction mainly is about “teacher’s learning about teaching while they are engaged in teaching”. A growing number of researchers suggest that support for teachers’ professional development should be organised for at least two or three years (e.g. Fransson & Gustafsson, 2008).

Mentoring has during the past twenty years been the leading form of support in induction programmes (Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004). In many contexts induction is therefore placed equally with formal mentoring, which can result in uncertainty about the meaning of the concepts. This will be further outlined in the theoretical section. In the synthesis, induction will be depicted as an *induction practice*, in the light of previous research and practice theory, i.e. practice architecture and the three spaces: semantic space, physical space-time and social space (cf. Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008). The focus of this thesis on NQTs, their need for support and professional development does not imply that criticism is directed towards initial teacher education, that it has failed in its task, or that NQTs would be poor teachers in need of help. Instead, induction is seen as part of the continuous development and lifelong learning of teachers, as learning to teach is a complex and protracted process. Support in the form of mentoring in the Finnish context is thus understood as collective and mutual learning and meaning making (see further in 2.5 or study IV).

To conclude, this conceptual introduction reports a nomenclature which is wide-ranging. However, in this study *newly qualified teacher* and *new teacher* are used interchangeably to describe teachers recently qualified from teacher education. Furthermore, *first years in the profession* is used synonymously to explain the first period as a fully qualified teacher in the so-called *induction* phase. Alongside *experiences*, the term *voices of experience* is used in study I and IV (cf. Elbaz-Luwisch, 2005). Moreover, *teacher* refers generally in this thesis to persons with a formal teacher qualification. Experienced teachers are sometimes referred to as *veteran teachers*. The term *students* is used when referring to student teachers in a teacher education programme and *pupils* when talking about primary or secondary school children. These concepts, as well as related concepts, are discussed more precisely in the theoretical landscape.

2 Theoretical landscape

The overall theoretical perspective of the thesis falls within the research of teachers' professional development. As stated in the introduction, induction forms an essential part of the continuum of teachers' continuing professional development and can primarily be seen as a *socialisation process* into the profession and the social working environment of schools, as a *unique phase of teachers' development* contributing to certain experiences, and as a *formal programme designed to support* new teachers (cf. Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999, 4–5). These aspects or lines of research will therefore be in focus in the following sections in order to give shape to and deepen the theoretical landscape discernible and initiated in the studies. I will restrict the literature review tightly to those aspects with particular relevance for this study, which means the focus will be on new teachers' socialisation into the profession (2.1), the influence of the social working environment and school culture (2.2), new teachers' first work experiences (2.3), new teachers' professional development (2.4) and support measures in the form of induction and mentoring (2.5). In order to better understand induction as a specific practice, the review will in the end merge into and be synthesised with the help of the theory of practice architecture developed by Kemmis and Grootenboer (2008) and the three spaces in focus: semantic space, physical space-time and social space (2.6).

Figure 4 portrays an overview of the theoretical landscape of induction, where the lines of research have been visible in the separate studies (I–IV) and where they are to be found in the present chapter (2.1–2.5). Moreover, the circles depict the three spaces integrating induction as a practice: semantic space, physical space-time and social space (2.6). The areas of the theoretical landscape are intimately connected to each other and many times overlapping, which will be noticeable in the text.

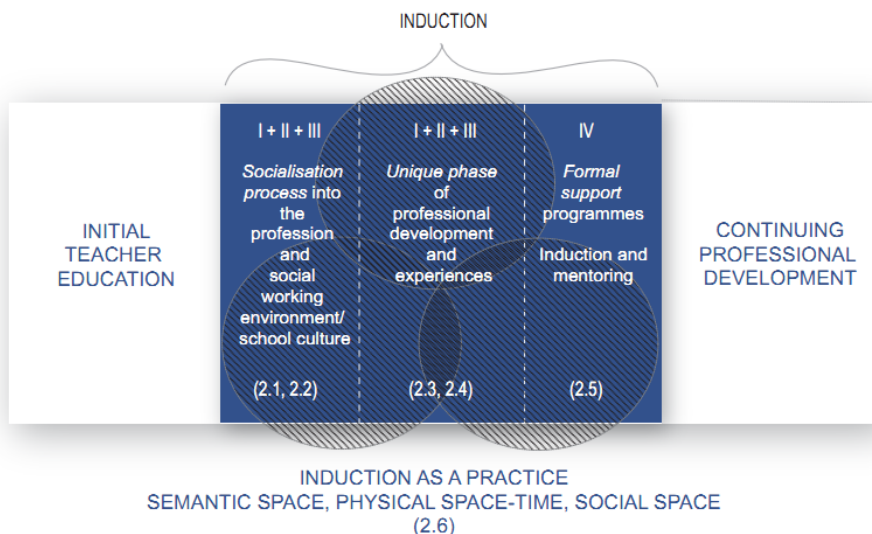


Figure 4 Overview of the theoretical landscape of induction.

2.1 New teachers' socialisation

The process of professionalisation from being a student teacher to fully qualified teacher and the overwhelming experiences this can lead to is part of the processes of *teacher socialisation* (Fransson, 2001)¹⁵. Becoming a teacher is a complex, multi-layered process that takes place across different contexts and thus cannot be explained in simple terms. The pace, areas, and quality of development differ from one individual to another (Flores & Day, 2006). Depending on which aspects you want to foreground, the process can be described as a learning process (learning to teach), as personal and/or professional development, or as teacher socialisation (cf. Jordell, 2002; Virta, 2002). I will in this section more closely examine teacher socialisation, as it exposes the intricate combination of individual and contextual factors that influence the process.

The concept of socialisation is used in manifold ways and is in many ways elusive and vague. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, socialisation is “the process by which a person learns to function within a particular society or group by internalising its values and norms”. Lortie (1975, 61), in his influential sociological study of teachers, described socialisation mainly as a passive, internal and subjective process, and as “[...] something that happens to people as they move through a series of structured experiences and internalise the subculture of the group”. This approach reflects, according to Zeichner and Gore (1990), the oldest and most persistent tradition within teacher socialisation, *the functionalistic tradition*, which is rooted in sociological positivism. It considers teachers to be passive objects rather than active. Hence, it seeks to explain rather than understand socialisation processes, and in the light of what we know today this description is limited and does not capture the whole complexity of the process. In contrast to functionalism, a later tradition, *the interpretative tradition* pays attention to reciprocal actions in the processes of learning to teach. Teachers are not only being shaped by the organisation which they are socialised into, they also have an active role influencing it at the same time. This paradigm is rooted in the German tradition of social thought. Jordell (2002), in his review of literature on becoming a teacher, concludes that socialisation can be seen as the sum of all learning processes. Socialisation not only comprises an inner, subjective process, through which people become social, but also an external process, where people become social through interaction with the environment. This interactive process can simultaneously be seen as “contradictory and dialectical, as collective as well as individual, and as situated within the broader context of institutions, society, culture, and history” (Zeichner & Gore, 1990, 31).

When reviewing the literature of teacher socialisation, it is common to divide the influences into three parts: experiences prior to, during and after teacher education (cf. Zeichner & Gore, 1990). In the first study (article I), we use the terms *prior experiences*, *educational socialisation* and *occupational socialisation* to describe these three phases. The first phase, *prior experiences*,

¹⁵ In his dissertation, Fransson (2006) has chosen the concept professionalisation ahead of socialisation, as he believes the latter has passive connotations.

involves the teachers' own life experiences and especially experiences of teaching and learning from their own school days that collectively and in an active way influence the new teachers' socialisation into the profession. In this sense, teachers are in a rather unique position compared to other professionals in that they have had at least twelve years of experience of the profession before they enter formal teacher education (cf. Lortie's concept 'apprenticeship-of-observation'). Research studies in several countries confirm these prior experiences to be decisive in the development processes of becoming a teacher.

The second phase, *educational socialisation*, comprises the formal qualification for the teaching profession. Many studies report on the weak impact of teacher education, e.g. on the prior beliefs and attitudes of student teachers, as well as on the day-to-day work as fully qualified teachers (cf. Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Wideen et al., 1998). This is interesting from a Finnish point of view, as we have, in comparison to many other countries, a long and research-based teacher education. One central aim of the Master-based teacher education is to contribute to teachers' internalisation and application of a research oriented approach to their work (Niemi & Jakku-Sihvonen, 2006). However, if the character of teacher education is highly research-based and scientific, teachers may find it difficult to apply the research-based knowledge into the practice of teachers' day to day work (cf. Eklund, 2010; Hiebert, Gallimore & Stiegler, 2002; Komulainen, 2010; Westbury, Hansén, Kansanen & Björkqvist, 2005). Nyman (2009) found in her longitudinal study that part of the NQTs were able to apply tools of critical reflection in their work, whereas some teachers returned to models of teaching from their own school days. The capacity to apply critical thinking and reflection seems thus largely dependent on the individual teacher.

The third phase, *occupational socialisation*, refers to the transition into the workplace and life as a professional (cf. Kendall, 2008). Occupational socialisation, beside prior experiences, has been found to play a significant role in the process of becoming a teacher. Especially pupils, the ecology of the classroom, colleagues and institutional characteristics influence to a large extent (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Teaching is generally considered a relatively lonely profession. However, there is evidence that teachers' socialisation into the broader school society, particularly into the school culture and atmosphere, with its norms and regulations, as well as their relationships with colleagues and pupils, have been experienced as laborious. The socialisation process has therefore been described as a "two-way struggle" (Flores & Day, 2006, 220), where new teachers strive to do their work as teachers in line with their own internal and personal visions of teaching, while they, at the same time, are being exposed to the powerful external influences of the school culture (Hebert & Worthy, 2001; Zeichner & Gore, 1990).

Quaglia (1989) found also, already in his meta-analysis, that the organisational culture influences teachers to a great extent. Agents of socialisation are, amongst others, the school administration, principal, colleagues and pupils. The school administration influences primarily, for example, on teaching assignments and time schedule, while the principal as a policy maker has a major impact on the school culture. Colleagues often play a significant role for new teachers. It is colleagues who can explain the "tricks of the trade" and ease the transition

phase. In addition they can also offer emotional support for new colleagues, which is an important function of peers as well. Pupils have, however, been found to be the main reference group for new teachers. It is pupils that teachers have most contact with and to whom they turn for feedback and support if it is not coming from other agents. At the same time pupils are also a source of frustration if there are problems with classroom management and disruptive pupils. Thus, the impact of the school culture is great, and in consequence this will be further discussed in the following section (2.2).

2.2 Social working environment and school culture

Intimately connected to the individual socialisation process described above is the influence of the collective social working environment and culture at school. As stated in the third study (article III), the teaching profession is not merely a technical or cognitive practice, but also fundamentally social, i.e. relational and emotional, intimately intertwined. The social working environment of the school has thus a strong impact on NQTs, their experiences, emotions, self-efficacy and professional development. In line with what has been previously highlighted in the articles, interpersonal relationships or social interactions, especially collaboration between colleagues and collegiality, and the culture of the school, constitute important working conditions. The social dimension of a teacher's work has also increased lately with mentoring in schools and the growing amount of non-teaching tasks that demand collaboration between teachers (Devos, Dupriez & Paquay, 2012). Research focusing on collaboration and collegiality has been conducted over the past 30 years, more recently, however, as part of so-called *communities of practice* (CoP)¹⁶ or *professional learning communities* (PLC)¹⁷ (cf. Kelchtermans, 2006). Yet, less attention has been focused on the relational (especially social interaction between colleagues), emotional and caring aspects of teaching and how these are experienced by and influence new entrants (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006; Jarzabkowski, 2002; O'Connor, 2008; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

Recently, however, an increased focus in the research literature has been directed towards the emotional character of the teaching profession (see e.g. Schutz & Zembylas, 2009). The teaching profession has, as every occupation, certain emotional expectations, contours and effects on the teachers and pupils within it (Hargreaves, 2001). Recent research has stated that emotions are crucial in teachers' perceptions, interactions, decision-making, professional development and identity formation. Moreover, emotions are essential for teachers' fully understanding of the educational process and the role emotions play in children's learning (Shapiro, 2010). This increased attention to relations and emotions may be a reflection of the unpredictable and uncertain postmodern society. In order for teachers to be successful in their relations with children and

¹⁶ See, for instance, Lave and Wenger (1991) and later in this chapter about practice theory.

¹⁷ PLC are similarly 'learning organisations' which "[...] connect and network groups of professionals to do just what their name entails – learn from practice" (in Schollaert, 2011, 18).

others, strong, reciprocal and trusting relationships are essential (Hargreaves, 2000, 2001).

Teachers everyday make huge emotional investments in their relationships, which can be a source of both satisfaction and emotional strain (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006). An intense and emotional interaction and the investment of the teacher's own personality in the profession might be both challenging and tiring and one reason why teachers choose another career (Heikkinen et al., 2010; Schutz & Zembylas, 2009). Moreover, international research shows that teachers belong to the occupational group that experiences the strongest job related stress and burnout these days (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). Relations with peers or superiors rather than pupils seem to cause most negative emotions (Devos et al., 2012). Furthermore, teachers need to build and balance their relationships with others; for instance, parents, who get more involved and put more demands on school (Hargreaves, 2000, 2001). With the mounting pressure and expectations on teachers it would also be necessary for teachers to be able to share their emotional experiences together (Shapiro, 2010). Above all, it would benefit NQTs to get emotional support when they enter teaching (Hargreaves, 1998).

In the second study (article II) we define *school culture* as the set of ideas, values and norms that characterise a school, as well as the spirit or the climate that distinguish it. Furthermore, this culture determines the ideals and guiding principles for the actions in school and impact on decision-making, communication and solidarity (cf. Andersson, Bennich-Björkman, Johansson & Persson, 2003). In the literature principally two types of school cultures can be identified: cultures that encourage collaboration, collegiality and interdependence, and cultures that contribute to comparison, competition and isolation (cf. Devos et al., 2012).

A collaborative school culture has been regarded as a way of enhancing school development, counteracting an individual-oriented working culture, as well as a way of keeping new teachers in business. The stated benefits of teacher collaboration have been huge. Kelchtermans (2006) notes in his review of previous research, however, that the different forms of teacher collaboration need to be clarified. Different forms of collaboration range from exchange of experiences, aid and assistance, sharing of ideas and material to joint work. Most often, collaboration is found to comprise merely discussions. In the OECD study of Jensen et al. (2012), these kinds of exchanges and co-ordination for teaching were reported to a much higher extent than professional collaboration.

Even though organisational and structural conditions are important (i.e. scheduled time for joint work and collaboration), the personal characteristics of teachers are even more influential besides the great impact of cultural processes. For instance, the relational dynamics between the newcomer and the experienced teacher concerning competence, in combination with the surrounding environment/situation can be experienced as threatening (cf. Devos et al., 2012). Consequently, so-called collaborative culture is foremost based on personal relationships, which are voluntary, spontaneous and development-oriented, as well as having inherently a caring dimension, i.e. colleagues feel concern and

ethically responsible for one another. Informal and voluntary opportunities for collaboration are equally important as formal ones (Kelchtermans, 2006).

Kelchtermans (2006) suggests, moreover, that the content and aim of collaboration needs to be elucidated. Even though collaboration is stated to contribute to professional development and school improvement, this is not always the case, as the collaboration often seems to address “how-to-questions” in relation to classroom management and pedagogical skills instead of underlying and deeper beliefs. Only addressing more superficial questions contributes rather to conservative or reactionary professionalism than development. Indeed, organisational culture has been found to have a conservative effect on new teachers. Cheng and Pang (1997) refer to studies reporting on a shift from a liberal to a more traditional view of teaching and education (less creative and more filled with routines and rules) amongst new teachers during their first years. This is also supported in a recent dissertation from Finland (Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2011; see also Flores & Day, 2006). New teachers’ ideal ambitions are not realistic to carry through, as their fresh ideas and knowledge from their recent teacher education tend to meet with resistance in the more traditional school environment. Furthermore, Bramald, Hardman and Leat (1995) found that without enough time for reflection, new teachers tend instinctively to react in accordance with those models they have gained during their own schooldays when they meet with situations to which they need to react or respond immediately. Thus, in these situations the teachers tend to act in a more traditional and conservative manner than they themselves usually would want to (cf. teacher socialisation in 2.1).

The literature seems to present an imbalance between teacher collaboration and autonomy as there is a tendency to regard individual work in a negative manner and collaboration overwhelmingly positively. According to Kelchtermans (2006), a balancing of both autonomy and collegiality or collaboration results in the best outcomes. Especially in times of intensification, teacher collaboration may contribute to an increased work load, resulting in even more stress and burnout. Positive collegial relationships contribute above all to higher job satisfaction and commitment. However, close personal ties among members are not always necessarily solely positive, as friendship also may avoid more threatening and conflicting areas and thereby hinder development and change (ibid.).

Besides taking a cultural perspective on interpersonal relationships in schools, it is also possible to study it from a *micro-political perspective* (cf. Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002; Salo, 2002). From this viewpoint, other aspects are in focus, such as individual differences, diversity concerning goal and interests, conflicts and power relationships. These come into play especially in connection to subcultures. Hargreaves (1998) calls corresponding cultures balkanised culture and Gholami (2009) particularity (cf. study II). A school characterised in this way consists of separate groups of teachers who often compete with one another for position and benefits (dominance). Conflicts are a natural part of all communities, but the challenge, according to Kelchtermans (2006, 233), is, however, to find a balance between: “[...] maintaining the interpersonal ties and connectedness in a caring community, while on the other hand sustaining the

constructive controversy (in which differences in opinion and beliefs can arise) that is necessary for authentic professional learning”.

Finally, the leadership and administrative support at school have been found to play a key role in school cultures and have a major impact on new teachers' well-being and retention (cf. Boyd, Grossman, Ing, Lankford, Loeb & Wyckoff, 2011; Devos et al., 2012). However, school leaders do not have the entire responsibility alone as everyone involved shares the responsibility for how the culture is developed (Jarzabkowski, 2002). Rots et al. (2012) found that the impact of significant others, i.e. principals, colleagues and pupils, acts as kind of double-edged sword contributing to necessary recognition, but at the same time also to self-doubts and loss of job motivation. Even though their study focused on student teachers, one can assume that similar processes are connected to NQTs during induction.

2.3 New teachers' experiences

How the previously discussed socialisation process into the profession and the social working environment during the first years are experienced by new teachers is very individual. The picture is complex since new teachers' experiences spring from a multifaceted interaction of personal and situational factors (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Riggs & Sandlin, 2007). Some aspects have already been highlighted in the preceding sections, but will be additionally examined below. As can be seen, the international research literature tends to more often bring forth teachers' negative experiences than positive ones (cf. study II).

Classroom management (or behavioural management / discipline) is frequently ranked as one of the major problems new teachers face during their first years of teaching. This is noted already in the pivotal work of Veenman (1984), and the trend seems to be consistent in a lot of later studies as well (e.g. Eisenschmidt, Heikkinen & Klages, 2008; Fransson, 2001; McCormack & Thomas, 2003; Paulin, 2007; Romano, 2008; Romano & Gibson, 2006; Wideen et al., 1998). For instance, in the recent OECD report by Jensen et al. (2012), 18 percent of new teachers' time in classroom was spent on classroom management compared to 13 percent of more experienced teachers. Significantly poorer levels of classroom climate were also reported amongst NQTs. However, as much as behavioural management can cause trouble, it can also contribute to feelings of triumph, especially when finally succeeding after considerable struggle. In Romano's studies of NQTs (2008; 2006), the largest number of successes were related precisely to classroom management, content and pedagogy as well as personal issues. Hebert and Worthy (2001) similarly found in their case study that success mainly derived from successful behaviour management and assimilation into the school culture. *Perceptions of achievement and change* or sensing personal development within the profession, may thus afford great satisfaction, especially in terms of surviving the first year of teaching. Encouraging and positive comments from colleagues, pupils and parents contribute to these experiences (cf. Hobson et al., 2007; McCormack & Thomas, 2003).

One pronounced difference between being a student teacher and a full-fledged teacher is the sole responsibility for a class full of pupils. This might be experienced as very frightening in the beginning, but also rewarding in a sense, as the teachers finally can realise all their intended plans on their own. The study conducted by Hobson et al. (2007) confirms that NQTs experience satisfaction when this sense of *teacher autonomy* develops. The teachers highlight the importance of having their own pupils, classroom and routines and to gradually become more flexible in their teaching planning. Webb et al. (2004) and Flores and Day (2006) are other researchers reporting *professional freedom* as being positive factors influencing teachers to stay in the profession. Especially in Finland professional autonomy is highly appreciated and a key factor in attracting as well as keeping teachers in the profession (Sahlberg, 2011).

As outlined in the third study (article III) and in the preceding sub-chapter (2.2), the social responsibilities of a teacher's work are constantly increasing and recent research reveals that *relationships* define NQTs' first work experiences. Challenging relationships with pupils and their parents and/or with colleagues are ranked as one of the highest negative experiences amongst NQTs (e.g. Day, 2008; Fransson & Gustafsson, 2008; Hobson et al., 2007; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). The new teachers feel inadequate when they experience that they cannot find enough time for every pupil. Disturbing and aggressive pupil behaviour leaves feelings of guilt, helplessness and sadness if the teachers experience that they can do little or nothing about these problems; this pertains especially to problems that the children experience in their own home (Eisenschmidt et al., 2008; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Webb et al., 2004). Laakso (2007b), for instance, points out pupils' increased restlessness and violence as a reason for new teachers' desire to change profession in Finland. In her dissertation, Blomberg (2008a), found heterogeneity in the classroom, rather than the size of the class, to be a major challenge for new teachers. Accordingly, the overwhelming demands of caring may result in a need to create boundaries in order to protect against burnout (Hargreaves, 1998, 2000, 2001).

NQTs express tensions also in their relationships with more experienced teachers, often regarding their deprecation of the new teachers' ideas and opinions (McCormack & Thomas, 2003). According to Hargreaves (1998, 2001), anxiety, frustration, anger and guilt result from the great moral distance between teachers and others. Strong feelings occur when teachers' competence and expertise are being questioned or criticised by others, for instance by parents (cf. Blomberg, 2008b; Eisenschmidt et al., 2008). An article in a Finnish newspaper (Gestrin-Hagner, 2008) reports as well, that the county administrative board in Finland have received noticeable more complaints from parents over the last five years. The parents may complain when they consider that the teacher is not professional enough or when their children, in their opinion, are treated in the wrong way. The most complicated situations are when the health and social authorities are involved besides the school. Webb et al. (2004) confirm increasing difficulties in parental relations in their study. According to them, parents nowadays are more critical towards the work in school and have greater expectations of the teachers' responsibilities.

It is interesting, however, that although continual negative strains from relationships are experienced by NQTs, satisfaction and joy are experienced in equal measure as well. Both relationships to pupils and colleagues are mentioned, but many NQTs' positive experiences concern, above all, the emotional bond or rapport with their pupils, especially pupil success, i.e., being part of pupils' learning and development as a result of the teachers' own commitment and effort (e.g. Aspfors, 2010). Flores and Day (2006, 220–221) refer to positive emotions such as love, care, job satisfaction, joy, pride, excitement and delight with the pupils' development. Events that motivate new teachers on a day-to-day basis are grounded in their reasons for becoming teachers in the first place, i.e. “making a difference”.

Positive relationships with individual colleagues or groups of colleagues are often mentioned as well, in particular, when close collaboration is functioning well and the new teachers experience *support* from them (cf. Flores & Day, 2006; Hargreaves, 1998, 2000; Hobson et al., 2007; Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007; McCormack & Thomas, 2003; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). The significance of support from a mentor is well documented in the literature (Huling-Austin, 1992). Webb et al. (2004) report when comparing English and Finnish teachers' conception of the teaching profession, commitment and the enjoyment of working with children, and supportive colleagues as being the positive factors that influence teachers in deciding to stay in the profession. Correspondingly *lack of support* is a common area of reported dissatisfaction (Flores & Day, 2006; Lang, 1999; McCormack & Thomas, 2003).

Experiences of a too *stressful and heavy workload* have been found to be a key reason why new teachers leave the profession (cf. Blomberg, 2008b; Flores & Day, 2006; Hobson et al., 2007; Huling-Austin, 1992; Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007; Lang, 1999; Webb et al., 2004). Many researchers state that NQTs start their teaching career with a more difficult and heavy workload than their more experienced colleagues by being assigned the most challenging classes, including pupils with disturbing and behavioural difficulties, or fields / tasks which they are not qualified for. This has traditionally been the common practice of, in a way, recompensing experienced teachers, who have “earned” the best courses and pupils. Moreover, new teachers are in most cases expected to perform equally as well as their experienced colleagues, regardless of the many new elements in the profession, i.e. pupils, curriculum and school culture. Consequently, there are as many extracurricular responsibilities to undertake for the new teachers as for the more experienced. In addition to this, new teachers generally want to perform well, which is why it might be difficult for them to decline the assigned tasks (Britton, Raizen, Paine & Huntley, 2000; Howe, 2006; McCormack & Thomas, 2003; Riggs & Sandlin, 2007; Wanzare, 2007). A recent OECD report examining the experiences of NQTs in 23 countries, nevertheless, does not support the statement that new teachers would work in harder conditions or more challenging schools than more experienced teachers (Jensen et al., 2012).

Kyriacou and Kunc (2007) also refer to *low salary* and *low status* of the teaching profession as reasons why new teachers leave. Webb et al. (2004), found similar factors in their study. They found that low pay and a decline in public respect

discourages teachers to stay in the profession. Especially the Finnish teachers pointed out low salary as the largest demotivating factor for remaining in teaching. This is confirmed also in a media survey, where 60 percent of the teachers considered low pay as an explanation for the teacher shortage in Finland (Laaksola, 2000). The diminished status of the profession and a decrease in public respect, particularly parents interfering, were additional factors which concerned the teachers, according to Webb et al. (ibid.).

Other identified *areas of concern* mentioned in the literature are, for example, the poor literacy and numeracy skills of pupils, non-existent provision for training and development, the large amount of paperwork, the challenge of meeting the needs of and motivating all the pupils in their classes, stress management and maintaining of self-esteem, and lack of resources at school (cf. Fransson & Gustafsson, 2008; Lang, 1999; McCormack & Thomas, 2003). As a result, resourcing and financial constraint seemed to be another area of concern and difficulty for new teachers. Conversely, satisfying factors in the study by McCormack & Thomas (2003) were strong leadership at school, the school approach, small class sizes and access to good resources.

The first years of teaching are accordingly an emotionally intense period. Flores and Day (2006) report frequent emotions such as vulnerability, professional uncertainty, confusion, inadequacy, anxiety, feelings of humiliation and doubt, as well as frustration, anger and stress. One contributing reason may be the new teachers' own developmental phase, where many move to other districts to find a job, have to break up from families and friends, while at the same time starting to build their own family. To work full time, with all its responsibilities, after having a large amount of freedom during the study period may in itself be overwhelming. Eisenschmidt et al. (2008) emphasise therefore the importance of preparing student teachers for the difficulties they may perceive as newly qualified, since it can enable them to understand that these challenges are a natural part of the professional development process rather than individual failings. This will be outlined in the next section.

2.4 New teachers' professional development

Besides viewing induction as a socialisation process into the profession (2.1) and specific social working environments or school cultures (2.2) contributing to overwhelming experiences (2.3), researchers have also recognised the first period in the profession as a unique developmental phase in need of special attention. The amount of research within this area is comprehensive and the interest in new teachers' experiences can be traced back already to Fuller's (1969) classic stage theory, where teacher development is identified through a three-stage model of teacher concerns. This chronological and accumulative stage model consists of *self concerns* (concerns in relation to survival as teachers), *task concerns* (performance as teachers) and *impact concerns* (influence on their pupils). Accordingly, when teachers start their career they are mostly concerned with themselves. They are, in other words, self-oriented as their attention is turned inward. As they become more experienced, they turn their attention outward to instructional techniques and pupils' progress.

According to Conway and Clark (2003) the impact of Fuller's classic developmental model has been huge, and several other stage theories have followed. For instance, Berliner's five stage model of teacher development (1988, see also 1986), which focuses on underlying cognitions behind teachers' behaviours. The first two stages concern explicitly *the novice teacher*, who learns classroom behaviour, tasks and rules, and *the advanced beginner* after two to three years in the profession. Another well-known model is Kagan's (1992). From a review of 40 learning-to-teach studies concerning student teachers and NQTs between 1987 and 1991, she found most of them to be in line with the previous stage theories or developmental models of Fuller and Berliner. She therefore proposed a model which integrates and improves the features of these two models and consists of five components: 1) *an increase in metacognition* (a growing awareness of own knowledge and change of knowledge), 2) *an acquisition of knowledge about pupils* (idealised and wrong assumptions of pupils are rebuilt and used in constructing the image of the self as teacher), 3) *a shift in attention* (from self towards pupil's learning), 4) *development of standard procedures* (teaching skills become more and more a matter of routine and automation) and 5) *growth in problem-solving skills* (becoming more differentiated, multidimensional and context specific).

However, later studies challenge the accuracy of the widely cited model of Fuller. As a result, *alternative approaches to learning to teach* started to emerge. For instance, Conway and Clark (2003) re-examined Fuller's study and found that new teachers develop both in an outward-oriented pattern, in line with Fuller's study, but also in an inward-oriented pattern which means focusing on survival and development of the self. The reason for this result may simply be an emphasis on reflection in later teacher education programmes than in the programmes of 30 years ago. Conway and Clark (ibid.) also believe that the organisation and context influence a great deal teachers' learning and development. Another study which challenges this concept of progress through stages is that of Pigge and Marso (1997). They examined during a seven year longitudinal study, from the beginning of teacher education into the early years of teaching, 60 teachers' self, impact and task concerns based on Fuller's model. The study shows that developmental changes in teachers' concerns about teaching do occur, but the pattern of change differs from individual to individual. Thus, teaching concerns do not follow a lock-step model and as a result are not linear.

Especially three contributions during the 1980s have been particularly comprehensive: those of Michael Huberman (Switzerland), Ralf Fessler (US) and Patricia Sikes (UK). Huberman (1989) characterises teachers' professional life cycle from a career perspective. He considers teachers' development to be a process where there are great differences concerning how teachers mature: some early, others later and some never. This process may be linear, but most likely consists of plateaus, regressions, dead-ends, spurts and discontinuities. In his study of Swiss secondary school teachers with between 5 and 39 years of experience, he found three main career phases. In the first phase he divides teachers into the dichotomy *easy beginnings* versus *painful beginnings*, where

new teachers either have a successful start in their teaching and relationships with pupils or a more problematic one.

Fessler's contribution (see Fessler & Christensen, 1992), is a dynamic model of teacher career cycle consisting of eight career stages: 1) *pre-service*, 2) *induction*, 3) *competency building*, 4) *enthusiasm and growth*, 5) *career frustration*, 6) *career stability*, 7) *career wind-down* and 8) *career exit* (cf. also study II). These should not be regarded as linear, but instead influenced by external factors such as personal and organisational environment. Therefore, teachers will drift up and down between the stages during their career. Nevertheless, the second stage is recognised as an induction phase where the teacher is socialised into the school system. Especially in focus in this phase is gaining the respect of pupils and colleagues and becoming familiar with classroom routines.

Sikes, Measor & Woods (1985) have likewise developed a theory consisting of five phases, *the life cycle of the teacher*, but they link it to the broader life cycle of human beings, with special focus on age and gender. The first phase concerns teachers between the ages of 21 and 28 and focuses precisely on *entering the adult world*. In line with others, for instance Huberman, Sikes et al. (ibid.) describe many teachers' experiences of reality shock when entering the teaching profession. They also find that new teachers usually do not have any long-term plans for their careers.

Except for those mentioned above, most studies of teachers' working lives have been small-scale, either having a biographical approach or being focused on particular issues such as teacher retention (cf. Rolls & Plauborg, 2009). A later contribution is, however, one exception. Day (2008) outlined, in an extensive study of variations in teachers' professional lives in England, also six professional life phases. The phases, which build on the above study by Huberman, start with *commitment: support and challenge* the first three years of teaching. As the first phase implicates, the new teachers have high commitment, but the success very much depends on the support school leaders provide. Poor pupil behaviour had a negative impact on teachers' efficacy.

Even though there are some differences between the theories regarding how the first years in the profession are conceptualised, there is also agreement that this period is especially vulnerable (cf. Eisenschmidt et al., 2008; Kelchtermans, 1996), representing a critical period of survival and discovery, learning and development (Fransson & Gustafsson, 2008). Therefore, the question of support has been highlighted in the literature, which will be focused on and further outlined in the next section.

2.5 Induction and mentoring

Besides considering *induction* as a specific period of socialisation, experience and development as outlined above, induction can also be viewed as the measures to support new teachers during this time. During the past decades the mentoring of teachers has become an increasingly powerful tool for facilitating the transition from teacher education to work and supporting the early years of

professional development (Hobson et al., 2009). According to Langdon (2007), teacher quality, recruitment, retention and induction have received renewed attention during the past decade both in research as well as in policy documents. The United States and New Zealand can be seen as pioneers as their attempts with mentoring started already in the 1970s, although the activities did not increase in extent until the 1990s. Since the 1980s interest in supporting new teachers has increased all over the world. This has, however, been more limited in the Nordic and Baltic countries and research interest has not increased until more recently, in Finland not until the beginning of the 2000s (Britton, 2003; Fransson & Gustafsson, 2008; Ganser, 2003; Morberg & Gustafsson, 2007).

Several reasons behind the popularity of mentoring can be identified. Some are characterised to be educational policy reasons, as mentoring has been used to counteract teacher shortage, to promote retention in the profession when dropout rates and the number of teachers on sick leave have increased, as well as to compensate and reward experienced teachers in becoming mentors. Other reasons can be found in the enhanced amount of research and theorising about mentoring and teacher development, especially during recent years, which has contributed to an understanding about new teachers' need for support during the first years of teaching. Also efforts to surmount the theory-practice dilemma can be traced behind mentoring programmes as well as a distrust towards teacher education (Fransson & Gustafsson, 2008; Hobson et al., 2009).

Mentoring, as a concept, originates from ancient Greece, where Mentor, a friend of Odysseus, acted as a wise advisor to Odysseus' son Telemachos (Online Etymology Dictionary). Mentoring is thus an old phenomenon and refers originally to the counselling and support a less experienced person receives from a more experienced one in order to stimulate professional growth (see a historical overview in Lindgren, 2000). As outlined in the fourth study (article IV) there seems, however, to recently have been a shift in the literature on mentoring, from a one-way undertaking towards a more reciprocal relationship between colleagues¹⁸. Mentoring is increasingly regarded as a dialogue, a reciprocal exchange of thoughts and a mutual creation of knowledge where everyone taking part learns together. This reflects the general transition towards social constructivist assumptions about knowledge and learning¹⁹ (see also Heikkinen, Jokinen & Tynjälä, 2008). Hence, mentoring is a win-win situation from which both the NQT and the mentor may benefit.

As further outlined in the study (article IV) no formal mentoring or induction programmes have yet been established in Finland. The experiences of mentoring derive to a large extent from three mentoring projects in the regions of Kokkola,

¹⁸ Concepts that Heikkinen, Jokinen and Tynjälä (2008) found in their review to reflect this new approach of mentoring are *co-mentoring*, *mutual mentoring*, *collaborative mentoring*, *peer collaboration*, *critical constructivist mentoring*, *dialogic mentoring*, *reciprocal mentoring*, *peer mentoring* and *peer group mentoring*.

¹⁹ For a more elaborated overview of perspectives underpinning mentoring see Wang and Odell's (2002) outlined perspectives *humanistic*, *situated apprentice* and *critical constructivist*.

Helsinki and Jyväskylä from 2003 onwards²⁰. However, on the basis of these pilot projects, coordinated and carried out by the Finnish Institute for Educational Research at the University of Jyväskylä, *peer-group mentoring* has been disseminated throughout Finland by means of a national network for teacher induction called ‘Osaava Verme’. The mentoring project is mostly realised at a municipality level but funded by the Ministry of Education and Culture 2010–2016 and supported by a network of teacher education institutions, i.e. all the teacher education departments of universities and all vocational teacher education institutions. The national approach is thus based on peer-group mentoring, even though there are still some local one-to-one mentoring projects in Finland. The foundation for this mentoring approach rests on the same assumptions described above, i.e. dialogue and equality as well as integration of formal, informal and non-formal learning (Heikkinen et al., 2012)²¹.

However, at the same time another contradictory trend can be identified in mentoring that includes elements of assessment and control of teachers. Many induction programmes function as both support programmes and programmes for full teacher certification. Often standard or criteria-based evaluations are then used. Internationally these can be found in for example England, Scotland, Wales and New Zealand. However, this can contribute to an unfortunate situation where mentors are forced to take on two roles, both to assist and assess NQTs. This has been questioned by many researchers (e.g. Fransson, 2010; Jones, 2006).

The conceptualisation of mentoring is therefore still vague and diffuse. The rapid development and the popularity of mentoring have not contributed to the same progress in specifying its terminology (Sundli, 2007). As stated previously, mentoring and induction are often, in a misleading way, used interchangeably in the literature, as mentoring for the most part is the main support strategy within induction programmes. Induction should, however, be considered as an overall term, as induction programmes can include many different forms of support besides mentoring; workshops, seminars, classroom observations and professional collaboration (cf. Jensen et al., 2012).

High and low intensity programmes

One way to classify induction programmes is to discriminate between high-intensity and low-intensity programmes (Bjerkeholt & Hedegaard, 2008; OECD, 2005). *High-intensity induction programmes* characterise those which include various systematised forms of support activities for NQTs’ professional growth during a longer period of time (often one to two years). Ingersoll and Smith

²⁰ For a description of the mentoring projects carried out (paired mentoring, group mentoring and peer mentoring) in Finland see, for instance, Jokinen, Morberg, Poom-Valickis and Rohtma (2008).

²¹ For more information about the ‘Osaava Verme’ network and peer-group mentoring in Finland, see Heikkinen, Jokinen, Markkanen & Tynjälä (2012; in Finnish), Aspfors & Hansén (2011; in Swedish) and Heikkinen, Jokinen & Tynjälä (2012; in English).

(2004) reveal in their study that induction programmes with eight components²² are the most effective. Mentoring with trained mentors is one element included, in addition to other components such as release time for new teachers and/or mentors. Several countries can, according to the international research literature, be characterised as having high-intensity induction programmes; for instance, New Zealand, Scotland, Japan, China, Switzerland and France (cf. Britton et al., 2000; Lee & Feng, 2007; Howe, 2006; Wong, Britton & Ganser, 2005).

Wong et al. (2005) identified three common denominators of successful high-intensity induction programmes in the countries mentioned above. The first one was the significant degree of structure, the second was the focus on professional learning, and the third an emphasis on collaboration. These characteristics of programmes differed remarkably from those in, for instance, the USA. Generally, Britton et al. (2000) point out that these countries encompass a culture of support for NQTs and extend support to more than one year. This is probably an essential reason for their success and why these countries are representatives of high-intensity induction programmes.

Low-intensity induction programmes offer less formal support for NQTs for a shorter period of time, usually only at the beginning of the school year. This kind of support is more loosely organised and includes more practical information than actual support for professional development (cf. Bjerkeholt & Hedegaard, 2008). McCormack and Thomas (2003) found that only 64 percent of the NQTs participating in their study had access to the induction resources developed in New South Wales, Australia. Not all new teachers obtain access to induction, as many work as substitute teachers with short-term contracts during the first years (Abbott, Moran & Clarke, 2009).

There are also variations concerning where the responsibility for supporting NQTs in different countries are placed. In some countries, such as New Zealand and Estonia, there is a national approach to implementing induction. In Estonia the Ministry of Education and Research has overall responsibility for coordination, which is why it can be labelled a centralised strategy. Estonia is a good example of where national priorities contribute to national results. Even though the state budget is considerable lower than in, for example, the Nordic countries in general, high priority has been given to induction (cf. Eisenschmidt, Poom-Valickis & Kärner, 2011). The Nordic countries, including Finland, Norway and Sweden, have just recently moved from decentralised systems towards more centralised ones. One exception is Denmark, which still can be regarded as highly decentralised, where the support basically differs from one municipality to another²³ (cf. Bjerkholt & Hedegaard, 2008).

²² 1) A mentor from the same field, 2) common planning time with other teachers in the subject area, 3) regularly scheduled collaboration with other teachers on issues of instruction, 4) participation in an induction programme, 5) participation in seminars for new teachers, 6) regular or supportive communication with principal, other administrators or departmental chair, 7) participation in external networks, 8) a reduced amount of course preparation.

²³ See an overview in the presentation *Supporting early career teachers: Practice architectures of teacher induction in Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Norway and Sweden* at

Essential features of induction

Some features emerge from the research literature as being particularly necessary for successful induction programmes. The first one is the *contextual support* surrounding the support programmes (see also section 2.2). Martinez (cited in McCormack & Thomas, 2003) highlights the importance of contextual aspects when stating that as long as “beginning teachers continue to be placed in settings loaded with difficulties, no amount of resourcing or induction programmes will be able to redress such impossible contextual givens” (p. 135). Riggs and Sandlin (2007, 318) assert also that ultimately the organisational context has a larger impact on teacher dropout than support programmes. Studies they refer to reveal that “improvements in organisational contexts will contribute to lower rates of teacher turnover” (p. 319) and that “novice teachers are more vulnerable to the school’s situational context, whereas experienced teachers are more resilient” (p. 320). The dilemma, accordingly, is that induction programmes have been developed in order to support new teachers to overcome “reality shock” instead of focusing on and improving the complex organisational context where teachers work.

The overall professional culture in schools has, thus, a strong influence not only on new teachers (as stated earlier), but also on the success of mentoring. Hence, the impact of norms and values are strong (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000; Jokinen et al., 2008). One risk is therefore that mentoring programmes promote the reproduction of prevalent norms and practices. This is, according to Feiman-Nemser (1996), not surprising as teaching is a lonely profession with few opportunities for interaction between teachers. For mentoring to contribute to the kind of learning in demand in the 21st century, new teachers need to be placed with mentors who already are innovators in these questions.

Support received from peers, i.e. other new teachers, is also essential in the beginning. Several studies (Abbott et al., 2009; Aspfors, Hansén & Heikkinen, 2011; Britton et al., 2000; McCormack & Thomas, 2003) acknowledge the need to offer enough possibilities for new teachers to come together and discuss their experiences. Informal support is highly appreciated both by mentors and NQTs, especially for the latter to know that they are not alone in experiencing difficulties. Jensen et al. (2012) also highlight the significance of appraisal and feedback of new teachers’ work. This is emphasised also in the third study (article III).

The support programmes will produce few results if the surrounding context and resources are not functioning adequately, such as the fundamental approach of the municipality, support of principals, sufficient funding, enough staff resources, an encouraging environment, good coordination and cooperation with unions (cf. Aspfors & Hansén, 2011b; Whisnant et al., 2005). Feiman-Nemser (1996), for example, points out the question of time for the task. This is vital in the increasingly complex everyday life of schools. Different approaches can be found in the literature; some engage retired teachers, some arrange a reduced

the NFPF conference in Jyväskylä, Finland, 2011; <http://ktl.jyu.fi/img/portal/19869/NERA2011Symposium120311.pdf?cs=1299851557>

teaching load for mentors and NQTs, while others expect the mentors to accomplish both full-time teaching and mentoring.

Another essential feature of effective induction programmes is the *selection of mentors* and *pairing of mentors and new teachers*. The latter is especially significant in one-to-one mentoring. The mentor needs in general to be supportive, accessible, non-judgemental, reliable, a good listener, have a positive manner as well as be interested in NQTs' learning and development. It is important to remember that good teaching skills are not necessarily equal to good skills in mentoring (Hobson et al., 2009; McCormack & Thomas, 2003). Furthermore, the mentor needs to be flexible and offer support in line with those concerns and needs the new teacher actually has. It is also essential that the mentor, as well as being supportive, can make the new teacher feel welcome, accepted and included. Especially group mentoring places particular demands on the mentor of being a discussion leader, maintain a balance and ensure that every member has enough time to express him/herself. Knowledge about group processes thus facilitates the work of the mentor. Accordingly, mentors cannot only be selected on the basis of their professional skills as teachers, but also their interpersonal and supervision skills are equally important (cf. Aspfors & Hansén, 2011b; Jokinen et al., 2008). Moreover, personal chemistry as well as ethical principles or agreements need to be considered (Lindgren, 2000).

Mentoring strategies, or the way mentoring is realised, are an additional crucial factor. According to Hobson et al. (2009) discussions around goals and conceptions of teaching should take place as early as possible. Effective mentoring strategies include emotional and psychological support, enough challenges and time for meetings, lesson observations and respect for teacher autonomy.

One aspect increasingly highlighted in the research literature is the need for *education and support for mentors*. New teachers' experiences of induction programmes are generally directly related to the efficiency of their mentors. According to the OECD (2005), only a few countries provide mentor education and it is surprising that some countries with the most structured induction systems still have not formalised their mentor education. In Finland, all mentors participating in the Finnish network for teacher induction 'Osaava Verme' receive mentor education. Although a lot of countries still lack mentor education, this is starting to change as more attention is drawn to its significance (Hobson et al., 2009; Howe, 2006). Furthermore, it is vital that mentors receive continuous support. Some researchers even propose that mentors deserve the same kind of support that new teachers receive (Whisnant et al., 2005).

Impact of induction and mentoring

According to the research of recent years, mentoring seems to have become a trend and the latest catchphrase in education (Sundli, 2007). Although there seem to be many studies supporting the positive effects of such programmes, some researchers also point to deficiencies in the existing research (cf. Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Langdon, 2007). Critics maintain that many studies are small-scale case studies, which lack control groups and do not take into consideration

other possible influencing factors, which is why it is difficult to evaluate the outcome of the programmes (cf. Feiman-Nemser, 1996; Howe, 2006; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Langdon, 2007; Whisnant et al., 2005).

One exception is Ingersoll and Strong's (2011) critical research review of the impact of induction and mentoring. According to the authors, there seems to be enough overall evidence of a positive impact in three specific areas: 1) *teacher retention* (higher satisfaction and commitment), 2) *teacher classroom instructional practices* (e.g. teaching, planning and classroom management), and 3) *pupil achievements* (higher scores in student achievement tests).

In a previous study, Ingersoll and Kralik (2004) confirm that 92 percent of mentored teachers remained in teaching after two years compared with 73 percent of non-mentored ones, and 100 percent of mentored teachers remained in post during a third year compared to 70 percent of non-mentored ones. Another benefit of mentoring and induction would thus be the reduction of costs due to dropout. Johnson et al. (2005) have identified three different kinds of costs: instructional, organisational and financial. *Instructional costs* refer to the loss of competence due to teacher turnover, which in turn affect pupils' achievement in school. Research suggests that it is often the most talented teachers who leave the profession (Rots et al., 2007). *Organisational costs* are the overall price the members of the school community have to pay when new professional relationships and routines need to be re-established due to teacher turnover. *Financial costs* are perhaps the most difficult ones to measure. One estimation is that the rate for recruiting, hiring and training a new teacher is 30 percent of the teacher's salary. Whisnant et al. (2005) give one example of the costs in the state of Washington, USA. The costs of teachers leaving the profession is approximately 21 million dollars every year, while the cost of offering the same amount of teachers a high quality induction programme is merely about 1,75 million dollars.

From the NQTs' perspective, the most important probable outcome of mentoring is that the transition from being a student teacher to becoming a full-fledged teacher is facilitated. Mentoring contributes to fewer feelings of isolation, improved job-satisfaction, amplified self-confidence, professional growth, enhanced self-reflection and problem-solving capacities. Mentoring thus provides personal and professional support, as well as emotional and psychological support (Aspfors et al., 2011; Hobson et al., 2009; Howe, 2006).

In line with Ingersoll and Strong's (2011) second area of positive impact (teacher classroom instructional practices), Cameron, Dingle and Brooking (2007) imply that induction not only influences teacher retention but also the quality of teaching. Development of behaviour and classroom management skills and the capacity to manage time and workloads are examples of the areas facilitated (cf. Hobson et al., 2009; Howe, 2006). Nevertheless, Jensen et al. (2012) raise concern about the fact that mentoring and induction in their large scale study did not increase the feedback given to new teachers. Accordingly, NQTs working in schools with mentoring were not significantly more likely to receive feedback than their colleagues in schools with no support programmes.

In view of this, it would appear that the influence of mentoring and induction on NQTs' effectiveness in terms of teaching and learning is not optimal.

Schön (2007, 40) has for a long time highlighted “reflection in and on action”, as a powerful tool for developing and changing work practices. Recent studies also emphasise reflection as a key activity for developing teaching practice (Postholm, 2008). Mentoring has also been found to have positive effects on teaching staff as a whole, since it can promote new forms of collaboration and develop common thinking about teaching. Questions that in hectic everyday life might remain unreflected upon can be discussed together (cf. Jokinen et al., 2008; Lindgren, 2007). At the same time, studies in Finland indicate that the influence of peer-group mentoring on the working environment is still of a more indirect character (Aspfors & Hansén, 2011b).

Ingersoll and Strong's (2011) third stated positive outcome of induction, namely higher pupil achievement, receives support in several studies. Schools with a high degree of teacher turnover, unqualified teaching staff and/or where teachers are forced to teach subjects they are not qualified to teach influence negatively on pupil outcomes. Often, new teachers in low socio-economic schools receive less support than their counterparts in high-economic schools. Another disparity in the USA is the fact that the teaching workforce to a high extent is white, monolingual and middle class, while the population of pupils increasingly is racially and culturally diverse (Whisnant et al., 2005; Wideen et al., 1998). Compared to the USA, the educational context of Finland is more homogeneous.

Ingersoll and Strong (2011) identify still a lack of research on mentoring and induction: what kind of support that works best and why (content of induction), how long and intense the support needs to be (duration and intensity), what is most cost-effective, and finally how much the context influences. In addition to this, Hobson et al. (2009) have in their review highlighted missing or incomplete research on the effects of mentor education on mentors' and NQTs' learning and development, the collaborative aspect on mentoring, and the role of assessment in mentoring.

2.6 Induction through the lens of practice theory

In the preceding sections, five research lines defining induction and brought forward in the separate studies (I–IV), were presented. These lines of research are practical, situated and in close connection to the reality of NQTs. But in order to better understand the experiences of NQTs and the practices they work and act in, a more comprehensive theoretical framework is needed. In this section, an attempt is therefore made to unite the previous lines or threads into a *practice theory* in order to explicate the practices of NQTs on a more abstract level. This is essential as practices, paradoxically, seem to be invisible and tacit even though we live and act directly in them. Therefore, a systematic framework and terminology is necessary in order to capture the implicit beyond the surface and to deepen and expand the knowledge.

The first part will briefly examine the background of the concept *practice* as well as *theories of practice*, whereas the second part will draw on the theory of

practice architectures developed by Kemmis and Grootenboer (2008). This theory has recently been developed in the field of teacher induction (see Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2012), and even though it is still in a preliminary stage it has been adapted to the educational conditions in Finland. Therefore, it provides a useful framework to build on in this thesis. The theory will be used in order to unite the previously presented five lines of research (grounded in the four studies) in an attempt to better understand NQTs' experiences of their first years in the profession. This is to shed light on the relevant concepts used, and the activities and actions and relationships between people and organisations involved. Hence, how NQTs are formed culturally-discursively, materially-economically and socially-politically in three spaces: *semantic space*, *physical space-time* and *social space*.

Practice and theories of practice

What first usually comes to the mind when talking about *practice* is that it concerns some sort of activity or “the act of doing something”, as Smith (1999/2011) puts it. Or if referring to the school world: “what teachers do in meeting the tasks and demands confronting them in their everyday work” (Carr & Kemmis, 1986, 2). Practice is from this perspective the performing or exercising of a profession (cf. Oxford English Dictionary). But it can also refer to an occupation or field of activity or a learning method for improving competence or skills (Corradi, Gherardi & Verzelloni, 2008). Shortly and simply described, ‘*in practice*’ is then the site or place where people meet, act and interact with one another (cf. Schatzki, 2002). Practices are, thus, descriptive of fundamental phenomena in society and have been used by philosophers and sociologists, amongst others (Corradi, Gherardi & Verzelloni, 2010; Schatzki, 2001). Hence, practice has through the history of man constituted the essence of the existence.

One common way of understanding or describing practice is to distinguish it from theory. In general, theory is used as an opposite pole to practice, where theory is viewed as “real” knowledge in contrast to practice, which applies this knowledge to solve problems. The term is also well-known and slightly clichéd in education as it is frequently used as the opposite to theory when discussing the content in, for instance, teacher education. Theory refers in this sense to courses, i.e. lectures, seminars, assignments, etc., whereas practice represents the work in school and classrooms where teachers and pupils meet (cf. Hansén & Sjöberg, 2011). However, this conception of a distinction or gap between practice and theory has been much criticised. Amongst many others, Carr and Kemmis (1986) strongly suggest that these are inseparable units, as all practices have theories embedded in them, and all theories are practical undertakings. Today, this is reflected in concepts like *practitioner inquiry*, *practitioner research*, *reflective-practitioner* or *teacher as researcher* (cf. Hansén & Sjöberg, 2011).

The discussion about theory and practice can largely be derived from Aristotle and his classifications of disciplines as *theoretical*, *productive* or *practical*, where the corresponding Greek words are expressed as *episteme*, *techne* or

phronesis²⁴. *Episteme* refers to knowledge or scientific knowledge and can be recognised today in the concepts ‘epistemology’ and ‘epistemic’. In this theoretical activity, ‘thinking’ or contemplation is central. *Techne* is usually translated as craft or art. In this productive discipline ‘making’ or production is essential. Today, the original word becomes visible in ‘technique’, ‘technical’ and ‘technology’. *Phronesis* is about ethics and emphasises practical wisdom and practical ethics. It is thus oriented towards action (cf. Kemmis, 2012; Smith, 1999/2011). This line of reasoning, referring back to Aristotle and ancient Greek, can be denominated a philosophical tradition called *neo-Aristotelianism*. This tradition includes thinkers such as, for instance, Hans-Georg Gadamer and later researchers such as Stephen Kemmis (Green, 2009). The theories of the latter will be further scrutinised shortly.

Practice or praxis²⁵ is the action of people, both individually and collectively. Becoming experienced in praxis is thus about learning from and reflecting on one’s own actions and experiences. As such, NQTs, for example, cannot be prepared for their praxis by knowledge transferred from someone else alone. Instead, they need to experience the praxis themselves, be prepared for uncertainty and be open to experience, as well as to be committed to act for the good. Phronesis is consequently about doing one’s best under uncertain and unpredictable circumstances. In this way, phronesis can only be learned indirectly from others’ and one’s own experiences (Kemmis, 2012).

During the past two decades, Corradi et al. (2010) stress that the concept practice has gained renewed interest as a label for practice-based studies first and foremost in the field of knowledge management and organisation studies, but also in education. Another witness to this new attention to practice is the volume by Schatzki, Knorr Cetina and von Savigny (2001): *The practice turn in contemporary theory*. According to them as well as Corradi et al. (ibid.) and Kemmis and Grootenboer (2008), there is no unified practice theory. Instead, different disciplines have had different approaches, and similarly different

²⁴ The distinction between these concepts is foremost *telos* or purpose (Smith, 1999/2011). Carr and Kemmis (1986, 32) briefly put it this way; “The purpose of a theoretical discipline is the pursuit of truth through contemplation; its *telos* is the attainment of knowledge for its own sake. The purpose of the productive sciences is to make something; their *telos* is the production of some artefact. The practical disciplines are those sciences that deal with ethical and political life; their *telos* is practical wisdom and knowledge”.

²⁵ These concepts are so closely connected and overlapping that it is neither meaningful nor purposeful to make any operationalised distinction between the two in this thesis. Praxis is a Greek word referring to the acting for the good of the human community and to the acting outside of one’s own interests. Praxis can thus be understood as guided by the *telos* of phronesis, the aim of which is to act wisely and prudently. Hence, phronesis cannot be understood without *praxis* (cf. Kemmis, in press; Kemmis, 2012; Smith, 1999/2011).

theorists have focused on practice differently, which has contributed to multiple meanings and interpretations of the concept²⁶.

Corradi et al. (2010) have in their analysis of the concept ‘practice’ in practice-based studies, found altogether seven different labels and understandings of practice in two separate lines. In the first line, where they identify practice as an *empirical object*, they distinguish 1) practice-based standpoint, 2) work-based learning and practice-based learning, and 3) practice ‘as what people do’. In more recent studies they identify a second line, where practice is acknowledged as an epistemology. This line, practice as *a way of seeing*, includes four labels: 1) practice lens and practice-oriented research, 2) knowing in practice, 3) practice-based perspective, and 4) practice-based approaches.

An important contributor to the renewed interest in practice was Lave and Wenger’s (1991) seminal work on apprenticeships and their conceptualisation of *communities of practice* (CoP), later cemented by Wenger (1998). The study also marks a shift concerning the assumption of learning from a cognitive and individual one towards a view of learning as social and situated. According to Wenger (2006), communities of practice are informal, familiar and an integral part of our daily lives, “formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour”. Learning thus takes place in a cultural context, is grounded in sociality among the participants and encompasses processes of *legitimate peripheral participation*²⁷ (see also Corradi et al., 2010; Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008; Postholm, 2003). New teachers are thus gradually learning, developing and constructing their meaning and understanding of their profession, as well as teacher identities, through the participation of communities of practice, in this case the school community.

Practice architectures

Within research on induction, attention has lately been focussed on the theorising of practice in the form of *practice architectures* and *ecologies of practices* developed by Stephen Kemmis as a prominent figure. This theory of practice builds on the practice theory of Theodore Schatzki (1996, 2002) and has been used and developed in Australia in several studies concerning, e.g. educational leadership, professional development, teaching and student learning (see Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008; Kemmis, Hardy, Wilkinson, Edwards-Groves & Lloyd, 2010). Moreover, the theory has been applied in order to better understand the practices of teacher induction in Northern European countries through the network of NQT-COME²⁸, as well as features of mentoring in

²⁶ For a more comprehensive background to practice theory see, for instance, Reckwitz (2002).

²⁷ *Legitimate peripheral participation* means that participants initially join communities and learn at the periphery. Gradually, they become more competent and more involved in the main processes of the community. They thus move from legitimate peripheral participation into full participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

²⁸ NQT-COME was an international Nordplus funded network (2009–12). The aim of the project was to promote professional learning of NQTs in the induction phase through developing systems of support. The network has made use of practice theory in several

Finland within the Finnish network for teacher induction ‘Osaava Verme’ led by University of Jyväskylä (e.g. Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2012; Aspfors et al., 2011). The word architecture has, in addition to referring to the architectural work and design of buildings, also been used in the literature to illustrate conceptual structure and organisation of phenomena in a more metaphorical sense (cf. Oxford English Dictionary). Wenger (1998) has, for example, previously talked about “learning architectures”, whereas Hardy (2010) has expanded the idea of practice architecture to “academic architectures” and Edwards-Groves, Brennan Kemmis, Hardy and Ponte (2010) to “relational architectures”. Similarly, the metaphor of ecology has been used to illustrate the connectedness between practices (Kemmis et al., 2010).

If one follows the understanding of practice theory by Schatzki (2002), practices consist of ‘doings’ and ‘sayings’ that ‘hang together’ in teleo-affective structures. Furthermore, practices are, according to Schatzki (ibid.) the ‘site of the social’ (p. 123), which means that human beings and human lives coexist in *the social* and *sociality*. Indeed, one cannot therefore, according to Reckwitz (2002), talk about “social practices”, as practices already are social and it subsequently would be tautology. Kemmis and Grootenboer (2008) have nevertheless, on the basis of Schatzki’s theory, gone one step further and added ‘relatings’ in their own theory. They want to emphasise the latter, and practices are thus, according to them, organised bundles of ‘sayings’, ‘doings’ and ‘relatings’ that hang together in the project of a practice.

In accordance with Kemmis et al. (2010), practices are embedded in practice architectures. These enable or constrain practices, and their characteristic ‘sayings’, ‘doings’ and ‘relatings’, through already existing, external *cultural-discursive, material-economic* and *social-political* arrangements. Accordingly, practices are not formed solely by the participants, but are “always *situated* in time and space, and unfold in *site ontologies*” (ibid., 3) As a result, practice architectures constitute three overlapping and intertwined spaces: 1) the *semantic space* (sayings), 2) the *physical space-time* (doings), and 3) the *social space* (relatings). In other words, practice architectures give practices like induction *meaning and comprehensibility* through the ‘sayings’ and ‘thinkings’ in the medium of language, its *productiveness* through ‘doings’ in the medium of work or activity, and finally its value in establishing *connectedness and solidarity* (or social differentiation) among the involved people through the ‘relatings’ in the medium of power. Collectively, these ‘hang together’ or are ‘bundled together’ (see Schatzki, 2002) and compose the design of particular practices, for instance induction practices of NQTs. These practices may also be understood as *subpractices* of more comprehensive *metapractices* of education

symposiums: *Research on practices of teacher induction* at the ECER conference in Cádiz 2012; *Practice architectures of teacher induction* at the ECER conference in Berlin 2011; *Supporting early career teachers – Practice architectures of teacher induction in Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Norway and Sweden* at the NFPF conference in Jyväskylä 2011; in the paper presentation by Aspfors, Sundar & Poom-Valickis, *Mentoring as practice in Estonia, Finland and Norway* at the conference Supporting New Teachers in Europe, Tallin 2012. For more information see <http://ktl.jyu.fi/ktl/nqtne>

and politics. Subsequently, circumstances and arrangements beyond particular practices of NQTs enable and constrain what can go on within them (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008; Kemmis, et al., 2010).

More specifically, Kemmis et al. (2010, 35) present the following definition of practice:

A practice is a coherent and complex form of socially established cooperative human activity in which characteristic arrangements of activities (doings) are comprehensible in terms of characteristic arrangements of relevant ideas in discourses (sayings), and when the people and objects involved are distributed in characteristic arrangements of relationships (relatings), and when this complex of sayings, doings and relatings 'hangs together' in a distinctive project.

One weakness with the metaphor practice architecture is, however, that it resembles something static or stationary: a building built long ago. Practices are not static; instead, they are in constant motion and development; they are mobile and changeable. Therefore, they have also been termed *living things* or very close to living entities. Furthermore, practices are mutually dependent on other practices. This has been considered in the theory of *ecologies of practice*, which can be regarded as a complement to the previously described theory of practice architectures. According to this metaphor, practices embedded in practice architectures coexist, interrelate and are interdependent with one another in ecological relationships that maintain a complex of practices as a whole (Kemmis et al., 2010; Kemmis, Heikkinen, Aspfors & Hansén, 2011).

Drawing on Capra's eight principles of ecology, Kemmis et al. (2010) explore how practices live in ecological relationships with one another and act as living things. Later, Kemmis and Heikkinen (2012), have added a ninth principle; *ecological niches*. The principles are described in Table 1.

Table 1 Nine ecological principles: Practices as living entities (Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2012)

Ecological principles	If practices are living things and ecologies of practices are living systems, then...
Networks	Practices derive their essential properties and their existence from their relationships with other practices.
Nested systems	Different levels and networks of practice are nested within one another.
Interdependence	Practices are dependent on one another in ecology of practices as are ecologies of practices.
Diversity	An ecology of practice includes many different practices with overlapping ecological functions that can partially replace one another.
Cycles	Some (particular) kinds of matter (or in education – practice architectures, activities, orders or arrangements) cycle through practices or ecologies of practices – for example, as in a food chain.
Flows	Energy flows through an ecology of practices and the practices within it, being transformed from one kind of energy to another (in the way that solar energy is converted into chemical energy by photosynthesis) and eventually being dissipated.
Development	Practices and ecologies of practices develop through stages.
Dynamic balance	An ecology of practice regulates itself through processes of self-organisation, and (up to breaking point) maintains its continuity in relation to internal and outside pressures.
Niches	In ecology, a niche is the relational position or function of an organism in an ecosystem of plants and animals. The ecological niche describes how an organism or population responds to the distribution of resources and competitors and how it in turn alters those same factors. Likewise, there are ‘niches for practices’ within other practices.

The above ecological principles have previously been used to explore how practices of leadership, professional development/learning, teaching, teacher induction and peer-group mentoring can be understood as living things and how they relate to one another within ecologies of practices (see Kemmis et al., 2010; Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2012).

However, in order to obtain a more profound understanding of the experiences of NQTs, focus will here be principally concentrated on induction from the viewpoint of practice architectures. It is evident from the preceding chapter and previous lines of research that there seem to be various understandings of 1) relevant concepts, 2) activities and actions, and 3) relationships between people involved. In the following these will be more closely scrutinised at the same

time as the previously presented five lines of research grounded in the four studies (I–IV) will be united and operationalised for the purposes of the overall study.

Semantic space

As previously suggested, practices like induction gain *meaning and comprehensibility* through ‘sayings’ and ‘thinkings’ in the medium of language. The *semantic space* thus includes various expressions and concepts (sayings and thinkings) which are used to describe what goes on when new teachers enter the profession in the induction phase. More precisely, semantics is about linguistic meaning and can be understood as the relation between expression, concept(s) and the phenomenon it characterises (Sjöström, 2001). Knowledge about new teachers in the induction phase is distributed in social, political and pedagogical discourses through, for instance, books, articles, in communication and negotiations between teacher unions, municipalities and other interested parties (Kemmis et al., 2011). As has been repeatedly noticed before, conceptualisation within the area of induction is wide-ranging and diffuse. Therefore, it is motivating to look more closely at this space and at the same time draw together what previously been outlined.

As concluded previously in this chapter, the first meeting with the profession is often described as overwhelming and in a negative manner, where new teachers are left alone in frustration, anxiety and self-doubt. Concepts or sayings like *reality shock*, *transition shock*, *culture shock* and *praxis shock* (cf. chapter 1) have been used to describe the demanding situation when teachers start out in their profession (cf. Andersson & Andersson, 2004; Corcoran, 1981; Hebert & Worthy, 2001; Jokinen et al., 2005; Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002; McCormack & Thomas, 2003; Veenman, 1984; Wideen et al., 1998). Moreover, graphic metaphors are used to describe the first years of teaching as a “sink or swim” (Feiman-Nemser, 2001), “lost at sea”, “trial by fire” or “boot camp experience”. Some even blame teaching as a profession that “cannibalises its young” (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004), and a profession that undermines its pre-service education with the attitude “forget all you’ve learnt at uni” (McCormack & Thomas, 2003). The picture illustrated above is not a new phenomenon; instead it has commonly been understood as a “rite of passage” that all teachers have to undergo (Britton et al., 2000; Howe, 2006).

These concepts and sayings are good examples of how the induction phase is perceived by those involved and how the sayings are spread internationally and finally become more or less accepted (cf. study II). As seen in the clarification of concepts in the previous section, there are a lot of similar examples of variations in sayings. The term used for describing a new teacher, for instance *newly qualified teacher*, *beginning teacher*, *novice teacher* or *early career teacher*, represent inherently different meanings in different contexts or practices. The same confusion seems to exist when talking about support for new teachers. A multiplicity of concepts in relation to mentoring emerge in the literature: *one-to-one mentoring*, *co-mentoring*, *mutual mentoring*, *collaborative mentoring*, *peer collaboration*, *critical constructivist mentoring*, *dialogic mentoring*, *reciprocal mentoring*, *peer mentoring* and *peer-group mentoring* (cf. Heikkinen et al.,

2008). Besides mentoring, there are also many other close and similar kinds of support activities; for example, *tutoring*, *coaching*, *supervision* and *work counselling*. Likewise, the concept *induction* itself can be used differently with various meanings, in this thesis exemplified as a unique phase, a socialisation process and as formal support programme (cf. Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999).

When studying induction we need therefore to remember that there are different conceptions and understandings in different contexts. Kemmis and Heikkinen (2011) highlight this when asking whether there really is a “right” concept or meaning. According to the *correspondence theory of truth*, truth always corresponds to facts that exist irrespective of language. Truth exists therefore in a certain relation to reality. Another way of seeing it is, however, not to link concepts, meanings or ideas to facts, but instead to see them as part of so-called *language games*. According to this perspective of Wittgenstein, concepts are only time-bounded agreements made within social interactions. Consequently, there are no right or wrong interpretations. Instead, various ways exist of understanding and conceptualising induction, depending on which language game influences representatives from different social practices (see also Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2012).

Semantic space is thus largely about language and the meaning and understanding of language. One could accordingly say that NQTs entering induction are participating in a “sea of language or discourse” (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008, 41). NQTs will understand and interpret this practice through their previous experiences and knowledge. They will at the same time be formed by previous cultural-discursive orders and arrangements, which in turn shape the language they use as teachers. The language includes both content as well as language/concept apparatus used in order to describe the experiences. The concepts used have inherently different meanings for each teacher, but nevertheless shed light on particular patterns of sayings in different settings (cf. Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2011). On the basis of this we may assume that there may be variations in conceptualisation between countries but also within countries. For instance, there may be differences between the sayings in the Finland-Swedish context and the Finnish, depending on cultural differences.

Teachers’ professional language has, in general, been criticised for being rather vaguely developed in comparison to many other occupational groups with the same academic level of education. The teaching profession has, referring to the language used, therefore been described as semi-professional (cf. Colnerud & Granström, 2002²⁹). The concepts *linguistic superfluity* and *linguistic poverty* illustrate this. According to Adelswärd (1991), linguistic superfluity may imply that a teacher uses a language with a large vocabulary or a surfeit general

²⁹ Colnerud and Granström (2002) distinguish between three levels of teachers’ language: a *meta-language*, a *pseudo meta-language* and an *everyday language*. Everyday language sets out from concrete and immediate experiences and feelings and is presented in an unreflective way, whereas a meta-language or professional language helps the teacher to theorise the practice.

language at the expense of a semantic deep. The words are released from the content of thoughts. Linguistic poverty, on the other hand, implies that the teacher is not capable of expressing what she/he knows, can or feels, despite a strong need for it. This is because of a lack of adequate language, which leads to a vague and general description of the experiences made (Hansén, 1997).

One characteristic of teachers' vocabulary is, however, metaphors. In his dissertation about the school as a micropolitical organisation, Salo (2002) identified about 150 metaphors in his interviews with teachers. According to him, teachers' vocabulary is generally permeated by metaphors, but in educational research metaphors have primarily been used as a research method. The distinction between metaphors and other imagery such as, for instance, similes are, however, somewhat complicated. A metaphor is, according to the Oxford English Dictionary, "a figure of speech in which a name or descriptive word or phrase is transferred to an object or action different from, but analogous to, that to which it is literally applicable". The metaphor thus contains an object, *school*, and a figurative expression for describing that object, for instance *prison*. However, there are many possible and to some degree problematic ways of identifying metaphors in a text (Salo, *ibid.*).

Physical space-time

The induction phase is also shaped by material-economic circumstances and arrangements, i.e. certain physical and economic conditions. *Physical space-time* thus comprises a physical environment, but also different ways of doing or performing activities within a given space of time. Activities such as support for new teachers are distributed among participants in activity systems and in schools, universities and other sites: regionally, nationally and internationally. From the perspective of NQTs, this space consists of their unique experiences of existing (or non-existing) activities and actions, material and practical arrangements that physically aim at supporting them during their first years in the profession. As stated earlier in the definition of induction (see Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999), this time space is a unique phase in teachers' early professional development (cf. section 2.4), usually regarded as the first 3–5 years in the profession.

First of all, the concept *time* can encompass many different meanings. Lundmark (1993) talks about time as a *point* (it is time to leave), as a *process* (it is getting better little by little), as a *quantity* (there is never enough time), or as a *quality* (now there are good times). Time is always related to a happening, a condition, an action or a meeting. Time is also related to a movement. We may experience this movement very personally and subjectively. Therefore, experienced time may awake feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. NQTs may often experience time as insufficient for all the duties and responsibilities they believe they need to manage in the beginning. Without enough time, alternate strategies and previous experience, the teachers find it hard to cope with the complexities of teaching (cf. study I & II). For that reason the question of time is not irrelevant, and many induction systems therefore involve a reduced work load for NQTs in order for them to find time for their teaching planning as well as time to reflect on their teaching practice. Correspondingly, mentoring needs to

contain enough time for discussion and reflections in order to be experienced as meaningful (e.g. Feiman-Nemser, 1996).

According to Nuikkinen (2005), the *physical environment* may influence learning and promote well-being. Rooms may inspire and generate expectations, but can also restrain them. Rooms therefore play an important role as people in constant interaction both influence and are influenced by the rooms' physical formation. In a building or a room there are also a lot ingrained conventions, so to speak, inside the walls (Alerby, Bengtsson, Bjurström, Hörnqvist & Kroksmark, 2006). Therefore, rooms influence us not merely through their physical characteristics, but also, as Nuikkinen (2005) suggests, through cultural, historical and psychological influences. The school culture consequently impacts greatly on new teachers' experiences, and also on the success of mentoring, through the ideas, values and norms, as well as the spirit or climate, that distinguish the school (cf. McCormack & Thomas, 2003; Whisnant et al., 2005). As noted earlier in this chapter, culture also determines the ideals and guiding principles for the actions in school and impacts on decision-making, communication and solidarity, etc. (Andersson et al., 2003). The process of becoming a teacher, or the teacher socialisation process, is thus from this perspective seen as the acquiring of a culture and its norms, values, languages, symbols, etc., as well as about being part of and shaping it (cf. study II). This process also involves, of course, both a semantic and a social dimension, and the latter will be more closely scrutinised further on.

A variety of procedures may be found when studying the activities and actions, in addition to the material and practical arrangements aimed at supporting new teachers. As seen in the preceding sections, some countries and traditions do not support their NQTs at all, while in other contexts the support is already comprehensive and can be labelled as high intensity induction programmes (e.g. OECD, 2005). The former can be called a "sink or swim" mentality, which means that new teachers are thrown into the school and teaching, and gradually it is seen whether they will survive or not. If a "sink or swim" mentality is prevalent, the burden for the new teacher may be too heavy and the teacher might decide to quit the profession (Howe, 2006).

In other contexts the support for new teachers may be organised more or less formally. It is worth remembering that schools normally provide new teachers with some sort of orientation at the beginning. However, this orientation or introduction should not be mistaken for support in the form of induction. Nevertheless, there seem to be multifaceted arrangements, just as teacher induction itself as a complex concept embraces different meanings. As pointed out, induction and mentoring are often used interchangeably in the literature as mentoring predominantly is the main support strategy in induction. The purposes behind induction programmes, in terms of length, nature, strategy and organisation, vary as well as the activities used in them. Generally, the support is either of an emotional or pedagogical character or concerns socialisation into the workplace. Frequently used activities/components are, for example, information, orientations, workshops, seminars, discussion groups, observation of teaching, reduced teaching load, common planning time and mentoring (cf. Abbott et al., 2009; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Whisnant et al., 2005). As seen in the fourth

study (article IV), there seem to be two conflicting trends within mentoring. One trend emphasises a reciprocal interaction and collaboration, whereas the other is connected to elements of power and control in the assessment of teachers as part of statutory induction systems. Despite an explosive growth of research concerning mentoring and induction, according to recent research reviews (e.g. Hobson et al., 2009; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011) there still seem to be gaps in the existing research.

Social space

The previously described two spaces with ‘sayings’ (concepts and meanings) and ‘doings’ (actions and activities) are intimately connected to the third, *social space*. Practices gain its value in establishing *connectedness and solidarity* (or social differentiation) among the involved people through interactions and ‘relatings’ in the medium of power (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008). Practices are social by nature and in practices of induction, educationalists, politicians and others relate to each other in certain ways. Indeed, practices *are* practices, since they consist of distinctive relations between people *and* between people and objects. Social space is thus relationally constituted, and in the school context new teachers, pupils and others, e.g. more experienced teachers, relate to each other in various ways. These relationships also reflect to a high extent previous and prevailing social orders and arrangements, which may either encourage collaboration, collegiality and interdependence, or contribute to comparison, competition and isolation. Previously, this has been discussed in terms of school culture or micro-politics. Furthermore, the social dimension of a teacher’s work has increased lately and along with it the emotional character of the profession (cf. section 2.2). The relational-emotional aspects are to a high degree apparent in the including studies (I–IV).

If looking more closely at relationships, different forms of *symmetrical* and *asymmetrical* relations and communication can be distinguished. Fransson (2006) defines communication in line with Schirato and Yell (1996) as “[...] the practice of producing and negotiating meaning, a practice which always takes place under specific, cultural, social and political conditions” (in Fransson, 2006, 43). In his dissertation on lieutenants' and NQTs' processes of professionalisation, he highlights the symmetrical and asymmetrical character of communication. He concludes that the conditions for communications for an NQT often are asymmetrically dependent on lack of information and different positions of power, etc. (ibid., 2006).

Hermansen, Løw and Petersen (2004) stress that every communication contains two elements: firstly, aspects referring to the content, which in turn belong to the semantic space, and secondly demanding relational aspects within the social space. From a micro perspective, messages in communications are not always on the same level, as some are subordinate or superior to others. If the communication fails, the reason may be a mix of different logical levels. In a symmetrical relation the communication is characterised by similarity, as the participants’ communicative behaviour is of same kind. The asymmetrical relation or complementary is, on the contrary, characterised by diversity. The participants’ behaviour in the interaction is of another kind, which means that

one part may dominate, while the other one perhaps will submit. The communication in this kind of interaction may nevertheless be both respectful and equal (cf. also Fransson, 2006).

Heikkinen et al. (2012) draw special attention to three levels of equivalence in relationships: *existential equivalence*, *epistemic equivalence* and *juridical-ethical equivalence*. Regarding existence and human dignity, for example, all participants in the school community are equal on an existential level, meaning the relation is symmetrical. On the epistemic level, however, there are always differences according to knowledge and expertise. In certain areas an experienced teacher may have more knowledge, whereas in others a young or new teacher may be superior. Similar situations appear between the teacher and pupils in the classroom, as pupils today may be experts in many fields such as computers. In the same way there is asymmetry on the juridical level. In a school community the principal has the prime formal responsibility with certain rights and duties. Similarly, a mentor has the corresponding responsibility in mentor relationship(s) and the teacher in the classroom.

From a slightly different point of view, symmetrical and asymmetrical relationships within the social space emerge in the different forms of caring (cf. study III). From the viewpoint of a new teacher it is important to be cared for and recognised in the beginning by the principal and colleagues. Additionally, the new teacher is more dependent, needs more help and support at the start, while this over time gradually changes and the teacher becomes more and more autonomous. Simultaneously, it belongs to the teacher to care for his/her pupils. As such, it is not merely a duty in a relational sense, but also a task in the profession (e.g. Noddings, 1999, 2005, 2010; Cronqvist, Theorell, Burns & Lützén, 2004). Consequently, the teacher is depending on situation in different positions, which in turn influence in what way the relationship may be characterised as either asymmetrical or symmetrical from his/her point of view.

Ultimately, relationships characterised as symmetrical and reciprocal, i.e. consisting of a dynamic interchange and interaction based on equality, would be something to strive for (cf. Buber, 1995/1954; Noddings, 2010). Indeed, as outlined in study IV, one trend today is to increasingly consider, for instance, mentoring as a dialogue or a reciprocal exchange of thoughts and joint creation of knowledge. This is in line with the general transition towards social constructivist assumptions about knowledge and learning. The same tendencies can be seen in the definitions of teacher socialisation as a highly interactive, dialectical learning process (cf. study I; Jordell, 2002; Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Yet, at the same time there are other conflicting trends where relationships are viewed in a more asymmetrical way in the global tendency of assessment and accountability (study IV).

The above discussion highlights relationships and the culture of the school in the process of becoming a teacher. The discussion about symmetry and asymmetry in relations visualise, as well, the necessity and responsibility of a social space characterised by openness and equality.

Summary

In this chapter, the theoretical landscape of induction was sketched out, broadly as a socialisation process, a unique phase of teachers' development, and as formal programmes designed to support new teachers (cf. Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999). In the end, practice theory and more precisely theory of practice architectures, developed foremost by Stephen Kemmis, has been used as a structured frame in order to merge the previous lines of research and in order to better understand NQTs' experiences of induction as a specific practice. Especially, the three discussed spaces - semantic space, physical space-time and social space, are helpful in order to identify and understand what kind of particular discourses, practical arrangements and relationships induction practices of NQTs comprise. However, as we have seen above these are not easily separated, but are theoretical, analytical constructions. In reality, activities within induction practices are culturally-discursively, socially-politically and materially-economically formed, and simultaneously interrelated. These unite in an intertwined and inseparable course, or 'hang together', as Schatzki (1996) claims, and are always situated in time and history. This means that when NQTs become part of induction practices, they gain knowledge of them through their own activity at the same time as they are forming and being formed by conditions existing before them. Kemmis and Grootenboer (2008, 50) conclude as follows:

They say what they say in conversations in ways shaped by cultural-discursive conditions and possibilities that existed before them and extend beyond them – in a history and contemporary sea of discourse. They do what they do in ways shaped by material-economic conditions that existed before them and extend beyond them in the material world. They relate to others in ways shaped by social conditions that existed before them and extend beyond them in webs of social relationships and connections.

The spaces may be studied at different general levels. 'Sayings', 'doings' and 'relatings' can be, as in this thesis, studied from the new teachers' own experiences in a given school context, but they can also be studied on a very high and abstract level of generalisation. In this chapter examples of both have been given. Furthermore, these spaces do not merely hang together within practices, but also between practices, in ecologies of practice and as part of larger meta-practices.

3 Methods and implementation

In this chapter the methodological considerations and procedures that are used in the thesis will be presented. I describe how the data collection and analysis of empirical data have been realised in connection with the four studies (I–IV), and discuss ethical considerations and trustworthiness.

3.1 Methodological approach

The fundamental assumptions of ontology and epistemology lay the foundation for the choice of research methods, i.e. data collection and analysis³⁰. In this section the intention is to narrow down and position the research and argue for the choices of methods used in this work and the included studies.

The embryo of my research interest is, as suggested in the personal motivation section in the introduction, my own experiences of working in teacher education since 2003 and qualifying as a teacher in 2006. From these experiences, questions arose, which gradually turned into the research interest on NQTs. My own background, beliefs, feelings, pre-understandings and approach as a researcher accordingly form the ontological, epistemological and methodological premises for this work. At the same time, my own interpretive framework (cf. Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) is continuously influenced by existing trends within educational research and the field of teachers' professional development. My simultaneous involvement within different research projects and networks, such as the previously mentioned Finnish network for teacher induction 'Osaava Verme' and the Northern European network NQT-COME, have also had an effect on my work as a researcher. Much remains implicit, however, and can hardly be expressed in words. Nevertheless, my way of discussing and the choices made reflect something of this. The initial attempt here is merely to open the door slightly.

My point of departure is that knowledge and learning are complex, situated and constructed phenomena. A *constructivist* view thus permeates the work. From this perspective, my understanding of the research phenomena could most nearly be related to *ontological relativism*, i.e. the view of the social reality as socially constructed. Lincoln and Guba (1994, 110–111) describe this as follows:

Realities are apprehendable in the form of multiple, intangible mental constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific in nature (although elements are often shared among many individuals and even across cultures), and dependent for their form and content on the individual persons or groups holding the constructions. Constructions are not more or less "true", in any absolute sense, but simply more or less informed and/or sophisticated.

³⁰ *Ontology* is about the nature of the human being and reality, *epistemology* about the nature of knowledge and understanding (cf. Section 2.6), and finally *methodology* is about how we can gain this knowledge of the world (cf. Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

The epistemology is thus foremost *subjectivist*³¹ as I endeavour to reconstruct the meaning that the NQTs ascribe to their reality and experiences (see also Salo, 2002). As such, there is not just one possible true construction, but instead there are several possible descriptions, ways of viewing phenomena, as well as several potential understandings. This arises in the focus group discussions, where the NQTs express their varied and multifaceted experiences. The concept *experience* was in study I primarily viewed as the previously obtained knowledge or skills the teachers' gain from doing a job or an activity, or the personal knowledge of life gained by being in different situations and by meeting different people (cf. Dictionary of contemporary English, 2003). The teachers' subjective knowledge and experiences are thus socially constructed in meeting with different situations, people and duties. Hence, the concept represents the ontological stance of NQTs, but is also used as an analytical and conceptual tool. My task as a researcher is chiefly to present as trustworthy and well-founded descriptions of these experiences as possible, fully aware that lived experiences can never be rendered in their full potential, richness and depth (cf. Van Manen, 1990). This presupposes at the same time an interaction between myself as a researcher and the participants. In this work, my interpretations of the discussions have, for example, been continuously checked with the teachers taking part in the groups (see further in 3.2.2: Focus groups).

On the basis of the focus of my research on NQTs, it is quite self-evident that this study also can be positioned within *human science methodology*. Human science can shortly be described as to examine "persons" or human beings. It strives to explicate the meaning of human phenomena and to understand the lived structures of meanings (Van Manen, 1990). Furthermore, the research questions can be stated to focus on the essence of *educational research*, i.e. teachers and teaching, with an emphasis laid on new teachers' experiences. According to Verma and Mallick (1999), it is difficult to provide a definition of the term educational research which could be generally accepted by everyone within the discipline. A reason for this is that schools and education itself are inherently social, political and cultural, therefore the discipline can be characterised as diverse, complex and multidisciplinary (cf. Moyle, 2006). The plain definition, referred to by Verma and Mallick (1999, 32), entails, however, that educational research has the same purpose as other research: "When the scientific method is applied to the study of educational problems, educational research is the result". Moreover, educational research is mainly a problem-solving activity; "Research in education is a disciplined attempt to address questions or solve problems through the collection and analysis of primary data for the purpose of description, explanation, generalisation and prediction" (ibid., 32). This is in line with Moyle's (2006) ideas that meaningful research within education should contribute to understandings of the social constructions of reality.

Landsheere (1997, 15) also states that, at its best, educational research produces powerful foundations for practice and decision-making. Such research can be

³¹ Subjectivity is based on the logic of interpretation and supports the idea that reality is what each person interprets it to be (cf. Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006).

labelled as *applied research*, as it has implications for practice and decision-making. It emanates, in comparison to basic research, from a practical problem, a concrete question. The purpose is to contribute to concrete solutions and to generate actionable knowledge, which in turn can be used to influence attitudes and standpoints (Holmer & Starrin, 1993). As my research stems from concrete questions raised and discussed in the introduction, for example how to deal with increasing teacher shortage and retention of new teachers, it can thus be characterised as applied research. From my point of departure and overall aim and design of the study, the above mentioned definitions are relevant, though with an emphasis on generating research-based knowledge and understanding instead of endeavouring to generalise the results. Moreover, this knowledge could be utilised when developing support and mentoring programmes for NQTs in the future. Hence, my research is at the heart of educational research, as well as applied research.

As my research seeks a deeper understanding of new teachers' experiences of their induction practices, it may also be positioned within the *qualitative and interpretive research tradition*³² (cf. interpretive tradition of teacher socialisation in section 2.1). Today, there seems to be an increased and mutual understanding that human behaviour cannot be understood solely through using reductive, positivist measures (Angen, 2000). Instead, the strengths of qualitative research are above all a human science focusing on ordinary events in "real life", of which it may present a close, thick and detailed description (cf. Creswell, 2005). This is also the ambition in the present research study, as it comprises qualitative data from open-ended questions in a questionnaire and focus group interviews. Qualitative research is, at the same time, very multifaceted, demanding concern and consciousness by the researcher, which will be further dealt with in the section on validity.

The study has an *interpretive* character in that the endeavour to describe NQTs' various experiences already is interpretation to some extent. Especially Heidegger argues that "all description is always already interpretation; every form of human awareness is interpretative" (in Van Manen, 2002). In line with the theoretical part, Angen (2000, 385–386) also highlights that: "Interpretative research is predicted on the desire for a deeper understanding of how humans experience the lifeworld through language, local and historical situations, and the intersubjective actions of the people involved".

Within social sciences the interpretive paradigm has become a philosophical and methodological trend during the 20th century, and very often interpretive research is labelled or described as hermeneutical³³. It was from the beginning a method for interpretation of bible texts, but developed into general methodology for human sciences during the 18th century³⁴. Today, hermeneutics is applied in

³² For a more elaborated and critical discussion about qualitative and quantitative approaches, see Åsberg (2001).

³³ Other labels for interpretive research are post-positivist and naturalistic (e.g. Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

³⁴ During the following century Heidegger (1889–1976) and Gadamer (1900–2002), amongst others, turned it into an existential philosophy, with focus on the life world and

many different disciplines of science and has been interpreted and shaped in different ways. Many researchers are inspired by the hermeneutic way of reasoning, but do not use any special method or theory (Patel & Davidson, 1991/2003).

In this thesis a hermeneutical approach is mostly visible in its distinct character of holism, i.e. the understanding of the text as a whole is only possible in relation to the individual parts, and vice versa. Neither one can be understood without reference to the other. Therefore, the hermeneutical way of analysing is to constantly circle between part and whole (cf. Alvesson & Sköldbberg, 2008). This meta-principal, also called *hermeneutic circle* (or spiral), has been visible in the pendulum movement back and forth between the data material as a whole and the different parts represented in the four studies. But it is also perceptible in the analysis process of individual studies. In the process of analysing, the emerging categories have been continuously checked and compared with the original text, and the other way around. The process of analysis thus contributes to an increased understanding and a higher level of abstraction (see also Fleming, Gaidys & Robb, 2003).

The above outline is an initial attempt to explicate the fundamental assumptions behind this work, to position the research within human science methodology, as anchored in the qualitative and interpretive research tradition and focusing on educational research questions of an applied character. However, the approach of this compilation thesis, integrating four studies, is above all representative of *abduction* and *meta-synthesis*.

Abductive reasoning, aims in the same way as the hermeneutic circle, also at permeating beyond the obvious in order to reach underlying phenomena. Hence, there are similarities between the two. The analysis of the primary studies (I–IV) started inductively, but the overall process can be characterised as abductive, since there has been a pendulum movement between the inductive and deductive principles of analysis. Moreover, new ideas and clues have emerged in the analysis of individual sub-studies, leading the process further to the next (cf. Alvesson & Sköldbberg, 2008; Råholm, 2010). As Eriksson and Lindström (1997, 198) point out, “Abduction involves a dialectic process that moves between theory-laden empiricism and empirically laden theory”. Consequently, abduction involves both inductive, empirical grounded knowledge, as well as deductive, theoretical grounded knowledge. It uses both as a springboard in the so-called abductive leap. Abduction is in this sense more powerful than inductive and deductive reasoning alone, as it involves understanding. The risk with an inductive approach is to get stuck in what Eriksson and Lindström (ibid.) call surface structures, while theoretical models of explanations may hinder rather than promote a deeper understanding when it comes to a deductive approach. On the other hand, abductive reasoning has its limits and risks as well. It is essential that the researcher has an adequate theoretical knowledge as well as

fundamental conditions for human existence. Hermeneutics and phenomenology share the same roots, which is why they are often treated as the same and not distinguished by researchers in an appropriate way (Fleming et al., 2003; Laverty, 2003).

understanding of the research field in order to prevent it from becoming too speculative³⁵.

Meta-synthesis (or metasynthesis) is, according to Thorne, Jensen, Kearney, Noblit and Sandelowski (2004, 1343), the most frequent used generic term representing “A family of methodological approaches to developing new knowledge based on rigorous analysis of existing qualitative research findings”. Similar labels or terms often used are *qualitative meta-analysis* or *meta-study* (cf. Paterson et al., 2009), *aggregated analysis* (cf. Estabrooks, Field & Morse, 1994), *meta-ethnography* (Noblit & Hare, 1988) or *qualitative research integration* (Thorne et al., 2004)³⁶. The term “meta” implies precisely “going beyond and behind” primary studies. Confusion seems, however, to exist especially between meta-synthesis and reviews (Bondas & Hall, 2007b, 116). In general, the tradition of meta-research has been more common within the quantitative research tradition than in the qualitative. Meta-research has relatively recently developed as a method within qualitative research, starting from Noblit and Hare’s (1988) meta-ethnographic study in education. One reason for the increasing popularity is the pressure towards evidence-based decisions and best practice models (cf. Heaton, 2004; Thorne et al., 2004; Zimmer, 2006). The more concrete procedure of conducting a meta-synthesis will be described in 3.3.

In brief, abduction is an interpretive research strategy in the same way as meta-synthesis is a demanding interpretive research task. As such, these two fit well into the umbrella of interpretive paradigm. In particular, hermeneutic skill is needed in order to take advantage of lived human experiences. In the following the data collection and procedure will be outlined.

3.2 Data collection and procedure

The previously discussed methodological approach provided the foundation for choice of data collection design. Consistent with the interpretive paradigm, the intention behind the selected methods has been to develop an increased understanding of NQTs’ diverse experiences in the induction phase. In previous studies (e.g. von Zweck, Paterson & Pentland, 2008) hermeneutics has proved to be a credible and flexible strategy for combining different methods in order to gain a deeper understanding of an issue. This study therefore comprises two main means of gathering data: an electronic questionnaire survey, with mostly open-ended questions, and focus group discussions. Moreover, a written evaluation has been conducted in connection to the focus groups in the end. The main purpose with the questionnaire has been to obtain an overview of the study phenomena amongst a larger group of primary school teachers. At the same time, the intention has been to narrow down the research problem and recruit participants for the focus group meetings. To include a questionnaire survey in the beginning was seen as necessary in order to receive a comprehensive view before studying the phenomena in more detail. Accordingly, data generated from the focus groups of NQTs aims to provide detailed insights into the experiences

³⁵ See more about inductive/deductive/abductive approach in Åsberg (2000).

³⁶ For an overview of qualitative synthesis methods, see Barnett-Page & Thomas (2009).

of a small group of NQTs. The meetings can, from my side, be seen as a concrete part of the research project, and at the same time, for the participants, a programme for continuing professional development, organised in co-operation with the Centre for Continuing Education³⁷. The main responsibility was, however, held by the researcher. The meetings are therefore called *focus groups* when referring to them in terms of a data collection method, and *peer-mentoring groups* when describing them from the perspective of continuing education for NQTs (cf. study IV). The research design for the empirical data gathering is illustrated broadly below in Figure 5.

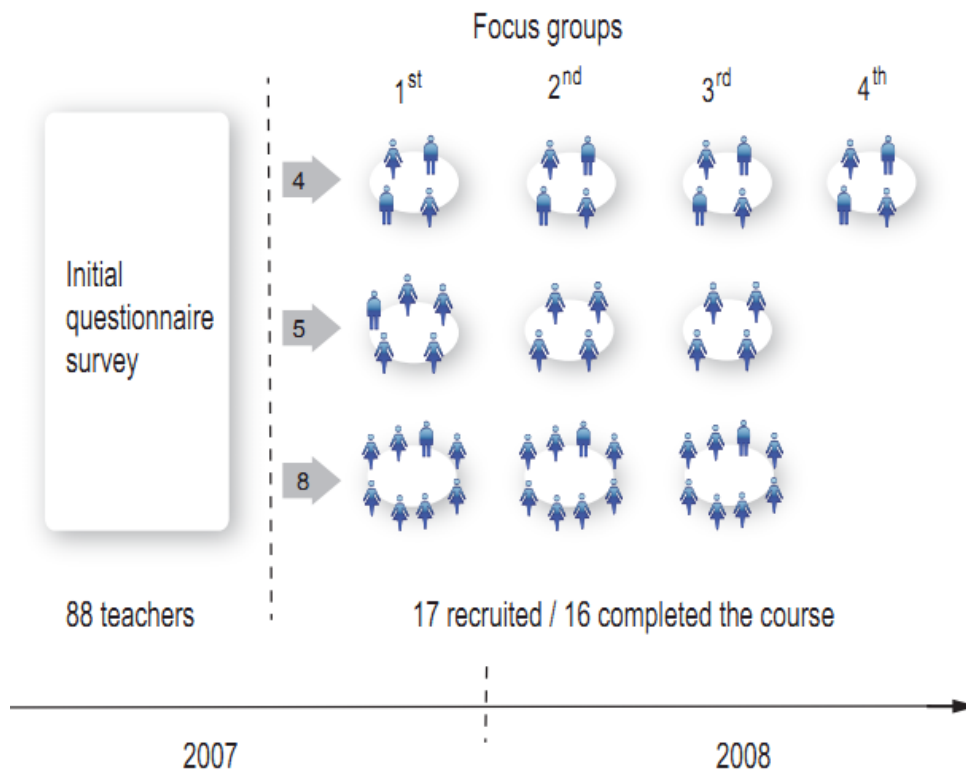


Figure 5 Design of the empirical data collection.

The figure shows that 88 teachers took part of the questionnaire survey, of whom 17 were recruited to the focus group meetings during 2007–2008. However, only 16 teachers completed the full course. In the figure the gender distribution is also explicated. The meetings were held 3–4 times/group. The

³⁷ The Centre for Continuing Education is a detached unit of Åbo Akademi University, serving different professional groups, individuals and organisations outside the university. It is therefore often seen as a link between university, working life and society. The centre offers, for example, in-service training courses for teachers. Today the centre is called the Centre for Lifelong Learning at Åbo Akademi University and Novia University of Applied Sciences (CLL).

data collection procedure will be further explained in detail in the following section.

3.2.1 Questionnaire

Electronic questionnaires, as a data acquisition technique, have become increasingly common during recent years, principally because of their cost-effective way of collecting data from a large population of respondents. The survey can furthermore be accomplished during a limited time period, the researcher can continuously follow the data collection and be spared the manual coding which is necessary with ordinary paper questionnaires (Mattesson, 2009; Trost, 2007). Since the survey in this study needed to be carried through in a limited time before starting the focus group meetings, an electronic questionnaire was considered to be an appropriate choice. The target group, newly qualified teachers, was also regarded as suitable to participate in this kind of survey.

The electronic questionnaire design follows ordinary recommendations for survey instruments (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000) and consists altogether of 35 questions, mostly open-ended (appendix 1). Six types of information were included: background characteristics (11 questions), preparedness for the teaching profession (3 questions), experiences during the first years of teaching (8 questions), introduction and support (7 questions), visions of the professional future (1 question) and willingness to participate in focus group meetings (5 questions). Only the qualitative part, i.e. the open-ended questions, was used in the analysis in three of the studies (I–III). Before the questionnaire was sent out to the target group, three teachers were asked to fill it in and give feedback on its content and layout. This small pilot study was conducted in August 2007. Minor changes were made afterwards to improve the quality. Besides this, the content of the questionnaire was processed by a minor group consisting of two representatives from the Centre of Continuing Education and two colleagues from the Faculty of Education at Åbo Akademi University. This was seen as important, as the questions otherwise may have been too much dominated by or limited to the researcher's pre-understandings. The questions were also formulated as openly as possible to give the respondents the possibility to answer on their own terms, enabling rich and authentic responses in line with qualitative research.

Questionnaire respondents

Persons qualified as primary school teachers with either a Master's Degree in Education, Special Education or Sloyd Education from the Faculty of Education at Åbo Akademi University were contacted in the study. This department is solely responsible for all Swedish-speaking teacher education in Finland. As the focus of the study is on teachers with competence as primary school teachers, only those teachers were selected who had subject matter studies (general studies in subjects taught in the Finnish comprehensive schools) included in their final certificate, since these studies are necessary to qualify as a primary school teacher in Finland. The respondents may, however, be specialised in different subject areas. Information about qualified teachers was received from the study

register (STURE) at the university. In line with previous research, that defines NQTs to be those teachers with between one to five years of experience (e.g. see clarification of concepts in the introduction chapter), it was decided that teachers with one to three years of teaching experience as qualified teachers would be included in the study. At the time when the survey was conducted, it meant those who qualified between 2004 and 2006. Since the research design contains focus groups, it was seen as crucial that the teachers had some working experiences on which they could rely in their discussions.

A total of 308 persons received their Master's Degree in Education in 2004–2006. Persons without a primary school teacher qualification and/or persons with long teaching experience before their exam were removed from the list. Persons from primary school teacher education in the capital region³⁸, as well as persons qualified within primary school teacher education in Tanzania (TEPT)³⁹, were also not included in the survey. In the first case, the reason was the persons' long teaching experience from before. In the latter case, the rationale was the context, since this study is focusing on newly qualified Finland-Swedish teachers. In total the number of those removed was 100.

To be able to find contact details, e.g. e-mail addresses for the target group, I proceeded by different means. I received permission to use the contact register from The Organisation of Swedish-Speaking Teachers in Finland (FSL). Moreover, I used the study register from Åbo Akademi University, Eniro and Google search engines, as well as the websites of municipalities and schools. I also received help from colleagues in the process of finding addresses of the proposed respondents. Unfortunately, it was not possible to find all teachers, which is why another 14 persons were removed from the list. The reasons for this could be a change of surname, because of, for example, marriage, or a move abroad. A couple of persons responded and informed me of the fact that the wrong person had been addressed. In some cases, the questionnaire was returned with unknown addressee.

The questionnaire was set up in a web database and the invitation to the survey (appendix 2, 1/3), including the web address, was finally sent out to a total of 194 Swedish-speaking primary school teachers in 2007. In total, 155 female (80 percent) and 39 male (20 percent) teachers were contacted. The majority of these were qualified with a primary school teacher degree only, or both a primary school and special teacher degree. The distribution is illustrated in Table 2.

³⁸ In order to reduce the teacher shortage in the capital region, the Faculty of Education at Åbo Akademi University arranged a relocated class teacher education temporarily for persons with an academic qualification from another field outside teaching. Many of the participants worked already as non-qualified teachers, which is why they could obtain class teacher competence through this education.

³⁹ TEPT-project: Teacher Education Project in Tanzania (Morogoro). The academic degree project (Bachelor and Master of Education) was accredited by Åbo Akademi University 1995–2006. It has followed by the DEPT-project: the Doctoral Programme 2007–2009, also offered by Åbo Akademi University.

Table 2 Distribution of gender and qualification

Qualification	Male	Female	Total
Primary school teachers	33	104	137
Home economic teachers	0	1	1
Sloyd education teachers	1	4	5
Special education teachers	5	46	51
Total	39 (20.0%)	155 (80.0%)	194

All in all, 145 of the respondents received the invitation by e-mail, while 49 received it by ordinary post since their e-mail addresses could not be found. A couple of reminders were sent out with an interval of some weeks (appendix 2, 3/3). Information about the survey was also given out and published by the Organisation of Swedish-Speaking Teachers in Finland in their paper *Läraren* (cf. Ahlfors, 2007). This is a paper every teacher receives when belonging to the Swedish-speaking teacher's union. The respondents could fill out the questionnaire immediately in the database, where all the answers were then stored. To be able to find interested participants for the focus group meetings, the teachers were asked for their names and contact details in the questionnaire. However, it was pointed out clearly that these details were voluntarily. Eventually only four teachers participated anonymously. The respondents' confidentiality was assured from the beginning of the research process. More details about ethical considerations are given at the end of this chapter.

Altogether 99 questionnaires were returned. Eleven of these were duplications, i.e., seven persons had at first sent an incomplete questionnaire and later completed it with a fully filled out form. One person had first sent an incomplete questionnaire twice before filling it out, and two persons sent their completed questionnaires in twice. One person who participated in the focus groups without taking part in the questionnaire survey filled it out afterwards. In all, 88 teachers took part in the survey, which gives a 45.4 percent response rate. According to Trost (2007), a response rate between 50 and 75 percent is common in questionnaire surveys. However, the response rate is often lower in electronic questionnaires than in questionnaires sent by post. One reason for this may be that the questionnaire is never received by the recipient, e.g., it is stuck in a fire wall or spam filter. Other reasons may be that the e-mail address is old, incorrect or the mail box full. Therefore, the number of unrecorded cases may be quite large and it is difficult to know exactly how many of the respondents actually received the e-mail with the web address to the questionnaire survey.

The respondents were mainly working in the Finland-Swedish region, in the coastal area in the western or southern part of Finland (cf. Figure 3) and with children between the ages 7–16. Furthermore, most of the teachers were working full time as teachers, either employed on a continuing, full time basis or as substitute teachers for one school year at a time. Working this way as a substitute teacher is very common in the beginning of a teaching career in

Finland. Their teaching exam comprised Education, Special Education or Sloyd Education as a main subject, pedagogical studies for teachers, research methods, subject studies (general studies in subjects taught in the Finnish comprehensive schools), and optional studies, together with language and communication studies. The majority of teachers were 25–29 years of age (69.3 percent) and female (75.0 percent), which is in accordance with the gender and age distribution of new teachers in Finland⁴⁰.

Three of the respondents only answered questions in the beginning concerning their background. Consequently, they had not answered the last question about their willingness to participate in the next step of the research project. Therefore, 85 teachers responded to this question, which resulted in 28 affirmative, 31 non-committal and 26 negative answers. In all, 59 new teachers showed interest in participating in the focus group meetings, which can be seen as a sufficient number; the teachers were, very likely, either in need of support and/or considered the research/in-service project important.

3.2.2 Focus groups

Focus groups were first used by researchers in the social sciences in the 1920s, but for a long time it was mainly used by marketing researchers. Nowadays, the method is applied also in other sectors such as medical research and educational research, where it has gained an increasing and rapid growth of popularity (Kitzinger, 1995; Morgan, 1997; Wibeck, 2000). Gibbs (1997) refers to the following definition of focus groups as “a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research”. Focus groups can also be regarded as a form of focused group interviews, where a minor group of people meet to discuss a subject at the request of a researcher. The term “focus” implies specifically that the discussion from the beginning will concern a certain issue. The group is conducted by a facilitator⁴¹, who is a form of discussion leader, in many cases the researcher him- or herself (Wibeck, 2000). In this study I will use *facilitator* or *mentor*, depending on whether the data collection or support for new teachers is in focus. The data generated from the focus groups has been used in all four studies.

Catterall and Maclaran (1997) note the problem of distinguishing between focus groups and other forms of group interviews. According to them, “all groups convened to generate data on a particular topic for research purposes are focus groups”. The jungle of concepts, especially within market research is, however, obvious. Terms such as *group discussion*, *sensitivity panels* and *extended creativity groups* are used, whilst Williams and Williamson (1996) employ the concept *collaborative conversations*. One reason behind the problem of defining focus groups may be the fact that it is a very flexible data collection technique in terms of purpose and organisation. Wibeck (2000), for example, distinguishes

⁴⁰ These figures are also in line with international reports; for instance, Jensen et al. (2012), where 69 % of the new teachers were female and 69 % under 30 years of age.

⁴¹ Another concept commonly used by many researchers is *moderator* (see Gibbs, 1997; Morgan & Spanish, 1984, or Wibeck, 2000).

between structured and unstructured focus groups. In a structured focus group meeting the facilitator is very dominating, while in an unstructured meeting the focus is, as much as possible, on the participants' communication. The aim of the group is then to discuss the topic as freely as possible without any interruption from the facilitator. Focus groups thus allow interesting design possibilities. It is a flexible form of data collection technique with fairly open boundaries. Hence, Morgan (1997, 6) chooses to consider focus groups as a "broad umbrella", under which many different variants may be included.

Focus groups are often combined with other methods such as survey research and/or interviews since it may increase the effectiveness of these techniques. A well-balanced compilation of methods may bring potential advantages to the project. The same participants can, for example, take part in both focus groups and later conducted interviews, where some issues can be examined in a more detailed fashion individually. Focus groups may also precede a questionnaire survey, since it may help the researcher to develop the questions in accordance with the target groups' understanding of the topic or explore the results of the survey (Morgan & Spanish, 1984). The present study combines two means of gathering data: questionnaire survey in combination with focus groups. The combination of a questionnaire survey and conducted focus groups discussion generated a satisfactory amount of data. Therefore, any further in-depth interviews were not regarded as necessary, even though this was initially considered. According to Morgan (1997), focus groups are a relative fast, easy and flexible means of generating a large amount of data on a particular topic in a limited of time. For instance, two focus group sessions with eight persons can generate as many ideas as ten individual interviews. It can thus be seen as a compromise between the strengths of participant observations and individual interviews.

Kitzinger (1995) considers focus groups to be of particular use when investigating people's knowledge and experiences, since one can scrutinise how they think, and why. Group processes can, according to her, help people to discover and elucidate their views in ways that could not be done in ordinary interviews. The method also provides the researcher with many different kinds of communication which is used in everyday relations such as jokes, anecdotes, teasing and arguing. It may, thus, reveal dimensions of understanding that often remain invisible. The data collection technique is, in addition, especially sensitive to cultural variables, such as values or group norms, and therefore often used when investigating ethnic minorities. Through examining humour, consensus and dissent as well as narratives used within a particular group, shared and common knowledge can be acknowledged. Morgan and Spanish (1984) conclude that it is exciting to take part in not only participants' diverse experiences and self-expressions, but also what happens when people take differing individual experiences and try to make collective sense of them. As Catterall and Maclaran (1997) claim, the interaction in focus groups may generate a wider range of responses, activate forgotten nuances of experiences and liberate inhibitions.

Since educational research contributes to understandings of social constructions of reality, language is essential. Moyle (2006) thus discusses focus groups as

“research conversations”, since they are a form of group interview and “professional conversations” as discussions arise on questions, topics or themes at a specific time. As highlighted by Villegas-Reimers (2003), teachers learn and develop through meaningful interactions and conversations in the new approach to professional development. Feiman-Nemser (2001) considers talk in particular to be essential, since teachers can, through these conversations, share and analyse ideas, values and practices. She points out the following benefits with what she calls a professional learning community (PLC): “they address particular problems of practice, they contribute to the professional development of members, they provide social, emotional and practical support, they nurture the development of professional identities, they craft a collective stance on issues related to teaching” (p. 1043). However, these conversations need to differ from ordinary talks between colleagues, which more often focus on personal stories and opinions. There is also a risk that group conversations arranged within continuing education only result in emotional support instead of real changes in knowledge. Instead, professional conversations need to be grounded in the content and tasks of teaching and learning and involve critical questions of one another. In this way, support for teachers’ professional development may be created.

However, it is worth bearing in mind that even though focus groups may contribute to a large amount of data rather quickly, this does not mean it is an easy way of data collection procedure. As with any research approach, there are limitations as well. At the same time as group dynamics are known as the single most important factor in focus groups, it is also recognised as the single greatest threat. The researcher has less control over the discussions and subsequently the data produced. It may also be difficult to identify individuals and their definitive views. As in any group interaction, some persons may be more dominating and others more reserved, and the group norms may quieten individual voices of disagreement (Catterall & Maclaran, 1997; Gibbs, 1997; Kitzinger, 1995). Another critical point that Morgan and Spanish (1984) disclose is the fact that discussions in focus groups are not naturally occurring conversations, since they are created by a researcher. This can have consequences for the interactions in the groups, especially since they are recorded. However, similar problems are likely within other research methods, too. Most of the problems discussed may, on the other hand, be overcome, or at least reduced by a rigorous planning in advance.

The group discussions conducted in this research project may not be regarded as any absolute or pure form of focus group sessions, mainly because of their nature i.e. a combination of research project and in-service project. As said before, the focus groups functioned both as a data acquisition technique and as a support programme for new teachers during 2007–2008. The ambition was to give the NQTs, in smaller groups, the opportunity to share their experiences with each other and at the same time receive support from one another in a confidential and safe meeting surrounding. Peers’ experiences, opinions and thoughts were considered important. Every research project forms its own way of data collection technique which suit the purposes best, and in this case it has been done in cooperation with an in-service department. The idea of conducting

focus group sessions in the first place springs from a similar project at the University College of Gävle, Sweden⁴². However, the final design of the projects looks very different from each other, partly because of contextual adjustments. In the following section, the focus group procedure will be described and discussed in more detail.

Focus group participants

In order to attract as many participants as possible, a question was included in the questionnaire about preferred choice of location for the meetings, since the respondents were dispersed all over the Finland-Swedish region. The participants could suggest which location would be most appropriate for them. All special requirements could, of course, not be met, which is why the most frequently suggested three districts were chosen. The focus group meetings were held in the *capital region*, in a *regional centre* and in a *local setting*. The interested teachers were contacted again with an invitation and detailed information about the place and time for the meetings (appendix 3, 1/4). A recommendation letter (appendix 3, 4/4) was also included, the aim of which was to recommend the programme as in-service education so that the teachers could, with the employers' approval, get them as the obligatory three in-service training days they need to attend each year. In addition to this, travelling expenses and refreshments were offered.

Many teachers were, for different reasons, prevented from attending the first meeting, which is why the participant rate dropped. Eventually 17 teachers attended the focus group meetings the first time they were arranged in autumn 2007. The teachers were working as full time teachers, even though many had only one year contracts as substitute teachers. One female teacher was, however, working more as a "day-to-day" substitute teacher during her first year with shorter contracts in different school districts. The teachers were divided into three groups. Morgan (1997) proposes three to five groups as suitable, since additional groups rarely produce new understanding on the topic, which means the goal of saturation often is achieved by that. Since it was essential to keep the groups consistent throughout the project, the importance of participation was pointed out from the beginning. In order to maximise attendance, the date for the following sessions was also agreed upon, together with the participants in each group. Reminders were also sent out a couple of days before each session. Still, it was impossible to obtain 100 percent attendance, since the teachers were occupied with many other assignments. Three focus group meetings were conducted in each location, three hours each time. An exception was the group in the local setting, where four meetings were held.

Seven female and one male teacher met in the *capital region* when the first focus group meeting was arranged in autumn 2007. The capital region in Finland is, as

⁴² The project is called "Kommunnätverket Induction" (in Swedish) and has been active since 1999. It is a local network with cooperation between the university, surrounding municipalities, the teachers' union and teachers' national union. The aim is to generate research about new teachers' first work experiences, development of support- and mentoring programmes, as well as mentor training.

any large city area, densely populated, with, for the most part, a Finnish speaking population. The group was the largest of the three and can be considered to be rather large when it comes to group dynamics, etc. The first thought was also to divide the group into two smaller ones. External factors, however, such as time and economic limitations contributed to keeping the original group size. However, not all members of the group could attend every meeting, so that in the end the group size turned out to be appropriate.

Rabiee (2004) states that over-recruitment by 10–25 percent is a common way to avoid the problems of non-attenders. There seem, however, to be different opinions in the literature about the recommended group size. Wibeck (2000) suggests no more than six persons in a group, and no less than four persons, while Gibbs (1997) notes that six to ten participants are common, and up to fifteen or as few as four members is not unusual. Kitzinger (1995), on the other hand, considers a group size with between four to eight people as ideal. The risk with small groups may be, according to Morgan (1997), that they are less productive and more receptive to changes, whereas large groups might be more difficult to manage with a larger risk of data loss.

A group consisting of four female teachers and one male teacher met in a *regional centre*. The regional centre is a bilingual, medium-sized town in the Finland-Swedish region of Finland. The male teacher attended only the first meeting, since it was obvious that this forum was not for him. He had very long experience from working as an unqualified teacher before he received his full qualification. Therefore, it was agreed that he would benefit more from attending other forms of continuing education instead. Four female teachers were therefore left in the group. All except one attended every meeting in this group.

The last group met in a *local setting* and consisted of two male and two female teachers. The local setting is a small town with a large Swedish speaking population. In this group only one male teacher could not participate in every session. Four meetings were held exceptionally due to a change of facilitator. The second meeting was held without an external facilitator and with the researcher only. The other three meetings were conducted in accordance with the other focus groups. Since the data from the second meeting was seen as of equal value as the data from the other meetings, it was decided to include it in the analysis. More about the role of the facilitator and the researcher is discussed below.

Many researchers propose focus groups that are homogenous in compilation in order to make the most of people's shared experiences and make them feel comfortable with each other. However, this homogeneity concerns background, not attitudes (Kitzinger, 1995; Morgan, 1997). The groups of NQTs participating in my study are homogenous from several perspectives. They are all Finland-Swedish, in the same age group, mostly females, having similar educational background (studying the same teacher education programme) and are all new to the profession (between one to three years of experience). According to the outcome of the discussions, considering how quickly the groups developed intense, lively and lengthy discussions, these groupings can be seen as appropriate.

Role of the facilitator and researcher

In the focus groups conducted in this study the facilitator was not the same person as the researcher. The researcher planned the design of the project and attended the sessions primarily for collecting empirical data through note-taking and audio recording. The facilitator was an experienced teacher (mentor) running the focus group sessions only. Thus, both a facilitator and a researcher attended the focus group sessions. The role of the facilitator can be seen as critical in many ways, according to Gibbs (1997). It is his/her responsibility to promote interaction between the members of the group, keep the session focused and ensure everyone gets a chance to talk. At the same time, it is essential to make everyone feel comfortable. It is a constant fragile balancing act between listening and not interfering too much in the discussions. Therefore, according to Catterall and Maclaran (1997), it is essential that the facilitator has knowledge of the different phases that groups normally go through. As Wibeck (2000) concludes, it is important that the facilitator can talk the same “language” as the participants, listen actively and answer questions in a neutral fashion. Moyle (2006) asserts, however, the importance of paying attention to the power relationships between the facilitator and the participants. To listen to the participants’ voices is to empower them, and therefore it is important that the facilitator neither dominates nor controls the group, but instead shares it. According to Moyle (*ibid.*), the facilitator should be engaged in a relationship with the participants instead of just being a neutral observer.

To be able to support the NQTs in their work situations, it was in this research project seen as crucial that the facilitator was experienced as a teacher and had previous experience of managing different kinds of group discussions as a mentor. It was also seen as positive if the facilitator was familiar with teacher education and research in general. Therefore, it was decided that the facilitator would be an external person provided by the Centre for Continuing Education. The facilitator chosen met all the above mentioned requirements. The role of the facilitator was to introduce, listen to and, when necessary, distribute and guide the discussion to essential issues, as well as to ask deeper and probing questions. To be able to listen to every participant’s experiences around a particular issue, the facilitator often asked them one by one to express their thoughts before a general discussion started.

Since group discussions are dynamic and complex processes, I was myself primarily a participating observer, collecting empirical data by taking notes and recording the meetings with the help of a digital audio recorder. To be two persons involved makes the focus group meetings a lot easier to handle: the facilitator can concentrate on managing the group discussion, while the researcher can focus on the empirical data collection. Since there is a lot of non-verbal communication in a group, it is important that someone takes detailed notes, and this can be difficult to accomplish for the facilitator alone. Moreover, it might be of value to have a debriefing after each session, which is possible if there are two persons involved (Wibeck, 2000).

The documentation was summarised after each session and sent to the participants. Descriptive summary is a way for the participants to obtain distance

from their own statements and conceptions, as well as a way for the participants to develop an awareness and ability to reflect on their work. The documentation also formed the basis for the following focus group meeting. I was responsible for everything concerning the research project; for instance, informing about ethical issues. This was done at the first meeting, and when necessary during the sessions. Before the focus group meetings started, the research objectives as well as the expectations of the facilitator were carefully discussed in order to prevent misunderstandings and to contribute to the best possible focus group meetings.

Unfortunately, the facilitator could not continue through the whole project. Therefore, a new facilitator attended the two last sessions in each group. In between, one session was held in the local setting with the researcher only. The date of this session had been decided together with the participants a long time in advance, which is why it was considered best not to cancel it. This interruption is not optimal from the point of view of group cohesiveness and dependability, and therefore it is important as much as possible to limit possible damage. The new facilitator was likewise a very experienced teacher, who at the same time was an authorised work supervisor and mentor. In addition, she was a researcher in the same area herself. She thus fulfilled all the desired requirements. The participants did not express any difficulties with the change of facilitator.

Inventory of discussion topics

Morgan (1997) suggests that a researcher should distinguish between interesting and important topics for the participants and according to him the easiest way of finding this out is to ask them directly. What participants consider important should therefore be an element in the data collection procedure itself, and should not be speculation from the researcher. The first focus group meeting was therefore an unbiased inventory of the NQTs' needs and concerns. The participants could, together with the others in each group, decide what issues they wanted to focus on during the following discussions. This was conducted in several steps. The participants were asked to write down their own individual priorities, then discuss them with a partner, and lastly present their common order of precedence to the rest of the group. Finally, the whole group was asked to agree about three important issues they would like to discuss during the following sessions. These kinds of group exercises may well be used in focus groups. According to Kitzinger (1995), exercises can spur participants to focus on one another instead of the facilitator and force them to clarify their different perspectives. However, the participants also had possibilities to bring up other, for them, relevant and urgent questions during the sessions. In this way, they shared their successes and failures, discussed and analysed experiences and challenges from their every-day school life. Figure 6 illustrates the emphasised topics in the groups.

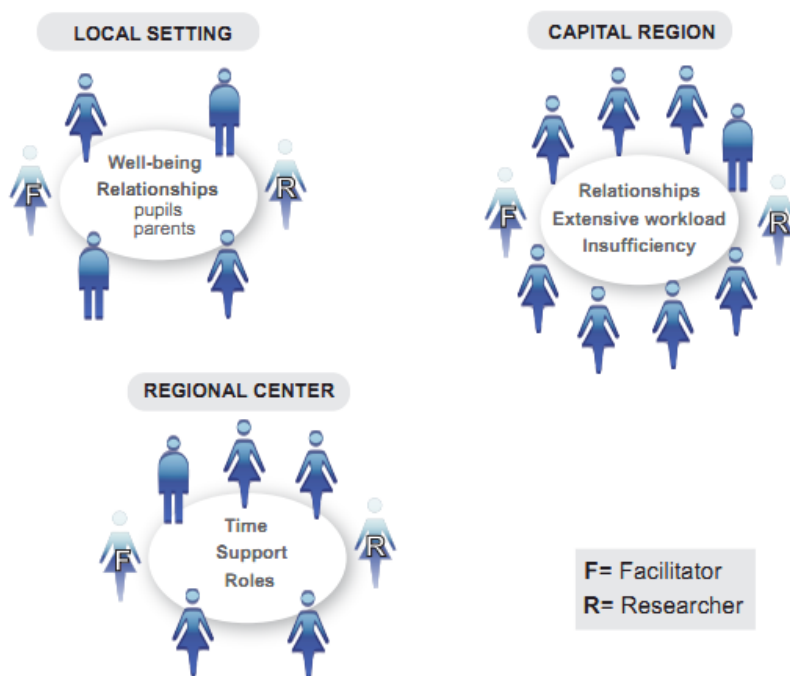


Figure 6 Initial inventory of discussion topics in the focus groups.

The NQTs in the local setting wished to discuss *well-being at work*, including relationships with colleagues, school management styles, school culture and work-life balance. They also wanted to focus on *relationships with pupils and their parents*, especially pupils with special educational needs, gifted pupils and pupils with challenging behaviours, as well as the ability to develop productive relationships with parents. The NQTs in the regional centre wanted to deepen the discussion about *time*, in other words time management skills and work-life balance. They also wanted to focus on *support* for the teacher, as they sometimes perceived lack of support and poor reception at schools. Last, but not least, they wanted to discuss *roles*, additional roles and responsibilities they undertake as teachers, the demands of the role and workload. The NQTs in the capital region wanted to discuss *relationships and co-operation* in general, and specifically relationships with classroom assistants and pupils' parents. The perceived *extensive workload* was another issue in focus; administration and extra-curricular activities in addition to the normal demands of planning, preparation, teaching and assessment. The NQTs wanted to meet expectations from parents and colleagues as well as manage to keep up with the curriculum, but a heavy workload resulted for some in feelings of *insufficiency* and anxiety.

In this respect, it was easier to change facilitator in between, since the first session to a large extent was an inventory. As the sessions were summarised and recorded by the researcher, it was easy for the new facilitator to become familiarised with the previous session. She could, therefore, continue and deepen the discussions from where the discussion ended last time. Since I, as a

researcher, was responsible for the overall design, handled all the contact with the participants and attended every session, continuity was established even though the facilitator changed.

Practical arrangements

The sessions were held between 3 and 6 PM in the afternoon each time. Usually, focus group meetings last from one to two hours (Gibbs, 1997). In this research project we wanted, though, to offer enough time to be able to deepen the discussions in each session, which is why three hours was put at our disposal. However, we did not endeavour to precisely time the length of the sessions; instead, we looked for a natural point to end the discussions. Almost every minute of these three hours turned out to be necessary in every group. The discussions were so intense that hardly any breaks were held. A couple of minutes were kept for the participants' own reflections at the end of the first session followed by a common debriefing. The participants were given possibilities to discuss, ask questions and respond to the session just held. According to the given responses, during the sessions, as well as in the evaluation afterwards, the participants were very satisfied with the format of the focus groups and the outcomes of it. Many experienced support and progress through the programme.

During all the focus group sessions, coffee, tea and sandwiches were served. This was considered important, since the teachers often attended the meetings immediately after a school day. The sessions were also conducted in as comfortable and neutral environments as possible. This is essential, since neutral locations prevent the participants developing either negative or positive associations with particular sites (Gibbs, 1997). The rooms were organised so that participants could sit around a table (in a rectangle) through the discussions. The facilitator and researcher were also placed at the same table. The digital audio recorder, which is very small in size, was discreetly placed beside the researcher, but sufficiently close to the participants. In the group with eight participants, two recorders were used to secure the best possible sound.

The audio recorder is the most common equipment used when conducting focus groups in social research. Even though video recording might be tempting to use, in order to capture non-verbal communication and to distinguish between speakers easier, the quality of what a video camera actually captures is overestimated, according to Morgan (1997). Furthermore, the argument for using video recording needs to be convincing, since there is a greater invasion of privacy present when using it. Video set-ups often have a restraining influence on people in comparison to audio recorders that easily are forgotten after a while. In this study, a digital audio recorder was therefore chosen. Not having any recording equipment at all was not seen as a relevant option, since it was considered to be nearly impossible to capture the essence of the discussions in full then. After comparing advantages and disadvantages, the choice fell on the digital audio recorder, which is discreet in size, has good sound recording capacity and provides easy transfer of data onto the computer.

3.3 Analysis of the data

In this section the qualitative data analysis will be outlined. In line with Elo and Kyngäs' (2008) description, this process consisted of three major phases: 1) *Preparation*: transcription of focus group data and selection of unit of analysis, i.e. open-ended questions from the questionnaire and transcripts and evaluation of focus groups. Importing the selected data into NVivo software and reading to gain familiarity. 2) *Organising*: the data were regarded as equally important and analysed either through using content analysis (study I, III–IV) or narrative analysis (study II). Common categories (cf. study I & III), patterns (study II) and dimensions (study IV) in the responses were identified⁴³. Finally, a meta-synthesis of the four studies was conducted. 3) *Reporting*: reporting the process of analysis and the results in the form of four articles and a synthesis in the comprehensive summary (thesis). Table 3 illustrates the analysis process and the three phases.

Table 3 Three main phases of analysis

Preparation	Organising	Reporting
<p>Transcription Verbatim transcription of focus group discussions</p> <p>Selection of unit of analysis Survey: open ended questions</p> <p>Focus groups: transcript and evaluation</p> <p>Import to NVivo</p>	<p>Content analysis Open coding Categorisation Abstraction</p>	<p>Articles I, III–IV (4.1, 4.3–4.4)</p>
	<p>Narrative analysis, analysis of narratives</p>	<p>Article II (4.2)</p>
	<p>Meta-synthesis Integration of results and scrutiny in the light of practice theory and previous research</p>	<p>Integration of results (4.5) Synthesis: Induction practice (5.1)</p>

In the following I will describe in more detail the first two phases, starting from the transcription process in the preparation phase, followed by the procedure of analysis in connection to the separate studies (I–IV) in the organising phase. The results are reported in chapter 4 except for the synthesis of induction practice, which is presented and discussed in 5.1.

Preparation: transcription and unit of analysis

Transcribing oral language to written text is a very challenging process. Kvale (1996, 165–166) points out the following:

⁴³ See an overview of concepts used in qualitative content analysis in Graneheim & Lundman (2004).

Transcribing involves translating from an oral language, with its own set of rules, to a written language with another set of rules. Transcripts are not copies or representations of some original reality, they are interpretative constructions that are useful tools for given purposes.

The word, *transcribe*, means precisely to transform, to change from one form to another. Accordingly, there is no correct answer or standard form for how to transcribe. As Kvale (1996) states, the transcription process is interpretive, which means that the transcriber's own perceptions may influence the process. The researcher needs therefore to consider the purpose of the transcript, as well as to endeavour to be as true as possible to the collected data, but at the same time pragmatic in handling it. Scott et al. (2009) suggest from a pragmatic point of view, how laborious and time-consuming the transcribing of focus group data from an audio file may be. Certain difficulties may be to distinguish different voices in a large group of people and voice overlaps, especially if the recording quality is poor or the background noises loud. Several important decisions and judgements, thus, need to be taken by the researcher on the way. This will be presented and discussed below.

The collected material has been transcribed verbatim in its entirety in order to capture as much as possible of what was really said. Half of the focus group data was transcribed by the researcher and half by a hired typist. In order to accomplish as accurate transcripts as possible, written instructions were given to and carefully discussed with the typist in advance and during the process when questions came up. All the transcripts were carefully reviewed and edited by the researcher afterwards through listening to the recordings once again while checking the transcripts at the same time. Necessary corrections were then made. For instance, words could be corrected that the transcriber had not grasped, since she was not present during the sessions.

The transcripts have been written in accordance with the content, which means that the exact wording by the participants usually has been used. Bad grammar or incomplete sentences were not corrected in the text. All ums, mmms, repetitions, etc were included if they were not considered completely unnecessary or pointless in the context. Non-intrusive affirmations by others in the group or the facilitator were noted as well: [facilitator: mmm]. Events that interrupted the discussion have been noted in brackets: (telephone rings) and non-verbal, as well as emotional, elements are included in brackets: (laughter), (sarcastic), (upset). Emotional tone, such as, for instance, sarcasm, is important to document, according to Bazeley (2007), since verbatim speech otherwise may have an opposite meaning. If any word or sentence was inaudible, it was marked in the text with ####. Short pauses were noted with three following dots (...), whereas long pauses were noted in a bracket (long pause) and incomplete sentences followed by a new sentence were noted with two dots (..). Emphasis on a particular word was noted with an underscore. As a researcher I sometimes annotated the transcript in order to better remember what actually occurred, and these comments were specified with unique markers, e.g. <<comment>>. If there were non-relevant conversations (e.g. discussion about the next meeting), it was only noted in the text in a bracket as well as how long the discussion went

on. These carefully made transcripts facilitated the analysis process considerably, as misunderstandings in this way were prevented.

The transcripts were structured and organised by the researcher with the use of heading styles. Heading 1 was used for topic headings and Heading 2 for speaker names. This is essential in multi-person documents (e.g. focus groups) in order to be able to identify different speakers in NVivo software (Bazeley, 2007). This distinction was necessary, for instance, in study 2, where two teachers were selected for the narratives. After this, the full transcript comprised 509 single-spaced pages.

The analysis of the data started with a perusal of the survey responses. As described previously, the survey was completed first, and its main purpose was to narrow down the research problem and get an overall picture of the phenomenon from a larger group of newly qualified Finland-Swedish teachers. After this, the focus group sessions were held. Through the transcription process, in combination with writing summaries after each session held, acquaintance with the material was gained, and a fairly comprehensive picture of the data in its entirety was received. After having conceived this general picture of the material, both the qualitative part of the survey, as well as the focus group transcript was imported to QSR NVivo 8 (later updated to NVivo 9), which is a tool for approaching qualitative data (cf. Richards, 2005)⁴⁴. Marking the topics as heading style 1 in the transcripts enables auto coding in NVivo software, which was done as well. Auto coding (Bazeley, 2007), however, offers only a brief overview of the themes in the material and only those themes already disclosed. To be able to analyse the data in depth, the researcher needs to scrutinise the text closely. Therefore, I put the auto coded version aside and started to code the material from the “beginning”.

The categories presented in this thesis and the studies are documented with excerpts from the transcript. As the responses are originally in Swedish, a translation has been made by the researcher in all cases except for study II. The aim has been to provide as authentic a translation as possible. In consequence, some quotations may not be written with normal standards of written English, since it is based on transcriptions of a spoken discourse. When necessary, however, the readability of the quotations has been prioritised.

Organising: procedures of analysis

The four articles focusing on different aspects of induction were written to form a continuing whole, ranging from the first expectations and experiences of the profession to experiences of participating in peer-group mentoring. Emerging and important themes in one study could, therefore, in line with the abductive way of reasoning, be highlighted and deepened in the next. Different means of

⁴⁴ These kinds of programmes have been used since the 1980s by qualitative researchers and, of course, do not replace the role of the researcher, but instead support the process of analysis. One critique of these programmes is the danger of losing process elements. However, this is also the risk with ordinary cut and paste techniques (Catterall & Maclaran, 1997).

analysis came thus into focus in the separate studies even though the imported data in NVivo were first analysed in its entirety through using qualitative content analysis. Accordingly, narrative analysis came into focus in the second study and meta-synthesis or integration of the results in the comprehensive summary. In the following I will describe how the data were organised or analysed by these three means. Experiences from the data analysis really confirmed that the analysis is a process going back and forth, even though written out in text it may seem linear.

Qualitative content analysis

When analysing the data, *qualitative content analysis* was in general used and especially in three of the studies (I, III–IV). Content analysis is a common research method in many research traditions, from the beginning mainly quantitative. A qualitative approach has, though, often been used in nursing research and education⁴⁵ (cf. Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Lankshear & Knobel, 2004). The main difference between the two approaches is the research design. In quantitative content analysis the design is often deductive and linear, while in qualitative it is mainly inductive, following a spiral analysis model of design (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006). Initially, content analysis dealt with description of the manifest content of communication, but over time, and consistent with this study, it also includes interpretations of latent content to a variety of depth (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004).

In the inductive and interpretative analysis process of this study, I followed Elo and Kyngäs' (2008) description of *open coding*, *categorisation* and *abstraction*. First, *open coding* was conducted. The transcript was carefully read in detail, sentence by sentence and word by word, and coded with tentative names or concepts (codes). This initial and open coding procedure resulted in numerous codes (free nodes in NVivo), where each code was built up from the smallest possible meaning unit. The names of these codes were in this stage close to the empirical data. Many times the same or very similar concepts were used as in the participants' excerpts (so-called *in vivo* codes).

Thereafter, a more systematic coding or *categorisation* was realised in order to reduce the amount of data. The codes generated from the process of open coding were scrutinised and subcategories were created through sorting the codes into different groups (tree nodes in NVivo). The pieces of data were thus compared for similarities and differences and classified, through interpretation, to belong to different categories. In this way, codes with similar meaning were grouped into same subcategory. After this the list of subcategories was additionally grouped under higher order headings in the form of generic categories and main categories. This process of creating higher-level concepts can be labelled *abstraction* as it implies reaching a general description of the researched phenomenon through categorisation. In my study the process of abstraction was in the end also done in relation to theory in order to better understand the studied phenomenon. This can be seen in the fact that theoretical concepts sometimes

⁴⁵ Qualitative content analysis has also been used in connection with meta-synthesis, e.g. McNaughton (2000).

have been chosen as names for the main categories. At this final stage, and in the development of concepts and models for explaining the phenomenon, I often continued the analysis process outside NVivo as in this way it was easier to obtain a fuller picture of the phenomenon. Appendix 4 (1/2) exemplifies the analytical model used in study III. This model was a visual representation of the data and the relationships between the categories, although it was not included in the article.

Figure 7 illustrates the process of abstraction of one category in the first study (article I). See also the example of coding in NVivo in appendix 4 (2/2). The open coding is, due to limited space, exemplified merely for the first subcategory named *varied*. The teachers' expressions in the transcript (to the left in Figure 7) are translated from Swedish to English by the researcher.

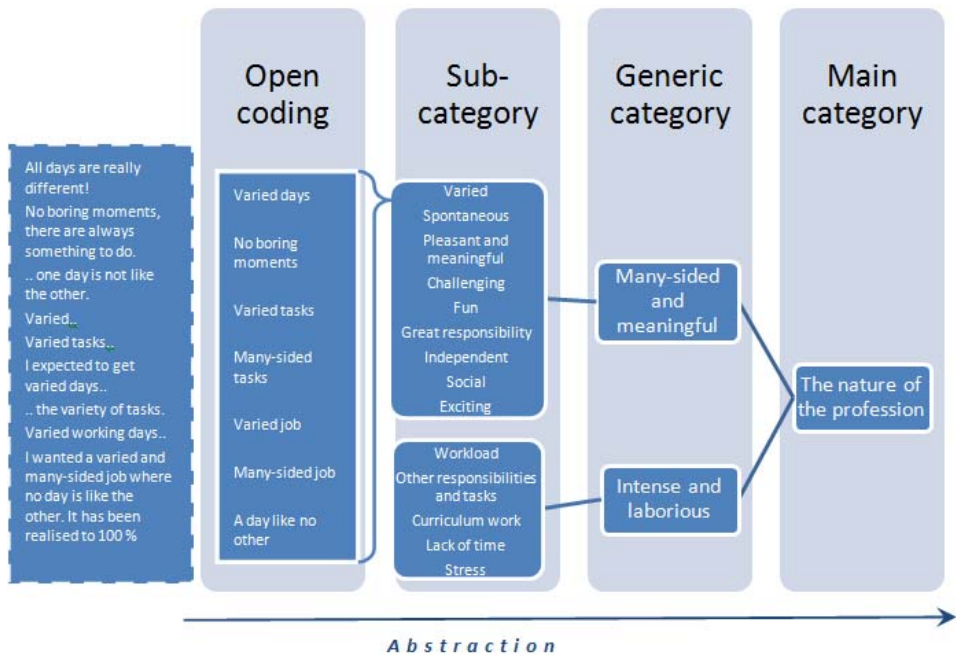


Figure 7 Example of abstraction.

In the first study, emphasis was put on NQTs' expectations on and experiences of the teaching profession. Consequently, the responses to the question focussing on this issue in the survey were taken as a starting point for analysis (see Appendix 1, question 15: Describe your expectations of the teaching profession and how these have been realised). Emerging categories in the qualitative content analysis process were later mirrored and checked against the analysed data in the research project as a whole. As a result, a thicker and more vivid description of the categories was possible. At the same time, the meta-analysis process in the study was facilitated.

As the results from the first two studies to a large extent highlighted teachers' social relations, the third study (article III) explicitly focused on this issue.

Therefore, all episodes from the two separate data sets where the new teachers talk about their experiences from their relationships within the profession were selected and examined inductively using qualitative content analysis. Common categories and patterns in the responses were identified and condensed and abstracted into three main categories of relationships. The results in the form of categories were laid out as a story, in order to present a more vivid and multifaceted portrayal of NQTs' social experiences during their first years. Illustrative quotes from the participants were thus integrated in italics with the accompanying category description.

The last study (article IV) focuses on collaboration and/or assessment in mentoring and describes the development of mentoring in Finland and Sweden. From the Finnish perspective, and subsequently included in the meta-synthesis of this thesis, the new teachers' experiences of taking part in collaborative forms of mentoring such as focus groups or peer-mentoring groups was highlighted. Here, the evaluation at the end of the school year was of importance for the analysis, in order to get a sense of what peer-group mentoring (focus groups) really had meant for the participants. This was not explicitly in focus or usually not expressed directly during the meetings. The participants were therefore offered the opportunity to write down freely their thoughts directly or shortly after their last meeting. Chiefly the same content analysis process was conducted in this study as previously described. The main difference was, however, that the evaluation concerned only the 16 participants that completed the focus groups. The result of the analysis was five main dimensions (see 4.4) describing NQTs' experiences of participating in mentoring. In reporting the dimensions illustrative quotes from three teachers and a mentor were selected as 'voices of experience'. These quotes were considered to be representative, and thick descriptions of the dimensions and experiences made. A later study, involving another group of Finland-Swedish NQTs and their experiences of peer-group mentoring, has confirmed the result from this study (Aspfors et al., 2011).

Narrative analysis

The analysis process in the second study (article II) was slightly different than the previous ones and can principally be designated as narrative analysis. Narrative research has its roots in the interpretative and hermeneutical tradition and is distinguished by a constructivist approach. It aims at understanding human action, through the configuration of diverse events, happenings and actions of humans into a thematically and unified whole or emplotted story (Polkinghorne, 1995). As such, it fits well into the design of the current study. In order to gain a deeper understanding of participants' experiences of working as newly qualified teachers, the study focused explicitly on two teachers' narratives of their experiences of entering the profession. Two teachers, who both participated in the questionnaire survey and the focus group meetings, were selected. In the selection process it was regarded as important that the teachers had participated in all meetings, but in different groups and likewise that their background and working contexts were of a similar kind, but their experiences nevertheless demonstrated different profiles. Taking these criteria into consideration, the choice of teachers was rather obvious.

The teachers' statements in both the questionnaire as well as in the focus groups were selected and analysed more closely. The analysis was conducted in line with Polkinghorne's (1995) two discerned means of analysis: narrative analysis and analysis of narratives. *Narrative analysis* is about the construction of a coherent narrative or story on the basis of collected data, in this case the selected data from the survey and focus groups. In working out the stories emphasis was placed on meaning units, i.e. those parts where the teachers own experiences were in focus. Accordingly, parts in the focus group discussions where the teachers had a subordinate role were removed or toned down. This process resulted in two stories where the new teachers' experiences were depicted. In the presentation of the stories, however, the voices of the teachers were blended with the researcher's, even though the endeavour was to use the teachers' own words and expressions (Chase, 2005). This is inevitable, but also necessary from an ethical perspective, which will be discussed further later in this chapter. The other form, *analysis of narratives*, means that existing narratives are analysed in order to find underlying categories or common themes. This can, with advantage, be done in connection to theory. When analysing the two narratives, five themes emerged as especially important for the new teachers. The themes were described with the help of theoretical concepts. When comparing these themes or categories with the data material in its entirety, it was evident that these issues were not only important for these two teachers, but for the participants in general. To conclude, the analysis process described has thus moved from elements to stories (narrative analysis) and from stories to common elements (analysis of narratives).

Meta-synthesis

After the preceding steps of narrative analysis and content analysis in the form of categorisation and abstraction in the four sub-studies (I–IV), the next was meta-synthesis and integrating the results in the comprehensive summary of this thesis. The main idea with meta-synthesis is to bring together primary studies at a more abstract level and to use as data the findings from these individual studies⁴⁶. It is thus a kind of “third level” interpretation, i.e. a synthesist's interpretation of original interpretations made in the primary studies (where the “first level” of interpretation is the participants' experiences, and the “second level” is the researcher's analysis of them). The ambition is a more comprehensive view; “theory development, higher level abstraction, and generalisability in order to make qualitative findings more accessible for application in practice” (Zimmer, 2006, 313). Meta-synthesis is thus a complement to individual studies, enabling clarification of concepts and a more complete interpretation of findings and a greater understanding. Therefore, it is preferable that the included studies are closely related both regarding focus (theme) and methodology. Studies using inductive principles are found to be more easily synthesised than others (Bondas & Hall, 2007b; Zimmer, 2006).

⁴⁶ Meta-syntheses are more commonly done on other researchers' conducted studies, but have previously been carried out also in compilation dissertations. See, for instance, Kylmä (2000).

In the first study (article I), we used the concept meta-analysis when we revisited the results from the two separate studies in order to synthesise an overall picture of student teachers' and newly qualified teachers' views of the profession. We thus conducted an analysis or interpretation of those categorisations or interpretations we already had done in the separate studies in order to integrate them on a more abstract level (cf. Cohen et al., 2000). However, in this comprehensive summary, I prefer to use the term meta-synthesis with the meaning of an *interpretive integration*⁴⁷ of the findings from the primary studies (I–IV) into a synthesis. When conducting this meta-synthesis I combine and apply the methods of both Noblit and Hare (1988) and Sandelowski and Barroso (2007). Integration means thus finding a central and sufficiently abstract category or concept that the findings from the individual studies, i.e. categories or concepts, can relate to and be integrated into. This process needs to be a cautious one, as at the same time it is important to maintain the particular contribution of each study. However, having conducted the initial studies myself, considerably facilitated the process of appraisal and how the key concepts are related (cf. Bondas, Hall & Wikberg, accepted for publication).

Table 8 visualises the integration process more concretely. The integrated result, in the form of four overall dimensions, is in the end interpreted into a synthesis from the perspective of previous research and the theoretical frame of reference (see 5.1). The synthesis as a whole is more than the parts alone. If the analysis of the sub-studies had inductive principles as a starting point, the final synthesis was thus completed in close connection to theory. In the following section the studies will be discussed from an ethical perspective.

3.4 Ethical considerations

Although some aspects of ethical considerations of relevance already have been briefly addressed, this section will provide a more focused discussion concerning trustworthiness in qualitative research in general and in this study in particular.

Good scientific practice in research has been emphasised more and more during recent years. One reason is a slight increase of cases of misconduct, which challenges the trust between science and society. Therefore, an emphasis on these questions can be noticed in the research community today. The European Science Foundation (ESF, 2000), an association whose purpose is to promote high quality science in Europe, is one amongst others highlighting these issues with recommendations for further actions. On a national level, the National Advisory Board on Research Ethics (2002, 2009) and Academy of Finland (2003) give directions in these matters⁴⁸. According to these instructions, a researcher should observe honesty, care and openness during the research

⁴⁷ Noblit and Hare (1988) use the concept of *reciprocal translation* for the translating of findings into each other, while Sandelowski and Barroso (2007) make use of *integration* (for an overview, see Bondas, Hall & Wikberg, accepted for publication).

⁴⁸ In Finland there are no formal requirements as yet to write an ethical protocol and get it accepted by an ethics committee before starting a research project. However, the same universally recognised ethical guidelines should be observed in Finland as anywhere else.

process as a whole, show consideration for other researchers' work and results, as well as plan, realise and report the research in detail.

The Swedish Research Council (2002) has, moreover, emphasised four core demands that deserves notice in qualitative research. The first is *demand of information*, which means that participants have the right to receive information about the aim of the research. The second, *demand of consent*, implies that participants have the right to decide about their participation in the research project. The third, *demand of confidentiality*, i.e. the protection of participants' privacy, denotes that all information about participants should be treated as strictly confidential. However, according to Kvale (1996), this is to some extent fraught with conflict, since in scientific research there is also a need to be able to reproduce and check results by other researchers and this is made difficult when there is no available information about participants and context. The fourth, *demand of use*, entails that the collected data only can be used for research purposes. These core demands will be discussed in connection to the current research study below.

Taking part in this research project was entirely voluntary for the teachers. The participants were informed of the research project, its aim, procedures and expected outcomes in both written and oral form (appendix 2, 2/3). As ethically correct research should not harm anything or anyone, especially not the participants in it, it is the researcher's responsibility to assure this will not happen. No signs or expressions of physical or mental suffering amongst the participants could be noticed during this research programme. Rather, the new teachers expressed gratitude for the help and support they had received from the focus group meetings and the interest that teacher education had showed them through this research project. From the point of view of likely positive outcomes of the research project for a large population of teachers and the limited negative effects on the participants, this study can thus be regarded as organised in agreement with good scientific practice in educational research.

The ethical considerations are the same in focus groups as for any other method of qualitative research. One unique ethical issue is, however, that they are not fully confidential or anonymous, since the issues are shared with others in the group (Gibbs, 1997; Morgan, 1997; Wibeck, 2000). The demands for confidentiality therefore need special attention in my research, since the respondents participate, both in the questionnaire survey and in the focus groups sessions, with private as well as professional information that needs to be handled carefully.

What is experienced as a sensitive subject is, according to Wibeck (2000), very individual, differing from person to person. Therefore, it is very much up to the facilitator to be cautious in the discussions with the participants. Two contradictory purposes should be met: that the participants will discuss with each other and that shy participants will not be put under too much pressure. Therefore it is essential, especially in focus groups, to discuss these issues with the participants in the beginning. What is said in the group should stay in the group. An agreement of this was made in each group before starting the

discussions. Vital for me as a researcher is then to make the data anonymous, nor should the participants or their schools be recognised in the final text.

Since the sessions were recorded it was necessary to decide from the beginning who would have access to the files (Morgan, 1997). This was limited to the researcher alone and the typist who transcribed five of the sessions. After the transcriptions were finished, the digital audio files were transferred to the researcher's computer and deleted from the typist's computer. In order to make her work easier, the typist transcribed the participant's correct first names, as they often figured in the discussions. The names were, however, made fictitious immediately when the researcher received the transcripts and have been kept so ever since, from when the analysis was done in Nvivo software. Any mention of other teachers, school or municipality with names has not been deleted from the transcripts. However, if these are needed for a larger audience, they will be erased from the data. In general, documents such as written summaries, which were written after each session and sent to the participants, and names of participants, have been made fictitious and their schools made anonymous. The typist never received information about the participants' surnames or in which school they work if this was not discussed specifically by the participants themselves.

Translating quotes into English is an advantage in this case, since it makes the statements more anonymous when particular Swedish dialects and the structure of the language itself changes. The two narratives in the second study (article II) are an exception, as this article is written in Swedish. Presenting results in the form of narratives has its pros and cons. The positive part is the opportunity to portray new teachers' experiences in a vivid, multifaceted and more authentic way, where the reader can closely feel all the experiences and feelings the teacher goes through. This is desirable in this study, as the aim is to elucidate new teachers' experiences. The challenge from an ethical perspective is, at the same time, that it might be easier to recognise who the teacher is or the context where the story takes place. It is thus a fragile balancing act, where the researcher needs to smooth the text from aspects of recognition while at the same time keeping the story interesting and vivid. Consideration of the possible positive and negative outcomes is thus of utmost significance.

In this particular case the writing process started with putting together all relevant pieces of data from the survey and the focus groups concerning the two individual teachers. The narratives were then created through a process where the text step by step was condensed or configured (cf. Polkinghorne, 1995) to form a story blended with the researcher's voice. The stories are told from the perspective of the NQTs and their experiences of working their first few years. Hence, the stories comprise experiences from several different school settings, but nevertheless with an emphasis on the most recent. The reality is in this way filtered through the eyes of that specific teacher, but also interpreted by the researcher writing it. The purpose is to catch general features describing NQTs' experiences that the reader is able to recognise, without recognising the persons taking part. After the stories were written, they were sent to the two teachers concerned for proofreading and commenting. Both the teachers accepted the narratives with only some minor changes. The narratives were elaborated

together with the co-authors and were also read by other researchers in order to make possible improvements. After publishing, the two teachers involved were sent one book each as a sign of gratitude for contributing to the study.

Trustworthiness

The ultimate goal for a researcher is to present as trustworthy results as possible. However, ever since qualitative and interpretive research has become more common, there seems to be a lively debate partly regarding the scientific value of qualitative research and partly regarding the concepts and procedures used to describe the measures for achieving trustworthiness (cf. Angen, 2000; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). The quality of the scientific research within the quantitative tradition is commonly discussed in terms of *reliability*, *validity* and *generalisability* - the “holy trinity”. Validity has commonly been understood as how well an instrument measures what it is meant to measure, reliability about the consistency and repeatability over time concerning instrument and respondents, whereas generalisability concerns the capacity to generalise the results to other circumstances (cf. Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

Within the qualitative research tradition the strategies seem, according to Angen (2000), to range from either adopting the quantitative criteria directly or altogether disregarding validity as an issue in qualitative approaches. In between, there are those who strive to legitimate their qualitative research without surrendering to the authority of positivism. For instance, Maxwell (2002) emphasises that qualitative researchers should not work within the premises of quantitative research. He prefers therefore to use concepts such as *authenticity* and *understanding* instead of validity. Validity is, according to him, more connected to accounts instead of data or methods. Moreover, Miles and Huberman (1994) place reliability on an equal footing with *dependability* and *auditability*. In the same way, they place internal validity on a par with *credibility* and *authenticity*, and external validity with *transferability* and *fittingness*. Similarly, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) assert that internal and external validity within the interpretive paradigm should be replaced by terms such as *trustworthiness* and *authenticity*. Graneheim and Lundman (2004) conclude that even if the concepts validity, reliability and generalisability are still frequently used in connection with qualitative content analysis (the method mostly used in this study), they should be replaced with the above mentioned concepts of credibility, dependability and transferability.

Cohen et al. (2000) acknowledge, in line with many other researchers, that the discussion surrounding validity and reliability as concepts can be regarded as multi-faceted and ambiguous, since they can be used in so many different ways. Long and Johnson (2000, 31) even claim that, irrespective of research tradition, validity and reliability have principally “the same essential meaning”, which is why there is no use of changing labels. Angen (2000) has, however, in a useful way synthesised the past validity discussion within interpretive approaches to concern ethical and substantive procedures of validation. She uses the term validation intentionally in order to emphasise the evaluation of trustworthiness or the process of confirmation as “a continuous process occurring within a community of researchers” (p. 387). Interpretive research is above all a moral

issue, a question of *ethical validation* in that it deals with human conditions and life worlds to which we should provide “practical, generative, possibly transformative and hopefully non-dogmatic answers” (p. 389). Correspondingly, *substantive validation* is about how carefully, thoroughly and comprehensively a researcher can provide evidence for the interpreted and presented results. At the same time, the text should evoke a “feeling of authenticity, a smile of recognition, or an aha experience” amongst the readers (p. 391).

From an interpretive perspective, trustworthiness thus becomes rather a question of pragmatic and moral concern ahead of methodology and specific criteria (Angen, 2000). Trustworthiness can accordingly be achieved, or at least promoted, by ethical consciousness and carefully documenting of the research process and findings. The methodological chapter of this thesis is therefore rather comprehensive and detailed in order to inform the reader about the procedures carried out.

4 Results

In this chapter the results from studies (I–IV) are presented. More specifically, NQTs’ experiences of the profession in the transition from education to work (4.1, study I), experiences of the first encounters with school and classroom (4.2, study II), experiences of relationships within the school community (4.3, study III) and experiences of support gained through peer-group mentoring (4.4, study IV). Only the findings included in the meta-synthesis and based on my own empirical data are presented. A few selected quotes in italics are used as illustrations, but for the most part no quotes are used in this description as they are available in the original articles. An integration of the results describing NQTs’ induction experiences completes the chapter (4.5).

4.1 Study I: Experiences of the profession in the transition from education to work

When asking NQTs to describe their expectations on the teaching profession and how these have been realised in the transition from education to work, three main categories were identified: 1) the nature of the profession, 2) relationships, and 3) professional development. Each category comprises a dichotomous pair of subcategories, one more positively and one more negatively loaded. Thus, a vacillation between the two dichotomous pairs of categories seems to be characteristic of the teachers’ responses.

The nature of the profession

The new teachers find the nature of the teaching profession itself to be what they expected, i.e. *many-sided and meaningful*. They believe the profession is varied, fun, pleasant, meaningful, exciting, independent, spontaneous, challenging, social and constituting great responsibility. At the same time, the new teachers find the profession unexpectedly *intense and laborious*. Many teachers experience the work load as surprisingly heavy and the lack of time unexpected. They had expected a lot of work in the beginning but they could not imagine how time-consuming everything really is. They are surprised about all other responsibilities and tasks, in addition to teaching, that they have to undertake as teachers, such as curriculum work. Some of the teachers also talk about the general stress in the teaching profession.

Relationships

The desire to become a teacher often derives from a wish to teach and to work closely with children. These aspirations are reflected in the category *close and harmonious relationships*, where NQTs’ expectations and experiences of their relationships with pupils have been realised in a positive way. They consider the teaching process as the core of their work and the direct interaction with pupils as well as the privilege to closely follow pupils’ learning and development the most rewarding part of their profession. Furthermore, they emphasise the importance of establishing good relationships with colleagues, parents and others involved inside and outside the school community. Above all, the support from colleagues is underlined as a prerequisite for a successful start to their teaching career, but harmonious relationships with parents facilitate this as well.

The other side displays a more distressing picture, with *distanced and fragmented relationships*. The new teachers are surprised about how much time they spend on upbringing instead of teaching the pupils. Some teachers are also quite taken aback by how much they have to struggle with, for instance, classroom management and discipline. It seems to be difficult to establish a calm working atmosphere, especially in large teaching groups. Demanding and disruptive pupils, pupil welfare, conflicts and the variety of pupils are aspects referred to that make it difficult to establish good relationships with pupils. In the school arena similar tendencies can be seen. As much as relationships with colleagues and parents might be supportive in the beginning, they can also be challenging and even difficult. Colleagues and parents' lack of cooperation and commitment, in some cases resistance, contribute to distanced and fragmented relationships. Furthermore, some teachers even report being attacked, insulted and/or harassed.

Professional development

Initial teacher education aims to provide a basic educational and professional foundation. However, as the teachers in this study express, *continuous growth* within the profession is also necessary, i.e. to constantly learn and develop in the profession, develop cognitive and social skills and gradually create a more distinct teacher identity. Parallel to the awareness of the necessity of constant development, the new teachers also express an *inadequate preparedness* for the profession. Experiences of too little practice, a far too theoretical, and in some cases, unrealistic teacher education, insufficient knowledge about parental contacts, assessment, violent children and pupils with special needs are examples given of the weaknesses in preparing teachers. In addition, some teachers thought the education and the teaching practice provided them with an incorrect picture of the reality as they experienced pressure from a too heavy burden of planning teaching, large teaching groups and inadequate resources.

To sum up, the initially high and somewhat romanticised expectations of the profession become, with gradually expanding experiences, more nuanced, realistic, and even somewhat disillusioned. The teachers are surprised about how great a proportion of teachers' work is concerned with relational factors, both well-functioning, as well as dysfunctional ones. At the same time, the work is permeated by multiple competing tasks and some NQTs feel that they are not fully prepared to take on all the demands of the job. In the transition from education to work, NQTs' views of the profession appear therefore to be characterised as mostly *relational–emotional* and *tensional–mutable*.

4.2 Study II: Experiences of the first encounters with school and classroom

In the narratives, reflecting two teachers' unique and individual experiences of being newly qualified, five common patterns could be distinguished that also have parallels in the narratives of other NQTs. These were found to be 1) intensification, 2) mutability, 3) particularity, 4) competency building, and 5) enthusiasm.

Intensification

The intense pace and rapid changes of late modern society have also affected the school's operational structure. Intensification, a term used by Hargreaves (1998), forces teachers to meet increasing demands, to make more and more decisions under mounting pressure of time, and to take on more responsibilities. Teachers feel that new tasks are supplied without reduction of or changes in previous tasks. As teachers are continuously forced to seek temporary solutions to buy time, intensification tends to counteract professionalism, to reduce the quality of work and to increase teachers' uncertainty. The experience of intensification has been given attention in research as a general dilemma among teachers and especially among new teachers.

The two teachers both notice that the processes of intensification concern the whole school, not just them as new teachers. Both describe how different tasks and extra-curricular activities pile up. One is critical of the uneven distribution of tasks among colleagues; she feels that the responsibility could be more evenly shared. The other feels that teachers to some extent themselves create and maintain many of these new tasks. Their inability to prioritise and their fear of conflict underpin intensification in the same way as the mentality of competition among colleagues also contributes to this. Teachers pressure themselves to meet the perceived requirements. Intensification is thus often confused with professionalism, in that it carries the illusion of efficiency, even if it is fundamentally deprofessionalising.

Mutability

Another pattern that already Lortie (1975), and several other researchers note (e.g. Gholami, 2009) is the diffuse and complex character of the teaching profession. Distinctions are difficult to make because the conditions are constantly changing. This instability is closely related to the previous pattern, but here the complexity of the teaching profession is even more obvious. The work is full of diverse tasks that simultaneously need to be addressed. Where should one draw the line on how far a particular case should be brought? How to deal with situations where a whole range of issues are raised at the same time?

One of the teachers experiences the teaching profession to be especially demanding as it is characterised precisely as a 'never-ending story', with no clear ending. The fact that teachers invest so much of themselves in their profession, combined with an unclear definition of what constitutes a good job performance, makes the teacher vulnerable and insecure. The new teacher has to form his/her own opinion about what constitutes good work and an adequate performance with the help of own experiences and indirect and direct responses from pupils, colleagues, parents and others. The need for positive and confirmatory feedback, and the need to have someone to discuss ideas and plans with is therefore great. This is evident in both of the stories.

Particularity

The third pattern is the tendency within a school culture to form various types of groups that among themselves can establish close relations, while at the same

time excluding others. These groups can be established, for instance, on the basis of age, status or subject. Various terms have been used for this phenomenon of demarcation, such as balkanisation (Hargreaves, 1998). However, with reference to Gholami (2009), the term particularity is chosen in this study. Like the two previous concepts, this one is also negatively charged.

One of the teachers works at a school that reflects a particularistic teacher culture, which is individualistic, controlling and tradition-bound in a way that limits the scope of action. The school's traditions are highly regarded and particularity appears especially when the new teacher violates established conventions. This happens, e.g. when she at one time proposes changes for the Christmas party programme. As a result, she is effectively excluded from the preparations. If a school has established a limited space of action, new teachers risk, depending on their behaviour and attitude, to either fall outside the community or to be quickly socialised into the narrow school culture (cf. Gholami, 2009). The teacher's desire to do things her way leads in this case to her exclusion. In another example, particularity emerges in relation to the educational background the teachers at the school have. An older colleague in a parallel class is a seminar-trained teacher and thus lacks an academically-based teacher education. According to the new teacher, the age difference, combined with different educational background, is one reason for their having difficulty in co-operating. At one point her colleague makes the following comment: *These young teachers keep saying that we mustn't do things the way we used to. I think it is good to do as we always have.* The colleague is thus reluctant to leave the well-established but narrow scope of action that permeates the school.

Even if a particularistic teacher culture to some extent protects the individual teacher against criticism from other teachers, it can also prevent praise and encouragement, since lack of collaboration means that teachers do not have insight into each other's work. This can be quite devastating for new teachers in the process of forming their teacher identity. Both teachers express the need to have somebody there for personal and professional support and as a sounding-board.

Competency building

Alongside everyday problem situations that need to be handled and resolved, there is also a development taken place as the two teachers develop different strategies to cope with their challenges. Reflections on the experiences gained increase teachers' awareness of which solutions and approaches work best for them. This is expressed in the fourth pattern, competency building. The concept is linked to Fessler and Christensen's (1992) dynamic model of teacher's career development. In the narratives both a pedagogical as well as a personal dimension of competency building could be identified.

Concerning *pedagogical competency building*, the two teachers show completely different profiles when it comes to entrance into the profession. One experienced, as a newly qualified teacher, that she has the necessary knowledge and skills required for the job. However, this gradually changes. She notices how demanding it is in practice to cope with the amount of concrete tasks. This

uncertainty opens the way to a more realistic approach to work and a gradual awareness of how much she still has to learn. This experience therefore holds a competency-forming potential.

The other teacher, on the contrary, feels initially small, insecure and inadequate in her role as teacher. She is surprised by the diversity of work, which is overwhelming for her view of the profession. The problems she faces, struggles with and in part also resolves, strengthen her and are thus part of her competency building. When it comes to more *personal competency building*, she develops the courage to speak up. She comes into a tense relationship with her older colleague to the point where she decides to no longer give way, but instead confront her. Although the confrontation was a shattering experience and gives her doubts about her career, this event and others contribute to her increasing ability to cope with adversities. Thereby she is also strengthened in her role as a teacher.

Enthusiasm

Despite many difficulties, the teachers also experience inspiration and joy, especially in relation to the pupils. The teacher-pupil contact contributes to increased enthusiasm over their work, which is the fifth pattern identified. The concept is, as the previous one, based on Fessler and Christensen's (1992) model of teacher's career development. Enthusiasm describes a condition characterised by enthusiasm and a strong positive interest in teachers' work.

The first teacher gets on very well with her pupils, wants to gain their confidence and experiences meeting with them as the most valuable part of working as a teacher. Her inspiration and desire to continue in the profession, despite difficulties with some colleagues, comes from these teacher-pupil contacts. The second teacher also gets her inspiration from working with her pupils, but especially when she feels that they together have made progress in some way. On top of this, she also finds the encouragement from colleagues and good response from parents inspiring. A further source for enthusiasm is the satisfaction she experiences when she finally enters the profession she is educated for. She describes herself as a teacher with a capital T. In fact, she is so integrated with her role as a teacher that the distinction between professional and private life at one point becomes a matter of great concern.

The five patterns identified are linked to two main arenas, one *classroom arena* and one *school arena*. The first group of patterns, linked to the school arena, concern the difficult situations new teachers face, and comprise all school activities, including the diversity and quantity of tasks that come with the profession, as well as the relationships with colleagues and parents. The second group, which includes especially the development and satisfaction teachers experience in the profession, are, however, largely within the classroom arena, i.e. in the daily work in the class, in the teaching and in the contact with pupils. The arenas are not static or widely separated, but mutually affect each other. The contrast therefore helps us to capture experiences that are both inspiring and frustrating.

4.3 Study III: Experiences of relationships within the school community

Newly qualified teachers' experiences of their relationships within the school community during their first years at work were explored. Three main relationships which illuminate tensions of paradoxes were found: 1) Caring about – nurturance or exclusion, 2) Reciprocity – expansive or restrictive, and 3) Caring for – joy or exhaustion.

Caring about – nurturance or exclusion

The first relationship was called 'caring about', and focuses on the NQT's needs to be cared for by others. The relationship includes a spectrum of tensions ranging from nurturance to exclusion, thus involving both well-being and ill-being for the NQT.

Vital and nurturing leadership

Above all, management and leadership are vital when introducing a new colleague to the school. The chosen approach taken by any school in terms of introduction and support for an NQT will indicate what type of leadership a school encompasses. Accordingly, leadership is a decisive factor for the whole school community: *if the leadership is clear and purposeful, and the collaboration and sense of responsibility is high, both teachers and pupils benefit.*

Collegial reception and support

Besides regular introduction, appreciation is articulated regarding the reception, support and help colleagues in general have offered. This gives new teachers positive energy and strength. Many have also made good friends with their colleagues. For some the support has even been a question of survival. Furthermore, to be taken care of, and the fact that fellow teachers and principals are interested, listen, understand and show consideration, are valued.

Positive recognition

The statements of the teachers indicate the importance of being recognised as a new member and as a human being. To feel needed, accepted, appreciated and to gain credence with the people surrounding them is necessary and invaluable in the beginning of a career. A source of recognition is the positive response gained. The feedback from pupils is often of a more immediate character, whilst that is not always the case when it comes to colleagues. The teachers agree that there is not much positive feedback needed as long as one is recognised at least somehow.

Lack of recognition and trust

However, not everyone receives positive recognition in the beginning. The difficulty is not always merely lack of recognition, but rather the opposite: to feel questioned or not fully accepted in the community. Too high expectations in combination with not being fully trusted are also a dilemma. Consequently, there seems to be a performance culture in many schools, a pressure to perform as

well as the other teachers, and *try to be “good teachers”*. To some extent they also feel the expectations and demands from outside school, from parents and others. In general, people's opinions about school and teachers' work are frustrating according to the new teachers.

Harassment and the need for putting your foot down

There is also a darker side to the school community, as there are occasional examples of insult or deprecation. Some responses reflect critique, accusations, or even attacks. Conflicts, power games and clique and cluster formations in the staff room, together with backbiting and bullying are thus experienced as unpleasant. The need to “put your foot down” in the beginning and in relations with others is therefore described in metaphorical terms by the new teachers. To have courage and not to be afraid to speak up, ask questions or make demands is consequently important. To keep a level head and not compare yourself with others or care what others think about you is of equal importance.

Demanding contacts and legal proceedings

Parental contact is appreciated, but described in somewhat guarded terms. The contact may be experienced as demanding and sometimes difficult. Parents' negative attitudes may have a great impact not only on the teacher, but also on the pupil. The contact with the pupils' homes with different kinds of difficulties, such as, for instance, alcoholism, is deemed to be particularly demanding. Another dilemma is the tendency amongst parents to more frequently start legal proceedings against teachers.

Reciprocity – expansive or restrictive

The second relationship, ‘reciprocity’, refers to dynamic interchange and interaction based on equality between members of the school community. The relationship includes a tension between expansive and restrictive reciprocal actions. This means that the relationship can either be experienced as mutual and close or distanced and fragmented.

Reciprocal collaboration

The meaning of collegial collaboration and discussions, joint planning and having a sounding board are particularly stressed. Cooperation between colleagues may sometimes even compensate a mentor. Reciprocity may also be found between the teacher and pupil.

Open and positive atmosphere

The importance of a permissive and open atmosphere, where everybody is equal, shows mutual respect, takes responsibility and helps each other is emphasised. A good school climate, a spirit of community and informal socialising are crucial. The significance of humour and laughter is also highlighted. The teachers appreciate commitment and a progressive approach to their work and amongst their colleagues and pupils. This encourages and influences their efforts.

Sporadic contact and resistance

The other side of the coin seems to be school environments that are characterised by sporadic contact. The new teachers would like to plan together and share teaching material, but colleagues who mind their own business or are reluctant to collaborate make this difficult. Furthermore, an unhealthy, uncomfortable working climate, and in some cases grudging colleagues, lack of commitment, lack of motivation and even resistance is illustrated. Portrayals of tradition-bound schools and colleagues who are afraid of change are exemplified.

Different perspectives and one-way communication

A young teacher may experience the age difference as difficult when collaborating with much older colleagues or meeting parents. If new teachers do not have children of their own, they may feel insecure and not trusted. Teacher education is frequently blamed for not providing enough training for contact with parents. Another concern voiced is to be forced to collaborate with school assistants/teachers who are not thinking in the same way, as this makes the work harder than it should be. Lack of understanding and different perspectives, views and values are also additional reasons for insufficient collaboration. Although classroom assistants can be an invaluable support, they may also contribute to extra work, in the form of supervision and even disturbance in the classroom. The frequent use of assistants in school ahead of additional teachers was criticised. A dilemma pointed to is that parental contact often becomes a one-way communication or solely concerns negative matters. Collaboration becomes difficult if the parents are not involved enough in their child's school work.

Caring for – joy or exhaustion

The third relationship is called 'caring for' and is often noticeable in the teachers' desire to become a teacher in the first place, as the reasons often derive from a wish to teach and to work closely with children. The relationship contains, however, a tension between the joy and delight of working as a caring teacher and the exhaustion and tiredness it may cause simultaneously.

Close and fruitful relationships with pupils

The importance of getting to know others, being sensitive, understanding, humble, empathetic and willing to help especially children is described. Pleasant and close contact with the pupils is also stressed. Furthermore, the teachers describe the appreciation of being part of children's lives. One teacher explained that he himself is happy if the pupils are.

Inspiring and rewarding learning and development

The teachers describe true enjoyment when meeting happy and excited children who yearn to explore, discover and learn. In particular, the pupils' expectancy, interest and motivation are encouraging, as are also the true satisfaction of following and being part of pupils' experiences and learning, their progress and success.

Full of confidence and respect

In the relation to the pupils, the necessity to work with prerequisites for learning is particularly stressed. There is an awareness of the importance of establishing rapport with the pupils, to get to know them well, as this will be paid back later during the lessons. Furthermore, there is a need to gain pupils' trust, to be clear, friendly but firm, and let them take responsibility.

Demanding classroom management and upbringing

Although close relationships with children are very important for the teacher, caring can at the same time be very exhausting and emotionally draining. Some teachers describes the meeting with the children as difficult, whereas others describe being too nice in the beginning. Classroom management and commanding respect are thus difficult, in particular with large teaching groups. Some of the difficulties are depicted as questions of upbringing. Bad conscience and feelings of insufficiency are also common if the teachers feel they fail to manage what they have made up their minds to do.

Challenging pupil behaviour

A tendency of more noise, uproar, chaos and yelling among pupils is portrayed. The challenging behaviour of some pupils seems to cause frustration and disorder in the classroom. The struggle with these individual pupils is what makes the teachers tired. To get unmotivated pupils interested and help them care about their future is thus difficult. The belief that children are different nowadays is indicated.

Difficulties in meeting individual needs

As the number of children with special needs is rising, more attention to special education in teacher education is called for. To meet the needs of every pupil and to pay equal attention to everyone in the classroom is found difficult. As composite classes are common in the Finnish school setting, many face the challenge of individualisation. Some teachers also feel frustrated about not having the possibility to work with gifted children.

4.4 Study IV: Experiences of support through peer-group mentoring

In recent years peer-group mentoring seems to have become the dominant model of mentoring in Finland. What are then the experiences of new teachers and a mentor participating in this form of mentoring? Five main dimensions, accompanied by voices of experience by those taking part in peer-group mentoring (focus groups), were highlighted: 1) Sharing experiences and discussing important pedagogical questions, 2) Reciprocity and equality, 3) Formal, informal and non-formal learning, 4) Dialogue and collaboration, 5) No need for further mentoring.

The first one brings forth the *pedagogical dimension* of peer-group mentoring, i.e. the importance of having a forum where experiences can be shared and important pedagogical questions discussed with other new teachers and a

mentor. The need for a bridge between teacher education and professional life as a teacher is thus emphasised. In a mentor group where it is not possible to address specific details it is necessary to raise the problems and queries to a general level in order to see larger wholes and to make others understand. This exemplifies the essence of peer-group mentoring, namely the explication of practical knowledge. In reflecting on and evaluating one's own work and experiences, necessary self-regulative knowledge develops (Heikkinen et al., 2010).

The second dimension reflects *reciprocity and equality* in peer-group mentoring. From the perspective of NQTs feeling inexperienced, ordinary discussions amongst colleagues in school can be viewed as unequal. It is not obvious to dare to express views and thoughts in front of more experienced colleagues, who "know" best, especially in the increasingly hectic everyday life of schools. In a group of new teachers it is consequently easier to feel equal since all are in a similar position and you are not alone in sometimes feeling a sense of inadequacy. For the newly qualified it is thus important to have time for these kinds of discussions and reflections and for raising important issues without being interrupted by other more experienced teachers. To have the opportunity to listen to others and reciprocally give and receive advice is viewed as essential.

The third dimension illuminates the integration of *formal, informal and non-formal learning* in peer-group mentoring. The mentoring sessions are experienced as an appropriate combination of informal and formal learning and theoretical and practical knowledge. The role of the mentor is here to facilitate the new teacher's learning and solving of problems. Even though the mentor is more experienced, the role is not to transfer "right" solutions, beliefs or knowledge, but to empower teachers by listening to them and sharing their experiences. Finding new perspectives and gaining new knowledge is also constructive for the mentor. Solutions to new teachers' challenges can be found by explaining problems to others in the group.

The fourth dimension depicts the *dialogue and collaboration* between the mentor and newly qualified teachers. The process of peer-group mentoring can be a highly dynamic and challenging process for the mentor. It can be compared to a game that the players can neither completely control nor foresee. As Gadamer puts it (1975), while contributing to the play, the player is also being played along by the other players: "(...) by the countless moves, reversals, anticipations, constraints, surprises, nuances of meaning etc. which animate the play and give it its ever-emergent character as an interplay" (Hogan, 2010, 3). This is a good description of a dialogue taking place in peer-group mentoring. The mentor needs to consciously decide not to dominate or control the group. Being a peer-group mentor therefore involves a constant balance between leadership and equality.

The fifth dimension highlights that *not every newly qualified teacher feels that they are in need of mentoring*, especially if collaboration amongst colleagues corresponds to and meets the needs of the teacher. This clearly shows how important support from colleagues really is. The overall professional culture in

schools thus has a strong influence on new teachers, in the same way as it has on the success of mentoring (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000).

The Finnish initiative for support in the induction phase, i.e. peer-group mentoring, draws on the idea of professional autonomy as collective meaning-making and will-formation. If teachers are recognised as highly competent in terms of professional ethics and pedagogical expertise, there is little need for systematic control or inspection. In such a situation NQTs do not need to be assessed or evaluated. The experiences of NQTs reflect this professional autonomy and an appreciation of peer-groups as learning communities in which formal, informal and non-formal learning take shape. The national initiative of peer-group mentoring in Finland thus reveals a different approach than the initiative taken in Sweden, which includes a probationary year, registration and assessment of new teachers.

4.5 Integration of results

What is then the collected picture of induction or the first years in the profession when scrutinising the results presented in the articles? Especially four common dimensions seem to permeate the studies and emerge when they are integrated. Induction can, according to the experiences of NQTs, be characterised as 1) *relational – emotional*, 2) *tensional – mutable*, 3) *instructive – developmental* and 4) *reciprocal – professional*. I refer to dimension as a concept of a collected unity on a more abstract level, without any clear boundaries, rather referring to a continuous and flexible whole (cf. Oxford English Dictionary). The dimensions are shortly described and exemplified with tables comprising the categories or patterns previously presented in the studies. More specific arguing for the selected dimensions will follow in the text below the tables.

Table 4 Categories integrated in the relational – emotional dimension

Relational – emotional
Close and harmonious – distanced and fragmented (I)
Particularity (II)
Enthusiasm (II)
Caring about: Nurturance – exclusion (III)
Caring for: joy – exhaustion (III)

This dimension emerged already in the meta-analysis of the first study (article I) and captures the highly social character of induction and teacher's work, more specifically the quality of the interpersonal relationships, culture and atmosphere of the social working environment. At the same time, it emphasises the emotional character intimately intertwined. The findings illustrate the balancing act between being nurtured and enthusiastic or excluded and exhausted from the relational–emotional involvement. The patterns are somewhat different, depending on whether the relationship concerns adults or pupils. The relational–emotional feature was distinct in all of the studies; however, the fourth study

deals more with the professional relationships in mentoring and is therefore discussed from this perspective in the fourth dimension.

Table 5 Categories integrated in the tensional – mutable dimension

Tensional – mutable
Many-sided and meaningful – Intense and laborious (I) Intensification (II) Mutability (II)

The second dimension also became visible in the meta-analysis of the first study (article I) and illustrates the intense pace of induction, together with the diffuse and unclear character of a teacher’s job. At the same time as the induction period is experienced as many-sided and meaningful in many ways, it also contributes to feelings of uncertainty and inadequacy amongst the NQTs as they experience the workload as demanding and time for the work as limited. In particular, this concerns the duties and tasks that surround teaching. The tensional–mutable character is highlighted especially in the first two studies, but is evident in the data in its entirety.

Table 6 Categories integrated in the instructive – developmental dimension

Instructive – developmental
Continuous growth – inadequate preparedness (I) Competency building (II) Formal, informal and non-formal learning (IV)

The third dimension depicts induction as a unique and intensive phase of learning, maturity and professional development. The teachers are developing strategies and skills to handle the work, collect insights and knowledge, and gradually become stronger, more experienced and skilled. In parallel, NQTs also experience deficiencies or inadequacies in their pre-service teacher education. The necessity of induction as a developmental and learning phase becomes obvious as teacher education can only provide a basis for continuous learning in the profession. Part of the knowledge and skills a teacher needs are such that they only can be gained in practice. The instructive–developmental feature commonly permeates the NQTs’ experiences and is explicitly highlighted in three of the studies.

Table 7 Categories integrated in the reciprocal – professional dimension

Reciprocal – professional
Reciprocity: expansive – restrictive (III)
Reciprocity and equality (IV)
Sharing experiences and discussing important pedagogical questions (IV)
Dialogue and collaboration(IV)
No need for further mentoring (IV)

The fourth dimension is from the NQTs’ perspective, stressing the importance of reciprocity and collaboration in induction, both formally and informally. The equal, dialogical and reciprocal character of peer-group mentoring was appreciated by those teachers participating, but collaboration and reciprocity were also highlighted as essential in the general work at schools, as they facilitate NQT’s entering into the profession. The last category exemplifies this, as the contextual support given at school to some extent can substitute the need for mentoring. The wish for a reciprocal–professional feature permeates the relationships, but is above all stressed in the last two studies.

Table 8 gives an overview of the included studies (articles I–IV), their focus, data, analysis method, as well as the main results. The data column discloses which data collection and number of participants that have been included in each study. For instance, in study II and III the questionnaire and focus groups are equally important, whereas in study I the initial focus is on one question in the questionnaire (76 responses), from which the results then have been mirrored against the data material in its entirety (focus groups included). The number of participants range from 17 in the focus groups to 76–88 in the questionnaire. Study IV is primarily based on the evaluation of focus groups. The right column shows the rationale for the integration of results.

Table 8. Overview of including studies and results

Study	Focus	Data	Data analysis method	Results	Integration of results
I Aspfors, J., Bendtsen, M., Hansén, S-E. & Sjöholm, K. (2011). <i>Evolving views of the teaching profession - Voices from student teachers and newly qualified teachers.</i>	Expectations on and experiences of the profession in the transition from education to work	Questionnaire (Focus groups) 76 teachers (17 teachers)	Qualitative content analysis/Meta-analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Nature of the profession: Many-sided and meaningful intense and laborious - Relationships: Close and harmonious – distanced and fragmented - Professional development: Continuous growth – Inadequate preparedness → Relational – emotional → Tensional – mutable - Intensification - Mutability - Particularity - Competency building - Enthusiasm 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relational – emotional Tensional – mutable
II Aspfors, J., Bendtsen, M. & Hansén, S-E. (2011). <i>Nya lärare möter skola och klassrum.</i>	Experiences of the first encounters with school and classroom	Questionnaire/ Focus groups 2 teachers	Narrative analysis/ Analysis of narratives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Caring about: Nurture – exclusion - Reciprocity: Expansive – restrictive - Caring for: Joy – exhaustion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Instructive – developmental Reciprocal – professional
III Aspfors, J. & Bondas, T. (accepted). <i>Caring about relationships within the school community – Newly qualified teachers' experiences of their relationships within the school community.</i>	Experiences of relationships within the school community	Questionnaire/ Focus groups 88 teachers/ 17 teachers	Qualitative content analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sharing experiences and discussing important pedagogical questions - Reciprocity and equality - Formal, informal and non-formal learning - Dialogue and collaboration - No need for further mentoring 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reciprocal – professional
IV Aspfors, J., Fransson, G. & Heikkinen, H.L.T. (2012). <i>Mentoring as dialogue, collaboration and/or assessment?</i>	Experiences of support through peer-group mentoring (Collaboration and/or assessment)	Focus group evaluation 16 teachers	Qualitative content analysis		

5 Discussion and conclusions

In the previous chapter the results of the four studies were presented and four overall dimensions of NQTs' induction experiences were outlined. In this concluding chapter I will reflect upon the results from a different angle, using the previously presented practice theory and prior research. Thereafter, I will address some methodological considerations, after which some conclusions are drawn and some implications as well as recommendations for further research are suggested.

5.1 Induction practice

The outlined four dimensions, or integration of results, describing induction from the viewpoint of NQTs, constitute part of a new synthesis, *induction practice*. This synthesis is generated from the results and theoretical landscape. More concretely, I change focus and view the results and emerging dimensions from the perspective of practice theory, i.e. portray the architecture of induction through the lenses of semantic space, physical space-time and social space (cf. section 2.6). The practice theory offers a useful and structured frame that elucidates and illustrates substantial features of the results presented in the studies. At the same time as a fuller and thick description of induction as a specific practice is provided from the data in its entirety, I discuss the results in connection to what previously has been stated in the literature. However, the intention is not to compress or position the presented results into any fixed or definite theoretical drawing lines, but rather to view emerging contours of a slightly different induction landscape from a practice-theoretical perspective. Figure 8 below illustrates the mode of action, where the results in the form of the four dimensions are reflected upon with the help of the three lenses of semantic space, physical space-time and social space.

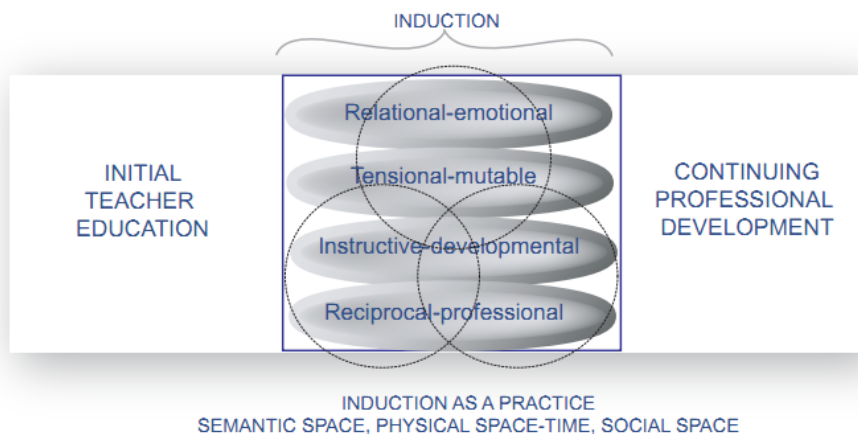


Figure 8 The results viewed through the lens of practice architecture.

Semantic space of induction

As put forward in the theoretical frame of reference, *semantic space* gains its meaning and comprehensibility through ‘sayings’ and ‘thinkings’ in the medium of language. This space includes the various expressions and concepts used to describe and create meaning and understanding of the complex reality of induction (cf. Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2012). Simply described, it is thus what the practices sound like (Kemmis, Edwards-Groves & Heikkinen, 2012). In the first (article I) and last study (article IV) we use for example the concept “voices” to address NQTs’ experiences or ‘sayings’ (cf. Cohen et al., 2000; Elbaz-Luwisch, 2005). From the perspective of the NQT, his or her ‘sayings’ rest on and are shaped by previous cultural-discursive arrangements which enable and constrain the language used, including both content as well as language/concept apparatus. This study is not designed to examine the process or how NQTs talk about their practice in any deeper sense (as this would require other methods). The focus will therefore in the semantic space be more on *what* they are addressing⁴⁹.

Topics

At the beginning of the focus group meetings, an inventory of the NQTs’ needs was conducted. The teachers could through a step-by-step process outline the most urgent needs in the respective group (see Figure 6). The themes came to centre on relationships, the teacher’s role, extensive workload and feelings of insufficiency, questions of time, well-being and support. Several of the teachers themselves use “pedagogical issues” as a broad umbrella term for this content (cf. study IV). However, the themes showed to focus to a lesser degree on didactical issues or subject-matter content than on relational and emotional aspects. Often the discussions concerned spontaneous experiences, concerns and questions gained during the workdays. When scrutinising the teachers’ expectations on and experiences of the profession in study one (article I), it was also evident from the new teachers’ descriptions that they found the profession both many-sided and meaningful, but at the same time intense and laborious. On the one hand, expressive concepts were used such as varied, fun, pleasant, meaningful, exciting, independent, spontaneous, challenging, social and great responsibility. On the other hand, concepts used for describing the profession were stress, heavy workload, lack of time, burden of duties, responsibilities and tasks surrounding the teaching. Similar expressions came forward in one of the two narratives (study II), where the teacher highlights entrance to the profession, teacher role, work-life balance, workload and support needs.

The above mentioned areas are well known in the literature of NQTs’ experiences and can be noticed already in Fuller’s (1969) classic stage theory. Moreover, the research seems to be quite consistent from an international viewpoint (e.g. Fransson, 2001; Hobson et al., 2007; Veenman, 1984). Regardless of preparing teacher education, entrance to the profession involves inherently new and unfamiliar situations, and full pedagogical and juridical responsibility from day one, which often contribute to challenging experiences. The needs and concerns of NQTs are therefore more often highlighted than

⁴⁹ A similar distinction was made, for instance, by Orland-Barak (2006).

satisfying or successful stories. For that reason, the participating NQTs' satisfying experiences are focused on in a previous report (Aspfors, 2010).

Types of language

My study did not explicitly focus on teachers' language use, but collective reflection is at the same time a verbal activity bringing language issues to the surface. Professional language is a specific pedagogical language, a tool for developing a professional culture, not an ordinary language always entirely understood by the public at large. Instead, it is an elaborated scientific language using well-defined and operationalised concepts central to the field of the profession. It offers professionals a unifying shared understanding and tools for grasping issues constituting discussed phenomena (cf. Adelswärd, 1991; Hansén, 1997). From this point of view, the language NQTs use when expressing their experiences and feelings can most closely be characterised as a general and everyday language without any advanced words or terminology.

Instead, more metaphorical terms came forward in the third study (article III) and in the teachers' advice to other new teachers in the future (see appendix 1: question 29). A metaphor is "a figure of speech in which a name or descriptive word or phrase is transferred to an object or action different from, but analogous to, that to which it is literally applicable" (Oxford English Dictionary; see also Salo, 2002). A lot of the advice reflected encouragement in developing personal courage or growth and concerned the need to stand up for oneself and have the courage to speak up and claim one's rights, but also how to survive the first years. Most of the metaphors are, however, representative clichés from everyday language. Some quotations (in italics) are, for example: *be open and yourself with both your pupils and colleagues. Don't be too cautious. Take your place in both classroom and teachers' room and believe in yourself! Work the way that suits you best. It is important to dare to say no and not to please everyone. Don't let people run over you. Put your foot down. Keep a level head. More haste, less speed. Do the best you can.* In the second study (article II) one of the teachers is in an illustrative way pointing to the tensional field of induction when asking where the line is between putting your foot down or doing "as the Romans do in Rome" i.e. adapting to the specific school culture.

Other groups of Finland-Swedish NQTs also used metaphorical terms when expressing their experiences of peer-group mentoring as a communicative arena where one, for instance, can (direct citation in italics); *"ventilate"*, *"complain"*, *"purge"* or *"talk away"* experiences or *get things off your chest without having to "fear stepping on a colleague's toes"* (Aspfors et al., 2011). The use of metaphors and similes is not unusual among research participants (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Metaphorical expressions are often also used by researchers for describing entrance into the profession in an evocative way (see examples in chapter 2; Semantic space).

The use of the metaphors described above, might be an expression of professional language poverty regardless of a superfluity of words. As noted in the theoretical part, teachers' professional language has previously been criticised for being rather vaguely developed in comparison to many other

occupational groups with the same academic level of education (cf. Adelswärd, 1991; Hansén, 1997). In a way, a vague professional language is also a reflection of the wide-ranging and diffuse conceptualisation within the area of induction (cf. chapter 2.6). However, the language used is most likely reflected by the non-formal/informal character of the focus groups/peer-mentoring groups where NQTs come together outside working hours. Likewise, the discussions reflect the process of collective sense-making and learning of a professional language. The need to utilise professional literature and theory in the mentoring groups has therefore also previously been stressed. If the teacher can conceptualise and theorise his or her experiences, a more profound level of reflection and learning can be reached. In this way, mentoring can also more strongly be dovetailed into research-based teacher education. Peer-mentoring groups, constituting a balance between both informal and formal learning, have the potential to promote the development of a common professional language (cf. Heikkinen et al., 2012). Alongside a professional language, teachers' codes of professional ethics are important to consider, as one special concern noted in the peer-mentoring groups in a minority context such as Swedish-Finland is confidentiality (cf. Colnerud & Granström, 2002).

On the basis of the results in the studies and the patterns permeating them, I have described NQTs' experiences of induction with concepts such as relational–emotional, tensional–mutable, instructive–developmental and reciprocal–professional. These concepts, however, capture on a more general level NQTs' more concrete expressions and 'sayings' about their first years in the profession.

Physical space-time of induction

Practice architectures, as concluded in chapter two, enable and constrain practices, their productiveness and doings in the medium of work or activity. Physical space-time is thus about what practices look like and comprise a concrete time space, certain practical arrangements, physical and economic conditions, as well as activities and actions (cf. Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2012; Kemmis et al., 2012). From the perspective of the NQT, his or her experiences rest on and are shaped by certain material-economic circumstances and conditions. The dimensions tensional–mutable, instructive–developmental and reciprocal–professional are therefore in different ways visible in this space.

Activities and actions

From the perspective of NQTs, this space consists of their unique experiences of existing (or non-existing) activities and actions, material and practical arrangements that physically aim at supporting them during their first years in the profession. These are especially visible in the fourth study (article IV) describing peer-group mentoring as an emerging support measure for NQTs in Finland. However, even if support for NQTs is emphasised at a national level and the promising Finnish network for teacher induction 'Osaava Verme' appears in all teacher education at both universities and universities of applied sciences, the support is not yet formalised in the sense that it would be compulsory or part of teachers' working hours. Municipalities and individual schools can still choose in which way they want to receive their new teachers

and if they will offer them mentor support (cf. Heikkinen et al., 2012). The informal support given by the principal and colleagues are therefore one vital aspect highlighted in the third study (article III). Previous research (cf. Jensen et al., 2012) supports the impact of informal dialogue on new teachers' professional development.

Other so-called organisational aspects are how the school has structured the reception and introduction of their new teachers. One can also describe it as the structure or routines for receiving and supporting a new teacher at a school. In these matters there seem to be quite different approaches between schools. Many new teachers describe an introduction that fulfils everything and goes even beyond what they had expected. They feel warmly welcomed, are shown around, presented to their colleagues and pupils and receive necessary information, also about the so-called unwritten rules. Furthermore, enough time is allocated them, so they can start out in peace and quiet and get support in the form of help, tips and advice. They do not feel left alone and can ask necessary questions anytime. Some of the teachers describe local arrangement of support in the form of mentors, tutors or work counselling. They also express facilitative aspects such as receiving a small and easy class in the beginning and being able to teach few subjects.

On the contrary there seems to be organisational restrictions, insufficient reception, introduction and support. Many feel left alone and find the situation difficult if they are forced to find out themselves or ask questions in order to receive any information. They do not want to interrupt their colleagues as they know they are busy. Moreover, they are afraid of asking "stupid" questions and showing signs of ignorance especially if they are substitute teachers. If the new teacher additionally is assigned a difficult class and is forced to teach subjects she/he is not competent in, the beginning is deemed to be extra tough (cf. McCormack & Thomas, 2003). One of the teachers in the narratives (in the second study), for instance, highlights an uneven distribution of work as causing difficulties amongst the staff. Since the programme of peer-group mentoring, as it now is structured in Finland, is organised at a municipality level, support at school level, in the form of introduction, collaboration and school climate, is also important.

Physical and economic conditions

What has been described to a lesser extent in the studies, but is evident in the data as a whole, are physical and economic conditions that influence the NQTs to a great extent during induction. These are available resources, legislation and job situation, which can either function in a supportive way or restrict the work of the new teacher.

The first one, *available resources* in the municipality and school, concerns material and textbooks, technical equipment, classroom facilities, etc. Depending on which municipality and school the teachers work in, there seem to be slightly different conditions for the teachers. For one teacher, working in a small school, it has concerned the threat of school closure. Many teachers, however, address a specific dilemma in the Finland-Swedish context. In a

minority context the available resources in the form of textbooks and teaching aids in the own language are more limited, leading to extra work in finding and developing their own, suitable solutions. This is underscored, for instance, by one of the narratives in the second study. Lack of resources is also mentioned as a dilemma in the international literature (Lang, 1999; McCormack & Thomas, 2003).

The second one, *legislation*, is brought forward by the teachers in the form of some concerns in connection to the curriculum, child welfare act, professional secrecy and other forms of bureaucracy surrounding the teachers' work. Some of the teachers experience these as constraints rather than support in their work. That the participants are bringing up these aspects is quite expected as the juridical responsibility of a qualified teacher is markedly different from that of being a student teacher (cf. Heikkinen et al., 2012).

The third factor, the *job situation*, at the time when the new teacher is qualified exerts a great influence. It is clear that many of the teachers participating in this study encountered an uncertain job situation. With few available jobs in some areas, many had to work as substitute teachers one year at a time. This instability caused extra concern and stress amongst the teachers and is, for example, stressed in study II. Previous studies also report a general problem with NQTs' short-term contracts and the lack of job security this contributes to (cf. Jensen et al., 2012; Tynjälä & Heikkinen, 2011). Moreover these evoked, through what the new teachers believed to be intrigues and unfairness in the employment proceedings, a lot of negative emotions, especially if teaching posts occupied by unqualified teachers were not advertised as vacant, or if male teachers receive jobs in preference to females. Those having permanent positions had possibilities to concentrate on developing their professional skills in a totally different way than their unemployed or substitute teacher colleagues. Employment issues are also brought up in Fessler and Christensen's (1992) dynamic model of teacher career cycle.

Time-space

Besides the above outlined formal and informal activities and practical arrangements influencing NQTs, induction seems to be a practice under tension when it comes to the question of time. Time is above all visible in the frequently raised experiences of insufficient time and time-consuming tasks. Especially duties and responsibilities outside the classroom (e.g. teaching planning, meetings, extra-curricular activities) cause most concern, at the same time as these tasks and the amount of them came as a surprise to many. In combination with the diffuse and unclear character of the profession, it gives rise to feelings of inadequacy and uncertainty. Many of the teachers work their utmost, resulting in long working days during the first years. This stands out clearly in the first and second study (I & II) and these aspects appear in particular in the tensional–mutable dimension, which is, if drawn to the extreme, fundamentally deprofessionalising. Experiences of lack of time are also reported amongst other school personnel such as principals (Sandén, 2007).

Previous research (e.g. Day, 2008; OECD, 2005) indicates that the scope and demands of the profession have increased. As teacher education primarily focuses on the core of teaching, it may be one reason behind NQTs' critique of teacher education as being too unrealistic and alienated from the reality of the profession. Simultaneously, it is logical that these matters are protracted as this is a unique phase of a teachers' professional development, as described in section 2.4. The results from the first two studies confirm the teachers' intense learning process and steep curve of professional development.

This first period in the profession is unique also from the point of view of the teachers' particular life phase. The teachers, the majority of whom are in the age-group 25–29, often need to make more decisive life decisions concerning where to live and search for a job, whether to start a family and if already a family of their own, a lot of energy is spent on getting work in balance with being the parents of small children. The time issue is therefore relevant to discuss, because as long as mentoring is offered outside working hours, there is a tendency that NQTs will not prioritise it, as it is experienced as another duty they need to fulfil on top of everything else. A follow-up study in 2010 in Finland reveals that 39 percent of new teachers under the age of 30 did not participate in continuing professional development (Kangasniemi, 2012). In my study most of the teachers participating in the focus groups/peer-mentoring groups did not have children of their own, which might be one reason behind their possibilities to participate. The time for mentoring is also recognised as a challenge internationally (cf. Feiman-Nemser, 1996).

Social space of induction

The previously portrayed two spaces with 'sayings' (concepts and meanings) and 'doings' (activities and actions) are intimately connected to the third, *social space*. Practice architecture gives practices, as concluded previously, value in establishing connectedness and solidarity (or social differentiation) among the involved people through 'relatings' in the medium of power (cf. Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2011). Social space is thus relationally constituted, and in practices of induction new teachers, pupils and others, e.g. more experienced teachers, relate to each other in various ways. According to recent research (e.g. Devos et al., 2012), the social dimension of a teacher's work seems to have increased and along with it the emotional character of the profession (cf. Hargreaves, 2001; Schutz & Zembylas, 2009; Shapiro, 2010). Therefore one could also say that social space is about what practices feel like (Kemmis et al., 2012). From the results of the studies in this thesis, social space seems to be the most contested one. Relationships in the form of the dimensions relational–emotional and reciprocal–professional are to a high degree apparent in the results of the different studies (I–IV). In the second study we distinguished two arenas, a *classroom arena* and a *school arena*. In the following I will examine social space more closely from the perspective of social relations found in the different studies in these two arenas.

Classroom arena

Even though there is increasing collaboration between teachers in school, the classroom arena still to a large extent concerns relationships with *pupils*. It is in this arena that student teachers, on the basis of their prior experiences from their own school days and the focus of teacher education (see 2.1; Zeichner & Gore, 1990), expect to work most. Certainly, many wish to become teachers in the first place to get the possibility to teach and work closely with children, and many student teachers eagerly look forward to the day when they can start teaching “for real”. In the second study (article II) this enthusiasm for working with children is revealed as one characteristic pattern. In the first study of NQTs’ expectations on and experiences of the profession (article I), the meeting with pupils was revealed to have been realised mainly in a positive way. The teachers appreciate the close and harmonious relationships with their pupils and being able to follow their learning and development. Very often it is these kinds of aspects that afford teachers most satisfaction and joy in the profession (cf. Flores & Day, 2006; Hargreaves, 2000; Hobson et al., 2007). Similar experiences were stressed in the third study (article III), which outlined this task-oriented relationship to pupils as a dimension of ‘caring for’. Here, the need to work with the prerequisites for learning, i.e. the establishment of rapport and respectful relationships with the pupils was additionally pointed out. Hence, the teachers showed awareness of their own responsibility.

However, even though the two teachers in the second study did not bring forward any troublesome experiences of their pupil relationships, other teachers have highlighted this aspect. As stated in the first study, many new teachers were surprised at the sometimes distanced and fragmented relationships and how much time they need to spend on upbringing, classroom management and discipline questions. As such, the results confirm previous research (e.g. Jensen et al., 2012). Corresponding experiences came forward in the third study, where pupils’ challenging behaviour was also emphasised, as well as the teachers’ difficulties in meeting individual needs. The teachers also bring up the tendency of more restless and noisy children. The relationships to pupils can thus also imply exhaustion and tiredness over time (cf. Hargreaves, 2000, 2001; Laaksola, 2007b). Although the classroom arena consists mostly of pupil relationships, there is one adult relation that for some NQTs is challenging, that of *school assistants*. Their work can be of clear support for the new teacher, but at the same time tensions between the teacher and the assistant can arise if they have far too different views about how the work should be accomplished. The new teachers seem to be prepared to be in charge of the teaching and pupils, but it is immediately much more complicated to lead the work in tandem with another adult in the classroom (e.g. Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002). This is emphasised partly in the third study.

School arena

The school arena also embraces relationships outside the classroom, i.e. with colleagues and the principal but also with other personnel and the pupils’ parents. This arena and space seem to be much more complex for the new teachers to handle than the previous one. Especially *collegial relationships* seem

to play a significant role. As newly qualified, the teachers are vulnerable in many ways and dependent on their new colleagues (cf. Kelchtermans, 1996). In the third study this phenomenon is characterised in the relationship caring about – nurturance or exclusion. Above all, the importance of support, recognition and acknowledgement from others in the beginning is stressed. But the opposite of exclusion, resistance, and sometimes even offence are also described. Hence, the relationships reflect to a high extent the prevailing school culture, which may either encourage collaboration, collegiality and interdependence, or contribute to comparison, competition and isolation (cf. Kelchtermans, 2006). In the second study, for instance, particularity or balkanisation (cf. Gholami, 2009, Hargreaves, 1998) were labels brought forward to describe the school culture that one of the teachers had met and struggled with.

The reciprocal–professional aspects of teachers’ relationships are stressed in the teachers’ desire for collaboration of a more equal and symmetrical character, where they not only gain help and support from others, but also can contribute with their own knowledge and expertise. The fourth study (article IV) pays attention to these formal, reciprocal and professional relations in peer-group mentoring in that the teachers are emphasising the importance of having a forum where experiences can be shared, pedagogical questions discussed, and they can listen to others at the same time as their own voice can be heard. They are consequently stressing a forum offering possibilities for a symmetrical and more equal communication than in their ordinary schools (cf. Fransson, 2006). This is in line with one of the emerging trends of considering mentoring as a dialogue and as social construction of knowledge and learning (cf. Heikkinen et al., 2008). Later, similar studies with other groups of newly qualified Finland-Swedish teachers participating in peer-group mentoring have revealed comparable results (see Aspfors et al., 2011). Different levels of equivalence as well as aspects of symmetrical and asymmetrical relations are outlined in the theoretical section (2.6). More informal, corresponding relations are visible in the third study, where collaboration between teachers at school is described. Some teachers even to an extent believe they are not in need of any mentoring, while others address the restrictive scope of reciprocity. Previous research about teacher collaboration portrays an intricate picture of the balance between teacher autonomy and cooperation (cf. Kelchtermans, 2006).

How the organisational aspects (outlined in the previous physical space-time) are structured, i.e. the introduction, reception and what kind of duties the NQTs receive at school, is largely dependent on *leadership*. The leadership is also highly influential in terms of the prevailing school culture and atmosphere (cf. Boyd et al., 2011; Devos et al., 2012) and the success of mentoring (cf. Aspfors & Hansén, 2011b), even though the leader does not have the sole responsibility for these (Jarzabkowski, 2002). In the third study vital and nurturing leadership was emphasised and appreciated. However, as seen in several studies and the NQTs’ experiences, leadership may also be of a more indistinct and unsupportive kind. Especially in times of increasing pressure and when conflicts, power games or bullying occur, leadership is put to the test.

Parental contact is usually brought up by new teachers as a demanding contact (cf. Blomberg, 2008a; Eisenschmidt et al., 2008). This issue is also exemplified

in the first three studies. For instance, the insecurity of meeting parents when being much younger and not having children of one's own, or the feeling of not being well enough prepared for this kind of contact in teacher education. Moreover, the difficulties of meeting uncooperative or critical parents or the fear of legal proceedings are emphasised. The latter have been reported to have increased lately (cf. Gestrin-Hagner, 2008).

As much as relationships seem to define NQTs' first work experiences, the first years in the profession also seem to be an *emotional* roller coaster. Emotional involvement is of course connected to all elements of a teacher's work and visible in all of the three spaces, but seems to be especially discernible and inseparable with relationships. As already featured in the results, positive feelings of joy, enthusiasm, self-confidence and pride, etc. are especially stressed in connection to pupil relationships and progress in the work (cf. Flores & Day, 2006). These feelings or emotions are, however, simultaneously interspersed with feelings of insufficiency, self-doubt, frustration, ignorance, inexperience, anxiety, nervousness, fear, helplessness and insecurity when involved with, for instance, demanding relationships, conflicts or when meeting criticism (cf. Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Kelchtermans (1996) argues that these feelings of vulnerability have moral and political roots at the workplace, more precisely at a classroom, school and policy level. In the latter it is foremost policy decisions the teacher cannot influence that cause uncertainty (cf. physical space-time). At the school level the micro-political reality is the prime factor contributing to powerlessness, whereas in the classroom it is the teacher's feelings of helplessness and disappointment when not being successful in building relations or managing the pupils' learning. The emotions are thus intimately attached to incidents where the professional self or identity as a teacher is threatened. Emotional involvement and the increasing demands described previously in the tensional–mutable dimension contribute to stress and fatigue in my study as well. Previous research has indicated that the amount of sick-leave has steadily increased amongst teachers (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010) and that the demands of caring imply a need to create boundaries in order to protect against burnout (Hargreaves, 1998, 2000, 2001).

To conclude these three spaces, semantic space narrows down the NQTs' expressed needs and modes of expressions in an interesting way, but is at the same time revealed as perhaps the vaguest space of the three when it comes to professional language as well as the generally wide ranging and diffuse conceptualisation of induction. Physical space-time points to highly important and influential framing factors, particularly in context without formal support programmes. These factors or conditions, the organisation of introduction, available resources, legislation and job situation, extend and complete the previously presented results in the four studies. This space also highlights the question of time as a dilemma and as a sore point of induction. The last space, social space, was discovered to be the most complex and multifaceted space of them all, concerning relationships in both the classroom arena as well as the school arena. These spaces are intertwined or 'hang together', as Schatzki (2002) says. In this study the NQTs' 'doings' and 'relatings' are all articulated via 'sayings' (through the focus groups and questionnaire). The purpose has not

been to create artificially drawn lines, but rather to highlight new elements and aspects of induction as a specific practice and at the same time shed light on prefiguring and forming conditions of cultural-discursive, material-economic and social-political arrangements.

Participating in induction practice, which is tensional–mutable and highly relational–emotional, thus highlights the importance of language and communication in order for the NQTs to articulate, construct meaning and understanding of this complex reality. In this thesis the dimension reciprocal–professional represents the possibilities for reflection, collaboration and discussion for the teachers, both informally and formally, with their colleagues. These opportunities are important in the process of identity construction and in order for learning and development to take place, which emerges in the instructive–developmental dimension. In the next section methodological considerations in relation to these results as well as the methods used will be discussed.

5.2 Methodological considerations

The research questions put forward offer many possibilities of methods and design. In order to receive as representative and comprehensive view of the NQTs' experiences of induction as possible, two means of data collection were chosen: questionnaires, in order to gain breadth with a larger group of NQTs, and focus groups, in order to gain depth with a smaller group of NQTs over a longer period of time (one school year). In this way the results are not coincidence or haphazard in terms of NQTs' experiences on a specific occasion. However, the design of the study, comprising four articles, was not aimed at giving a complete view of induction practices. Nor is it possible to claim that the four studies would be entirely representative for the data as a whole. Instead, the attempt has been, in the integration of the findings, to complete the picture and also highlight such data that to a more limited extent has featured in the separate studies. In this way a more comprehensive, thick and detailed description was possible.

Writing a compilation thesis, consisting of four articles taking shape during different time phases, and together with different co-authors, posed great challenges. The difficulty is principally that it is not possible to revise the already published articles and thus it is demanding to make the overall thesis cohere. Consequently, I have during the process of putting the thesis together been able to see more clearly aspects in the articles I could have worked out differently. One critical aspect is, for example, the terminology used, which varied slightly depending on the focus of the article. Conducting research is at the same time a learning process, and certain areas become gradually more elaborated, thus resulting in slightly different conceptions. Ödman (2007) describes in general the process of analysis as putting a puzzle together. Small pieces, one at a time, need to be put together in a sometimes laborious and intellectually demanding process. At first, this process is usually chaotic, while towards the end, when an obvious picture appears, it seems totally natural. By

then it is often hard to understand how the process could be experienced as so demanding.

In the following some further methodological considerations are outlined and discussed, mainly in terms of vital validity issues in connection to the questionnaire survey, focus groups, data analysis and results, but also concerning the trustworthiness of the study as a whole.

Questionnaire survey

In order to improve the validity of the questionnaire, a small pilot study was carried out on beforehand (see 3.2.1). The risk with unwanted persons answering the questionnaire was limited through sending out an e-letter, including the web address of the survey, by email to the selected respondents. The questionnaire was thus not accessible as an open web site. A low response rate can, however, in a quantitative study result in a skewed result (Bell, 2007). Regardless of a plug in the media and several reminders, the response rate in this questionnaire survey came up to only 45.4 percent. This is, however, not uncommon in electronic surveys. The response rate can be considered rather low but is still in line with or higher than previous research studies using similar data gathering procedures (cf. Høigaard, Giske & Sundsli, 2011). The reasons behind the low response rate might be many. One reason may be the lengthy design of the questionnaire, comprising many open-ended questions. Another reason, following on from the previous one, might be that the respondents experienced that they did not have enough time to complete the survey during a working day. However, as this is a qualitative study focusing on understanding the experiences of NQTs in the induction period, rather than providing possibilities to generalise the results to other circumstances, the response rate is not decisive.

Focus groups

The focus groups comprised teachers with competence as primary school teachers. To include other groups of teachers would probably lead to somewhat different results. The possibility remains, however, that the focus group participants are not sufficiently representative, as those participating in the groups were not selected by the researcher, but could voluntarily attend them. As such, one can assume that those seeking professional support in the focus groups are there for a reason, thus would be the ones most motivated or interested, facing several challenges than their newly qualified colleagues or simply having the time and possibilities to participate (for instance, no family). However, previous research indicates at the same time that teachers with high efficacy are those dealing with their difficulties, whereas teachers with low teacher efficacy tend to avoid them (Høigaard et al., 2011). This would indicate that those participating in continuing professional development in general are ones who are ambitious and committed to their profession.

One risk concerning validity in focus group studies is if the participants are not expressing their thoughts due to group pressures or threats. A converse risk is if they exaggerate to make impression on the others in the group or try to convince them with their opinion. An additional danger is if participants are just

expressing what is socially acceptable and leaving out information that is not socially desirable. Validity may also be threatened by the chosen location for the sessions if this is not comfortable for the participants. Important questions to consider are, therefore, the atmosphere in the group, how group pressure can be avoided and to what extent the participants get the opportunity to talk (Wibeck, 2000). As neutral locations as possible were therefore chosen for the sessions in order to make the participants feel comfortable. The sessions were, for example, not held at any of the participant's own school. An experienced facilitator/mentor was also seen as crucial in order to achieve good group dynamics and discussions. To get everyone involved in the discussions, separate turns were given to each in the group to comment on different subjects.

As discussed before, the dependability (or reliability) is higher if the same facilitator can manage all the focus groups sessions in a study. Thus, one dilemma in this study is the exchange of facilitator in between, which may have affected the outcome of the focus groups. Necessary arrangements were made, as discussed in sub-chapter 3.2.2, to as much as possible limit any conceivable harm arising from this. In addition, the researcher was accountable for the whole project, which accordingly gives continuity to it.

Analysis and results

Conducting meta-synthesis in qualitative research is a demanding task and not an approach recommended for novice researchers (Thorne et al., 2004). After coming this far with the task, it is tempting to agree. Striving to hold all the pieces together, while hovering between parts and the whole, is difficult and demanding. Nevertheless, a synthesis of a few studies, in this case merely four, is more manageable. According to Bondas and Hall (2007a), there are examples of samples ranging between 3 and 292, but most commonly 10–12 are included. Some researchers do not recommend combining studies with differing qualitative methods, whereas others emphasise the synthesising of the findings as being most essential (cf. Bondas & Hall, 2007b). In this study, where qualitative content analysis has been used in most of the studies, no conflict or barrier to the synthesis is perceived. Doing meta-synthesis on your own studies has its pros and cons as well. The advantages in this case are that the inclusion criteria of the studies are clear, the studies have the same participants and focus, and I as a researcher have been responsible for the data collection, analysis and results of the primary studies. Consequently, the risk of over-interpretation and too great a distance to the original experiences of the participants is limited. There is a risk, however, at the same time of not being completely objective.

In the introduction I presented my own personal motive for this topic as a researcher, teacher educator and teacher. The fact that I am not working as a newly qualified primary school teacher myself is both advantageous and disadvantageous in the research process. Not being an NQT means that I can never fully understand the situation of other NQTs, which means I can miss important clues or aspects in the process. At the same time, I am more distanced and objective, as my own experiences and pre-understandings are not colouring the analysis process. Nevertheless, I am never completely objective in relation to the phenomenon from my experiences as a teacher educator and researcher.

Dahlberg (2006) concludes also that as researchers we belong to the same world as the phenomenon we study, resulting in difficulties in distinguishing ourselves from it. She therefore emphasises that we, in a sensitive and reflective way, need to “bridle“ ourselves through the process of research, which means we need to restrain our pre-understandings, beliefs and assumptions.

Researchers highlighting the emerging methodology of meta-synthesis address it very differently, ranging from rigorous analysis of existing research findings to mere aggregation to achieve unity (Thorne et al., 2004). Comprehensive outlines of process and methods for conducting these syntheses are also quite rare. Therefore, the researcher needs to find a way forward that is appropriate for the particular study in focus. In this study the meta-synthesis is something in between the mentioned extremes. The results from the four studies have been integrated in line with the methods used by Sandelowski and Barroso (2007) and Noblit and Hare (1988) (see an overview in Bondas, Hall & Wikberg, accepted for publication), but later interpreted into a synthesis with previous research and the theoretical frame of reference, forming a specific practice architecture of induction through NQTs’ experiences.

Generally, it can be seen as very important that an analysis can be verified. One way to assure this is to apply an intercoder agreement when coding the collected material. Two or more judges, independent of each other, code the material from certain criteria that are decided upon beforehand. Afterwards, the categorisations are compared. Since it may be difficult to achieve this in a research process, a smaller piece of the data may be used instead (Wibeck, 2000). This mode of procedure was also utilised in this research study. The two researchers responsible for the analysis of the empirical data in the first study (article I) functioned as co-judges to each other in order to ensure the consistency of the analysis. The second and third study (article II & III) had a similar approach, as the results were discussed closely between the authors.

Another way to approach trustworthiness is to offer the participants the opportunity to respond to the researcher’s interpretation of the data (Kvale, 1996). This was accomplished in the second study (article II), where the teachers were offered the opportunity to read through and accept the narratives. It has also been achieved through the process of written summaries after each focus group session. The summaries were sent back to the participants and discussed at the following session (cf. 3.2.2). The participants received in this manner an opportunity to respond to their written statements. If the researcher had misunderstood something the participants had a chance to comment on and correct this. However, few had anything to comment on these. One teacher was a little surprised about what they had discussed when she saw it written down as a text, but did not want to change anything. Some teachers expressed that it felt strange to read the summaries afterwards, mostly because they were not used to it. Overall, they were satisfied with the written summaries and the procedures.

There are several other possible strategies to improve the quality of a study. Wibeck (2000) argues that it is constructive to involve colleagues to give viewpoints and advice, both on the design of the study and the results. Computer sessions with colleagues can be an eminent opportunity to associate and interpret

the data as well. As said before, colleagues were in this research study invited to comment on both the design of the questionnaire and the focus groups. The analysis and results have also been processed together with the co-authors in the separate articles. These kinds of procedures can consequently be considered to improve the quality of the research study in its entirety.

Furthermore, Wibeck (2000) claims that qualitative research is about explaining what is already known. It is not always about generating new findings. She defuses accordingly research about peoples' ordinary behaviour. She agrees with Angen (2000) that a sign of trustworthy research would be if a reader recognises her/himself in it and reacts with an "aha-experience". This has been the endeavour with providing narrative stories (study II), many quotations (study I & IV) and thick descriptions of quotes intertwined with the accompanying text (study III). Furthermore, the table which includes the studies and results (Table 8) aims at providing a clear and easily comprehensible overview of the studies and the rationale behind the integration of the results. In this way, the basis for the categories and themes, as well as the overall dimensions, is documented and the reader may him/herself more easily form an opinion about the trustworthiness of the analysis and results.

Finally, the purpose of qualitative research is not to draw general conclusions about whole populations. Rather transferability, i.e. whether the results may be transferred to another context, can be related to some categories of people. The researcher may distinguish tendencies that count for one certain group such as NQTs (cf. Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). In this thesis the participants represent a minority context, the Finland-Swedish one. In the introduction this context was described in order to inform the reader about the specific features distinguishing this context and in order for the reader to decide whether or not the results are transferable to other settings. The overall aim has been to deepen understanding and knowledge of NQTs' experiences of their induction practices. As such, the results and conclusions drawn are not fixed; instead, they open up for new insights, possibilities, interpretations and questions.

5.3 Conclusions

The thesis addresses the experiences of induction from the NQTs' perspective. Already since Veenman's pivotal study in 1984 on beginning teachers' perceived concerns, this particular research topic has been the focus of many researchers. The body of research addressing support for new teachers is today extensive. Yet the problems with recruiting teachers to the profession and keeping talented ones in the profession seem to be growing (cf. Roness, 2011). This is the case, even though support programmes are increasing and many countries today are more frequently supporting their new teachers with formal induction programmes than when Veenman conducted his study (cf. Winstead Fry, 2010). The aim of my compilation thesis was therefore to deepen understanding and knowledge of NQTs' experiences of their induction practices in order to provide a research-based platform for the development of further and adequate support measures. In the theoretical section induction was defined and explicated within the overall frame of teachers' professional development as a

certain socialisation process into the profession and the social working environment, as a unique phase of professional development and experiences, as well as formal support programmes. Collectively, these lines of research were viewed in light of the practice theory of practice architectures, forming a specific induction practice consisting of semantic space, physical space-time and social space.

Through a sequence of four sub-studies, NQTs' experiences of induction and more precisely the transition from education to work, their first encounters with school and classroom, their relationships within the school community and experiences of support through peer-group mentoring, were outlined. The integrated results suggest above all that NQTs' experiences of induction are of a *relational–emotional, tensional–mutable, instructive–developmental* and *reciprocal–professional* character. Furthermore, viewing the integrated results through the theoretical lens of practice architectures and the three spaces - semantic space, physical space-time and social space, opened up a more comprehensive, refined and partially new architecture of teachers' induction practices as a final synthesis. Collectively, these spaces form an inseparable and intertwined whole, a specific architecture of induction practices through the experiences of NQTs. These lenses therefore help us to see the indefinite of induction practices in a more definite way. Accordingly, if we would like to change or develop induction practices, then we need also to change or develop the practice architectures that enable and constrain these specific practices (cf. Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008).

The characteristics of the results in the four studies, the integrated results and synthesis are the permeating and striking contrasts, paradoxes and tensions that induction practices are filled with. The teaching profession and the everyday life of a teacher are deeply unpredictable and mutable, contributing to a kaleidoscope of experiences. The same phenomenon can, for one NQT, depending on the situation, give rise to totally different experiences and emotions. Two individual teachers can experience an identical or similar situation diametrically differently. The pictures that emerge of induction practices seem thus filled with conflicting situations, complexity and tensions. The NQTs' subjective experiences reflect in an intricate way the teachers' personality and life situation, the school culture, ecology of the classroom, available resources and support. Therefore, it is difficult to give a plain answer as to why one teacher is prepared to leave the profession after a short time, whereas another finds great pleasure in it. There seems to be a fragile balancing act between joyful and rewarding experiences versus distressing and destructive ones, and in the long run it seems dependent on which of the poles prevails over the other, and if the result of that has a negative spiral or a positive one. Even though the picture of induction practices are in tension and complex, the results revealed help us better understand where the areas of inspiration and frustration of NQTs might be. Moreover, they help us narrow down some areas of specific significance for facilitating NQTs' induction experiences. My hope is that these will inspire an ongoing dialogue on how to support new teachers.

5.3.1 Implications

Even though the thesis brings forth many satisfying and positive experiences of NQTs, the purpose of this section is to discuss further development and suggestions for improvement.

The results point to a continuum of teachers' professional development, i.e. a shared responsibility between initial teacher education, support measures and reception of individual schools in the induction phase, and continuing professional development. The three parts need to be integrated with one another and support each other. At the same time, a clearer distinction of the responsibility between the separate phases needs to be developed. The lifelong professional learning continuum is, as mentioned earlier, emphasised also in the future principles for Finnish teacher education 2020 (Ministry of Education, 2007), as they claim "Teacher education should be reformed as a continuum where pre-service education, the so-called induction phase and in-service education form a solid and coherent whole which supports the development of teachers' expertise" (pp. 46–47).

Implications for teacher education concern the necessity of strengthening student teachers' awareness of and readiness to meet the requirements of taking full responsibility for a class from the first school day. The expanding heterogeneity of pupils in a class addresses, on the one hand, the necessity of specialised knowledge about how to cope with pupils who have very diverse needs. On the other hand, student teachers concretely need to meet these challenges in their supervised teaching practice. Diversity, in combination with the described tendency of increasing restlessness and excitability amongst children, seems to require particular classroom management skills. This complexity might furthermore be accentuated in contacts with parents, and NQTs often complain that teacher education neglects or does not sufficiently enough prepare for home and school collaboration. Besides complex and demanding classroom work, intense and time-consuming tasks and duties outside the classroom and teaching need to be emphasised to a higher degree in order to match the content of teacher education with the reality of teachers' work. The result also shows that the school arena contains a tensioned and sometimes contradictory social environment among colleagues. This situation needs to be paid attention to and preparedness for it established in teacher education, for example by emphasising various forms of school cultures with different collegial relationships and power relations. But also through constituting good examples of and promoting collaborative learning and development as an ongoing and continuous process that goes beyond initial teacher education. These features have in the results been captured in the tensional–mutable and relational–emotional dimensions of teachers' work.

Implications for the receiving schools and the municipality as an employer are manifold. The results emphasise the importance of introducing new teachers and providing them with professional support during the induction period. Introducing means of acquainting new teachers with the school facilities, colleagues, routines, rules and matching the new teacher's competency profile to the needs of the school, e.g. not allocating the most challenging classes to a new

teacher, and not giving too many working hours or duties or subjects that the teacher is not qualified for.

Long-term professional support requires a systematic programme covering the entire induction period. The introduction available at schools, and mentioned above, is not to be mistaken for professional support such as mentoring. According to the situation today, the support seems miscellaneous and varies between schools. Informal consultations with colleagues during breaks are important, but can never fully compensate for professional support. The municipalities therefore need to pay attention to their responsibility for integrating mentoring as part of the municipality's long-term programme of continuing education in order to support their teachers' professional development and well-being in the profession. To facilitate these kinds of ambitions, a formalised national support programme might enable equal support for new teachers, regardless of municipality or school. This would utilise new teachers' capacity and thus promote a continuing instructive–developmental approach in the support programme.

Regardless of the type of support programmes, school leaders and principals are key persons for a well-functioning school and for receiving, introducing and supporting NQTs. Supporting new teachers is ultimately supporting the pupils in school. If the teacher is comfortable, feels fine both personally and professionally, this will also positively influence the pupils' well-being and results in school. Nonetheless, everyone involved in the school community bears a shared responsibility for creating an including and open atmosphere constituting the school culture.

The quality of the social atmosphere is vital. The results highlight above all the NQTs' need for recognition, caring and reciprocal relations, meaning feeling comfortable in the professional community, the possibility to practise formal and informal collaboration involving mutual opportunities for interaction and learning, and getting concrete support. The results also address an increasing and demanding relational and intense profession. The teachers would thus benefit from emotional relief, sharing of experiences, receiving support for developing relational skills together with peers and a mentor. The concept of support needs therefore to address features characterised in the relational–emotional and reciprocal–professional dimensions.

Through all the discussed issues in connection with the class and school, time is a key issue during induction. The NQTs' perceptions of lack of time permeate the results. NQTs would benefit from having breathing-space from the hectic work at school, time for learning the work and preparing for it, time for reflection, time for building sustainable relationships with pupils, colleagues, parents and others, and time for recovery. There would thus need to be space and time available for support of teachers' professional development within teachers' working hours. NQTs would consequently benefit from a reduced workload. Furthermore, the support needs to offer opportunities to provide tools for handling the tensional–mutable character of the profession.

Several discussed implications are also valid for further career development. The picture viewed of induction practices, with the four dimensions described, is also

reflected in the continuing teacher career and will thus require continuous attention informally at the workplace and through formal programmes of professional development.

5.3.2 Recommendations for further research

The research interest in this thesis has primarily been to widen the knowledge base concerning induction through NQTs' experiences. The results and synthesis may offer several possibilities for further research. One aspect highlighted is the fact that the conditions under which teachers work have changed (cf. OECD, 2005) and collaborative aspects have become increasingly important, which represents a change from the previously considered individual work of a teacher (cf. the study of Koskenniemi, 1965). It raises thus concerns about the school context and the social working environment. Future research could therefore to advantage address the social dimension of mentoring and the teacher's work (cf. Devos et al., 2012; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). As previous research indicates, the context plays a crucial role. Some even claim that induction and mentoring play a minor role if the context is loaded with difficulties (cf. McCormack & Thomas, 2003). The indirect influence of mentoring on the school community has also been addressed before in Finland (cf. Aspfors & Hansén, 2011b). Accordingly, more research is needed on the effects of mentoring and how to integrate it as part of the school community and school development. Likewise, research on mentor education and mentors' professional development would be valuable in the further development of induction.

Moreover, the theory of practice architecture of teacher induction, which is still an emerging theory, needs to be further developed. To really dig deep into the three spaces would require other methodological approaches and methods. By way of illustration, the semantic space would demand a more comprehensive, deep linguistic and discourse analysis in order to fully grasp the content and process of the discussions (cf. Orland-Barak, 2006). Likewise, the social space and the relational aspects of a teacher's work would need further analysis and would benefit from other data collecting methods like observations. There would also be fruitful possibilities to study teachers representing other groups or within other professional development phases as well as mentors' perspectives within this theoretical frame.

To conclude, I address this thesis in line with Angen (2000), as part of an ongoing dialogue of induction practices. I therefore welcome other researchers to expand and continue this important dialogue.

Finally, I want to return to the aim which was to deepen understanding and knowledge of newly qualified teachers' experiences of their induction practices. My research interest reflects in this way the ambition to strengthen the research-based platform for support measures. The particular contribution has touched upon four sub-areas of especial importance: the transition from education to work (study I), first encounters with school and classroom (study II), experiences of relationships within the school community (study III) and

experiences of support through peer-group mentoring (study IV). NQTs are competent, enthusiastic and enter into their profession with energy and high ambitions. However, they meet a complex reality labelled by notions such as *relational – emotional, tensional – mutable, instructive – developmental* and *reciprocal – professional*. As the teachers find their work both fascinating and frustrating, it would be important to listen to their experiences when developing induction practice.

Svensk sammanfattning

Inledning

Avhandlingens titel lyder på svenska *Induktionspraktiker – Nya lärares erfarenheter*. Avhandlingen innefattar fyra artiklar (se del II) med en kapp (del I) som belyser och ger ett sammanfattande helhetsperspektiv på forskningstemat.

Lärarkyrket, lärarens roll och uppgifter befinner sig i en ständig förändringsprocess, och läraren möter växande krav. Att utvecklas till lärare är också en komplex och långvarig process. Övergången från studier till yrkesliv är för lärare mera abrupt än i många andra yrken, då nya lärare från första dagen bär det fulla juridiska och pedagogiska ansvaret för sitt arbete. Lärarkyrket har därför ibland karakteriserats som ett yrke där läraren från första skoldagen placeras på en professionell högplatå – med fullt ansvar från början som sedan inte växer i någon större utsträckning, såvida läraren inte övergår till andra uppgifter och blir t.ex. rektor. Tidigare forskning har ofta beskrivit mötet med yrket i negativa termer och i formen av ”praxischock” (se t.ex. Veenman, 1984 eller Andersson & Andersson, 2004), eftersom nya lärare i allmänhet har lämnats ensamma utan något formellt stöd.

Fyra motiv för forskningstemat har lyfts fram. Det första, *det samhälleliga motivet*, har sin förankring i forskning från andra länder om nya lärares utsatta och utmanande situation. Studier visar t.ex. att uppemot 50 procent av nya lärare i USA lämnar yrket inom de fem första åren (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). Trenden verkar vara densamma runtom i västvärlden. Även om avhopp från lärarbanan tills vidare inte är något stort problem i Finland, erbjuder lärarkyrket, som ett polyvalent yrke, många möjligheter att söka arbete inom andra branscher.

Det andra motivet bottnar i en *systemsavaghet* då Finland ännu inte har ett formellt system för att stödja nya lärare. Orsaken till detta kan närmast härledas från en hög lärarstatus, många sökande till lärarutbildningen, goda PISA-resultat och en lång och forskningsbaserad lärarutbildning (se Sahlberg, 2011). Även om intresset har ökat de senaste åren, har kommuner och skolor än så länge ingen skyldighet att erbjuda nya lärare stöd i form av t.ex. mentorskap under den första tiden i yrket. Därmed är introduktion och stöd i finländska skolor ofta tillfälliga eller saknas helt. Ett nyligen etablerat och statligt finansierat nationellt nätverk, Osaava Verme, som erbjuder gruppmentorskap kan ses som ett första steg mot ett mera ordnat system av insatser för att stödja nya lärare i början av karriären. I nätverket ingår alla lärarutbildningar vid universitet och yrkeshögskolor i Finland. Förutom den här nationella satsningen, har ett integrerat och fortlöpande stöd för nya lärare betonats på en europeisk nivå (Commission of the European Communities, 2007) och på en internationell nivå (se t.ex. OECD rapporten från 2012: *The experience of new teachers: Results from TALIS 2008*).

Det tredje motivet, behovet av *forskningsbaserad kunskap*, aktualiseras när stödprogram i allt högre utsträckning etableras på nationell nivå. Även om tidigare forskning har fokuserat på dylika frågor är det också viktigt att studera dem från ett finländskt perspektiv då samhället, utbildningssystemet och

lärarutbildningen skiljer sig från andra länder. Dessutom saknas en mer omfattande forskningsbaserad kunskap som rör nya lärare i svenskspråkiga skolor i Finland, som utgör kontexten för denna studie. Det fjärde motivet har sin utgångspunkt i ett *personligt* intresse, då jag själv har arbetat inom lärarutbildningen sedan 2003 samt erhållit behörighet som lärare 2006. Även om jag inte är utbildad klasslärare har jag valt att följa den här gruppen av lärare som utgör den största studerandegruppen vid Pedagogiska fakulteten, Åbo Akademi.

Avhandlingens syfte, forskningsfrågor och design

Det övergripande syftet med avhandlingen är, utifrån den presenterade bakgrunden och motiven, *att fördjupa förståelsen av och kunskapen om nya lärares erfarenheter av induktionspraktiker*. Syftet kan specificeras i följande delområden som avser att: granska nya lärares erfarenheter av yrket i övergången från utbildning till yrkesliv (studie I), beskriva och analysera nya lärares erfarenheter av sina första möten med skola och klassrum (studie II), utforska nya lärares erfarenheter av sina relationer inom skolsamfundet (studie III) samt undersöka nya lärares erfarenheter av stöd genom gruppmentorskap inom ramen för artikelns fokus på samarbete och bedömning (studie IV).

Följande forskningsfrågor har väglett arbetet och delstudierna:

- Vilka är nya lärares förväntningar på och erfarenheter av läraryrket? (studie I)
- Vilka erfarenheter har nya lärare av sina första möten med skola och klassrum? (studie II)
- Vilka erfarenheter har nya lärare av relationer och vad kännetecknar dessa relationer? (studie III)
- Vilka erfarenheter har nya lärare av att delta i gruppmentorskap? (studie IV)

Utgående ifrån bakgrunden, det teoretiska landskapet och presenterade resultat har en syntes utvecklats. Forskningsfrågan som har lett fram till syntesen är:

- Vilken är syntesen av de integrerade resultaten som beskriver induktion och tidigare forskning från ett praktikteoretiskt perspektiv? (studie I–IV)

Forskningsdesignen utgörs av en dialektisk process mellan såväl tidigare forskning och teoretisk kunskap som analys och tolkning av insamlade data. En pendlande rörelse mellan induktiva och deduktiva principer för analys samt mellan del och helhet kännetecknar den övergripande studien.

Teoretiskt landskap

Det övergripande teoretiska perspektivet för avhandlingen utgörs av lärares professionella utveckling. Induktion bildar en viktig del av detta kontinuum. Utgående från Feiman-Nemser m.fl. (1999) kan induktion ses som 1) en *socialiseringsprocess* in i yrket och den sociala miljö skolan utgör, 2) en *unik fas av lärares professionella utveckling* som bidrar till särskilda erfarenheter och

som 3) *formella program utformade att stödja nya lärare*. Dessa aspekter eller forskningslinjer har initierats i delstudierna (I–IV) och fördjupas i teoridelen av den sammanbindande kappan (2.1–2.5). Därefter knyts teorin ihop (2.6) med hjälp av praktikens teori (se Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008).

I det första avsnittet (2.1) berörs bl.a. tre olika former av *lärarsocialisering*, som innefattar lärares tidigare erfarenheter, lärarutbildningen och yrkeslivet (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Tidigare erfarenheter som i betydande avseende formar lärare, är lärarens egna livserfarenheter och minst tolv års erfarenheter av skola och utbildning. Inverkan av lärarutbildningen på blivande och nya lärares syn på yrket har däremot visat sig vara långt svagare. Däremot är socialiseringen i yrket med den inverkan skolkulturen har av mycket större betydelse i processen att utvecklas till lärare. I det andra avsnittet (2.2) tas just den *sociala omgivningen och skolkulturen* närmare upp. Skolkultur kan definieras som de idéer, värderingar och normer som karaktäriserar en skola och det klimat som särskiljer den (Andersson m.fl., 2003). I princip kan två olika skolkulturer identifieras: kulturer som uppmuntrar till samarbete, kollegialitet och ömsesidigt beroende eller kulturer som bidrar till jämförelser, konkurrens och isolering. Lärararbetet är i grunden relationellt liksom emotionellt, och de sociala relationerna har därmed en stark inverkan på nya lärares erfarenheter och utveckling i yrket.

I det tredje avsnittet (2.3) behandlas *nya lärares erfarenheter* under den första tiden i yrket. Bilden som framställs i forskningslitteraturen är komplex och med en emfas på det negativa. Nya lärare möter generellt problem när det gäller att leda arbetet i klassen och att skapa arbetsro i klassrummet. Negativa erfarenheter nämns också beträffande arbetsmängden och relationer till elever, kolleger och elevers föräldrar. I synnerhet upplevs det tungt med störande och aggressiva elever, nedvärderande och icke-stödjande kolleger och föräldrar som i ökande grad lägger sig i och klagar på lärarens arbete. Samtidigt är det just positiva relationer, framför allt till elever men också till kolleger och elevers föräldrar, som upplevs som mest tillfredsställande och glädjefyllda vid sidan av professionell autonomi och egen utveckling i yrket. Erfarenheterna är sålunda en mångfacetterad kombination av personliga och situationsbundna faktorer (jfr Fransson, 2001).

Det fjärde avsnittet (2.4) fokuserar på *nya lärares professionella utveckling*. Forskningsområdet är omfattande och kan härledas tillbaka till Fullers klassiska stadieteori från 1969 där lärares utveckling kan identifieras i en trestegsmodell i anknytning till läraren själv (self concerns), uppgifter (task concerns) och inverkan (impact concerns). Många senare teorier har byggt vidare på den här stadieteorin t.ex. Berliner (1988) och Kagan (1992). Senare studier har dock kritiserat uppfattningen om att professionell utveckling skulle ske linjärt och i stadier. Alternativa modeller och i synnerhet omfattande sådana är utvecklade av t.ex. Huberman (1989), Fessler och Christensen (1992), Sikes m.fl. (1985) och Day (2008). Även om det finns skillnader mellan teorierna, råder enighet om att den första tiden i yrket är sårbar och en särskilt kritisk period vad gäller den professionella utvecklingen.

I det femte avsnittet (2.5) granskar jag *induktion och mentorskap* i avseende av stöd för nya lärare. Sedan 1980-talet har intresset för att stödja nya lärare ökat runtom i världen, något senare även i Norden och i början av 2000-talet i Finland. Begreppsanvändningen är ännu vag och diffus. Exempelvis induktion och mentorskap används ofta som likbetydande begrepp, även om induktion är en mera övergripande term för program som kan innefatta många olika former av stöd, däribland mentorskap. Ett sätt är att särskilja mellan högintensiva och lågintensiva induktionsprogram. Till exempel Nya Zeeland, Skottland och Japan har stödprogram som kan liknas vid det förra med flera olika komponenter, bl.a. lägre undervisningsskyldighet och mentorskap. Några särdrag är viktiga för att induktionsprogram ska lyckas. Sådana är t.ex. kontextuellt stöd, effektiva mentorsstrategier samt utbildning och stöd för mentorer. Forskning visar att induktions- och mentorskapsprogram har en positiv inverkan på att få lärare att hållas kvar i yrket, på deras undervisning och på elevernas prestationer (se t.ex. Ingersoll & Strong, 2011).

I syfte att bättre förstå induktion som en specifik praktik, har den forskning som presenterats ovan bundits samman med hjälp av praktikens teori och närmare bestämt av teorin kring *praktikens arkitektur* (2.6). Teoribildningen, utvecklad av Schatzki (1996, 2002), och vidareutvecklad av Kemmis och Grootenboer (2008) består av tre rum: ett *semantiskt rum*, ett *fysiskt tidsrum* och ett *socialt rum*. Under senare tid har teorin använts och utvecklats inom området för lärarinduktion och även anpassats till förhållandena i Finland (se t.ex. Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2012). I avsnittet studeras hur nya lärare i induktionsfasen formar och formas kulturellt–diskursivt genom språket eller ”att säga” (semantiskt rum), materiellt–ekonomiskt genom aktiviteter och handlingar eller ”att göra” (fysiskt tidsrum) och sociopolitiskt genom makt och sociala relationer eller ”att relatera” (socialt rum). Dessa dimensioner hänger samman, är situerade i tid och rum och konstituerar det vi kan kalla induktionspraktik.

Metodologi och metod

Ett konstruktivistiskt synsätt genomsyrar arbetet. Från det här perspektivet kan min förståelse av forskningsfenomenet närmast relateras till ontologisk relativism, dvs. att synen på verkligheten är socialt konstruerad. Konstruktioner av verkligheten är inte sanna i någon absolut mening, endast mer eller mindre välunderbyggda (Lincoln & Guba, 1994). Den epistemologiska utgångspunkten är således subjektivistisk. Lärarnas subjektiva kunskap och erfarenheter är socialt konstruerade i mötet med olika situationer, människor, uppgifter etc. Min uppgift som forskare är därmed att rekonstruera dessa erfarenheter som lärarna beskriver och presentera så trovärdig och välgrundad redogörelse som möjligt, samtidigt som jag är väl medveten om att livserfarenheter aldrig kan återges i sin fulla potential, rikedom och djup (Van Manen, 1990).

Studien kan även positioneras inom en humanistisk vetenskapsmetodologi, som förankrad inom den kvalitativa och tolkande forskningstraditionen och med fokus på pedagogiska forskningsfrågor av tillämpad karaktär. Emellertid utgörs den övergripande ansatsen i avhandlingens första del (del I), där fyra delstudier integreras, av abduktion och metasyntes. Det abduktiva tillvägagångssättet karaktäriseras av en pendlande rörelse mellan induktiva och deduktiva

analysprinciper (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2008). Metasyntes innebär att föra samman primärstudier på en mera abstrakt nivå, att utveckla ny kunskap genom tolkning och analys av dessa primärstudier, som i avhandlingen utgörs av de fyra artiklarna I–IV (se Bondas & Hall, 2007b; Zimmer, 2006).

Data har samlats in med hjälp av ett elektroniskt frågeformulär med huvudsakligen öppna frågor och fokusgruppintervjuer. Frågeformuläret består av frågor som berör bakgrundsuppgifter (11), beredskap för läraryrket (3), erfarenheter under de första åren i yrket (8), introduktion och stöd (7), framtidsplaner (1) samt intresse av att delta i fokusgruppintervjuer (5). Totalt besvarade 88 av 194 nya klasslärare enkäten, vilket ger en svarsprocent på 45,4 procent. Lärarna var utexaminerade från Åbo Akademis pedagogiska fakultet åren 2004–2006 och hade därmed mellan ett och tre års arbetserfarenhet som lärare vid tiden för undersökningen. Majoriteten av lärarna var i åldern 25–29 år (69,3 procent) och kvinnor (75 procent). Fokusgrupperna, även kallade mentorsgrupper, kan betraktas som ett kombinerat forsknings- och fortbildningsprojekt, då de både syftade till insamling av empiriskt material och till att stödja de deltagande nya lärarna i början av deras karriär. Totalt 17 av respondenterna i enkäten rekryterades till fokusgrupperna, fördelade på tre grupper på olika orter. Totalt hölls 3–4 träffar à tre timmar per grupp under ett läsår. En erfaren lärare fungerade som moderator eller mentor, medan forskaren ansvarade för insamling av empiriskt material genom bandning och anteckningar. Fokusgrupperna var deltagarstyrda, och under första träffen genomfördes en inventering av deltagarnas behov. Vid varje tillfälle gavs dock utrymme för aktuella händelser och erfarenheter.

Det insamlade materialet transkriberades i sin helhet, och den slutliga utskriften omfattade 509 sidor. Såväl de öppna svaren i enkäten som det transkriberade fokusgrupp materialet analyserades med hjälp av analysverktyget NVivo. Den fjärde studiens resultat bygger på deltagarnas utvärdering av fokusgrupperna. Kvalitativ innehållsanalys (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008) och narrativ analys (Polkinghorne, 1995) har använts i delstudierna. Därefter har resultaten integrerats i en metasyntes (Noblit & Hare, 1988; Sandelowski & Barroso, 2007). I studien har nationella etiska riktlinjer följts (National Advisory Board on Research Ethics, 2002, 2009; Academy of Finland, 2003). Trovärdighet i studien har eftersträvat genom etiska överväganden och noggrann dokumentering av forskningsprocessen.

Resultat

Resultaten från studierna (I–IV) kan tematiskt presenteras under fyra delrubriker som kort behandlas nedan. Slutligen integrerades resultaten från delstudierna på en mera abstrakt nivå.

Studie I: Erfarenheter av yrket i övergången från lärarutbildning till yrkesliv

Den första studien belyser lärarnas förväntningar på läraryrket och hur dessa har infriats i övergången från studier till yrkesliv. Tre huvudkategorier med tillhörande dikotoma subkategorier identifierades: 1) *läraryrkets natur*: mångsidig och meningsfull – intensiv och mödosam, 2) *relationer*: nära och

harmoniska – distanserade och fragmentariska och 3) *professionell utveckling*: fortsatt tillväxt – otillräcklig förberedelse. Utgående från en metaanalys kunde de nya lärarnas syn på yrket närmast beskrivas med hjälp av karakteriserande dimensioner som relationell – emotionell och spänningsfylld – obeständig.

Studie II: Erfarenheter av att möta skola och klassrum

Den andra studien reflekterar två lärares unika och individuella erfarenheter av att vara nyutbildade. Fem gemensamma mönster kunde urskiljas i berättelserna, som även har paralleller till andra nya lärare i studien. Ett första mönster som i berättelserna ges ett tydligt uttryck är mängden aktiviteter utöver själva klassrumsarbetet. Lärare upplever att nya uppgifter tillförs utan att tidigare uppgifter förändras eller försvinner. Tempot är uppskruvat och lärarna arbetar kontinuerligt under stor press. Det fenomen lärarna beskriver har av Hargreaves (1998) benämnts *intensifiering*. Ett andra mönster som flera forskare uppmärksammat (t.ex. Gholami, 2009) är lärararbetets diffusa och komplexa karaktär. Gränsdragningar blir svåra därför att förutsättningarna ständigt förändras. *Obeständigheten* är nära besläktad med det föregående mönstret, men här accentueras komplexiteten i läraryrket. Arbetet är fyllt av en mängd uppgifter som borde åtgärdas på samma gång. Ett tredje mönster handlar om tendensen inom en skolkultur att bilda olika typer av grupper som inom sig kan odla en tät gemenskap, men som samtidigt kan utestänga andra. Olika termer har använts för denna tendens till avgränsningar, exempelvis balkanisering (Hargreaves, 1998), men i artikeln har, med hänvisning till Gholami (2009), valts termen *partikularitet*.

Jämsides med dagliga problemsituationer som ska hanteras och lösas sker också en utveckling som innebär att lärarna utarbetar olika strategier för att hantera dessa problemsituationer. Reflektioner över vunna erfarenheter ökar lärarnas medvetenhet om vilka lösningar och tillvägagångssätt som fungerar bäst just för dem. Det här ger sig till uttryck i det fjärde mönstret, *kompetensbildning*, som avser den informella professionella utveckling i yrket som läraren genomgår. Lärarna upplever, trots många svårigheter, också en inspiration och glädje som i synnerhet mötet med eleverna skänker. Här ligger en tillfredsställelse som bidrar till att öka *entusiasmen* i arbetet, vilket är det femte mönstret som identifierats. Bägge begreppen utgår från Fesslers och Christensens (1992) modell över lärares karriärutveckling.

Mönstren är knutna till två huvudsakliga arenor: en skolarena och en klassrumsarena. Den första gruppen av mönster, anknutna till *skolarenan*, avser de problemfyllda situationer nya lärare möter och inbegriper hela skolans verksamhet, bl.a. mångfalden och mängden uppgifter som följer med yrket och relationer till kolleger och föräldrar. Den andra gruppen, som innefattar den utveckling och tillfredsställelse lärarna speciellt upplever i yrket, återfinns däremot till stor del inom *klassrumsarenan*, dvs. i det dagliga arbetet i klassen, i undervisningen och i kontakten med eleverna. Arenorna är inte statiska eller vitt åtskilda utan påverkar ömsesidigt varandra. Däremot synliggör de erfarenheter och upplevelser som både inspirerar och frustrerar.

Studie III: Erfarenheter av relationer inom skolsamfundet

Den tredje studien utforskar nya lärares erfarenheter av sina relationer inom skolsamfundet. Tre typer av betydelsefulla relationer med spänningsladdade paradoxer identifierades.

1) Omsorg om – omtanke eller uteslutning

Den första relationen fokuserar på en omsorg om nya lärare i början av deras yrkesliv. Relationen innefattar däremot en spänning mellan omtanke och uteslutning. Det här kan innebära ett tydligt och omtänksamt ledarskap, kollegialt mottagande och stöd samt positiv bekräftelse, men också en uteslutning som avsaknad av bekräftelse och tillit, trakasserier och behovet av att sätta ner foten samt utmanande kontakter och hot om rättsliga åtgärder.

2) Ömsesidighet – omfattande eller begränsad

Den andra relationen refererar till ett dynamiskt utbyte och en interaktion baserad på jämlikhet mellan involverade personer i skolsamfundet. Relationen innehåller en spänning mellan en omfattande eller begränsad ömsesidighet. Den kan därmed innefatta ömsesidigt samarbete, öppen och positiv atmosfär alternativt sporadisk kontakt, motstånd, olika perspektiv och envägskommunikation.

3) Omsorg för – glädje eller utmattning

Den tredje identifierade relationen fokuserar på en omsorg för elever och bottnar i lärares önskan om att undervisa, arbeta nära tillsammans med elever och med elevers lärande. Relationen innefattar dock en spänning mellan glädje och den utmattning elevrelationer samtidigt kan medföra. Relationen kan därför inbegripa nära och fruktbara relationer, inspirerande och belönande lärande och utveckling, förtroende och respekt. Emellertid kan relationen också innefatta svårigheter med att möta individuella behov, utmanande elevbeteenden och att skapa arbetsro i klassen.

Studie IV: Erfarenheter av stöd genom gruppmentorskap

Den fjärde studien beskriver nya lärares och en mentors erfarenheter av att delta i gruppmentorskap. Fem dimensioner eller röster av erfarenheter lyftes särskilt fram; 1) *att få dela erfarenheter och diskutera viktiga pedagogiska frågeställningar*, 2) *ömsesidighet och jämlikhet*, 3) *formellt, informellt och nonformellt lärande*, 4) *dialog och samarbete* samt 5) *inget fortsatt behov av mentorskap*. Det finländska initiativet till gruppmentorskap bygger på idén om professionell autonomi och en stark tilltro till lärares professionella kompetens. Således står gruppmentorskap till en del i kontrast till den form av mentorskap som implementeras i Sverige och som inkluderar ett provår, registrering av lärare och bedömning.

Integrering av resultat

Vilken är då den samlade bilden av induktion eller de första åren i yrket utgående från resultaten i studierna? Särskilt fyra dimensioner träder fram när

resultaten från delstudierna förs samman och granskas. Induktion kan utgående från nya lärares erfarenheter karakteriseras som 1) relationell – emotionell, 2) spänningsfylld – obeständig, 3) lärorik – utvecklande och 4) ömsesidig – professionell. I nedanstående tabell visas dimensionerna och de kategorier eller mönster från delstudierna (I–IV) som de representeras av.

Tabell 8 Dimensioner med tillhörande kategorier

Relationell – emotionell

Nära och harmoniska – distanserade och fragmentariska (I)
Partikularitet (II)
Entusiasm (II)
Omsorg om: omtanke – uteslutning (III)
Omsorg för: glädje – utmattning (III)

Spänningsfylld – obeständig

Mångsidig och meningsfull – intensiv och mödosam (I)
Intensifiering (II)
Obeständighet (II)

Lärorik – utvecklande

Fortsatt tillväxt – otillräcklig förberedelse (I)
Kompetensbildning (II)
Formellt, informellt och non-formellt lärande (IV)

Ömsesidig – professionell

Ömsesidighet: omfattande – begränsad (III)
Ömsesidighet och likvärdighet (IV)
Att få dela erfarenheter och diskutera viktiga pedagogiska frågeställningar (IV)
Dialog och samarbete (IV)
Inget behov av fortsatt mentorskap (IV)

Diskussion och konklusion

Genom att i det avslutande kapitlet ändra fokus och betrakta resultaten och de fyra framträdande dimensionerna med hjälp av tidigare forskning och utifrån ett praktikteoretiskt perspektiv, gestaltas en ny syntes: *induktionspraktik*. Denna praktik består av en särskild arkitektur och betraktas med hjälp av de tre rummen semantiskt rum, fysiskt tidsrum och socialt rum (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008). Samtidigt presenteras en mer enhetlig bild av induktionsfasen från datamaterialet i sin helhet.

Det semantiska rummet får mening och förståelighet genom språket och karakteristiska ”att säga”. Det här rummet består således av varierande uttryck och begrepp för att beskriva och skapa mening och förståelse av den komplexa verklighet induktionen utgörs av. Den nya läraren formar och formas samtidigt

av tidigare kulturellt-diskursiva arrangemang som i sin tur påverkar det språk som används, dvs. såväl innehåll som begreppsapparat. I början av fokusgruppintervjuerna gjordes en inventering av de nya lärarnas behov av stöd. De teman som lyftes fram rörde relationer, lärarrollen, arbetsmängden, otillräcklighet, tid, välmående och stöd. Relationella och emotionella aspekter lyftes i högre grad fram än didaktiska eller specifika ämnesrelaterade frågor. Å ena sidan användes begrepp för att beskriva yrket som t.ex. varierande, roligt, meningsfullt, spännande, självständigt, utmanande, socialt och ansvarsfullt. Å andra sidan beskrevs yrket med begrepp som stress, tung arbetsbörda och tidsbrist. Liknande erfarenheter har framkommit i tidigare forskning om nya lärare (se t.ex. Fuller, 1969; Veenman, 1984; Hobson m.fl., 2007). På en övergripande nivå har jag beskrivit nya lärares konkreta uttryck och ”att säga” i dimensionerna relationell – emotionell, spänningsfylld – obeständig, lärorik – utvecklande och ömsesidig – professionell.

Studien fokuserade inte specifikt på lärarnas professionella språkanvändning, däremot är kollektiv reflektion en verbal aktivitet som lyfter språkliga aspekter till ytan. Ett professionellt språk är i detta sammanhang ett specifikt pedagogiskt språk med definierade och operationaliserade begrepp centrala inom yrket. Därmed är det inte ett vardagligt språk som alltid kan användas och förstås av allmänheten över lag. Från det här perspektivet kan de nya lärarnas språk närmast karakteriseras som ett allmänt vardagsspråk utan precisa begrepp eller terminologi. I stället utmärktes språket av en mängd metaforiska uttryck, vilket kan reflektera språklig fattigdom som tidigare forskning påtalat (jfr Hansén, 1997). Fokusgruppernas nonformella eller informella karaktär har troligtvis bidragit till denna typ av språkanvändning, och därför skulle det vara viktigt att framdeles i ännu högre grad dra nytta av professionell litteratur och teori. På så vis kunde mentorskap också starkare knytas till en forskningsbaserad lärarutbildning.

Det fysiska tidsrummet erhåller sin produktivitet genom aktiviteter och handlingar och karakteristiska ”att göra”. Induktionsfasen och nya lärares erfarenheter formas således av särskilda fysiska och ekonomiska omständigheter, aktiviteter och handlingar inom en given tidsrymd. De nya lärarnas erfarenheter av existerande eller icke-existerande aktiviteter och handlingar, materiella och praktiska arrangemang som fysiskt avser att stödja dem under den första tiden i yrket blir synligt här. Ett sådant exempel är det framväxande Osaava Verme- projektet kring gruppmentorskap som lyfts fram i den fjärde artikeln (se även Heikkinen m.fl., 2012). Även om stöd i form av mentorskap har utvecklats i Finland, är stödet ännu inte formaliserat i den betydelsen att det skulle vara obligatoriskt eller utgöra en del av lärares arbetstid. Kommuner och skolor kan således fortfarande bestämma hur de vill ta emot sina nya lärare och vilket stöd de väljer att erbjuda dem. Det informella stödet från rektorer och kolleger och det arrangemang av mottagande och introduktion som skolan ordnar är därför väsentligt och betonas i den tredje studien.

Det som i mindre utsträckning framkommit i delstudierna men som är uppenbart i det insamlade datamaterialet i sin helhet är fysiska och ekonomiska betingelser, i form av tillgängliga resurser, lagstiftning och arbetssituation, som i hög grad påverkar lärarna antingen på ett stödjande eller begränsande sätt. Resurser kan

vara material och läromedel, teknisk utrustning, klassrumsfaciliteter etc. De nya lärarna påtalar i synnerhet bristen på läromedel och undervisningsmaterial på det egna språket, vilket är ett dilemma i en minoritetskontext och som resulterar i extra arbete. Lärarna i studien upplever också juridiska ramar som läroplanen, barnskyddslagen och tystnadsplikten som begränsande för arbetet. En instabil arbetssituation resulterade i ytterligare extra bekymmer och stress hos lärare i vissa regioner.

Induktion kan även ses som en spänningsfylld praktik när det gäller frågan om tid. Erfarenheter av tidsbrist och tidskrävande uppgifter lyfts frekvent fram, i synnerhet när det gäller aktiviteter utanför klassrummet. Det här synliggörs i dimensionen spänningsfylld–obeständig. Merparten av lärarna är också unga i åldern 25–29, vilket innebär att induktionen sker i en speciell livsfas där många t.ex. bildar familj. Att vara förälder till små barn kan för många betyda att det är svårt att prioritera mentorskap så länge det ordnas utanför arbetstid.

De tidigare två rummen är intimt förbundna med det tredje, *det sociala rummet*, som får sitt värde genom karakteristiska ”att relatera” i termer av makt. I induktionsfasen relaterar nya lärare, erfarna lärare, elever och andra sig till varandra på varierande sätt. Den sociala dimensionen av läraryrket har enligt forskning ökat och därmed också yrkets emotionella karaktär (Devos m.fl., 2012; Schutz & Zembylas, 2009). Dimensionerna relationell – emotionell och ömsesidig – professionell är också i hög grad synliga i min studie. Inom klassrumsarenan återfinns fortfarande mest relationer till elever, och det är den här arenan lärarstudier med entusiasm förväntar sig få arbeta inom. Att få undervisa, arbeta med barn och se deras framsteg är det som skänker de nya lärarna mest glädje och tillfredsställelse i yrket, vilket även är i linje med tidigare forskning. Även om besvärliga elevrelationer inte lyfts fram i alla lärarberättelser, som i den andra studien, återfinns även sådana exempel i materialet. Många lärare är överraskade över mängden tid de behöver spendera på fostran och disciplinfrågor i klassen. Vissa elevers utmanande beteende och rastlöshet samt svårigheten att möta individuella behov lyfts fram som tröttande och utmattande över tid. Relationen till skolassistenter i klassen är för många nya lärare också speciell och ibland även svårhanterlig, ifall alltför olika synsätt och arbetssätt föreligger.

På skolarenan, eller utanför klassrummet, rör relationerna främst kolleger, rektorn, övrig skolpersonal och elevers föräldrar. Den här arenan verkar också vara mycket mera komplex för nya lärare än för äldre att hantera. I synnerhet kollegierelationen är betydelsefull och relationerna reflekterar i hög grad den skolkultur som råder. Exempel på stöd, uppskattning och bekräftelse ges, men även det motsatta som uteslutning, motstånd och kränkningar. Skolledarskapet är här av betydelse. Föräldrakontakten lyfts fram i termer av osäkerhet, i synnerhet de nya lärare som är mycket yngre, inte har egna barn eller upplever sig illa beredda att sköta kontakten. Dimensionen ömsesidig – professionell framhålls i de nya lärarnas önskan om mera jämlika och symmetriska relationer, där de inte enbart får hjälp och stöd av andra utan också kan bidra med egen kunskap och expertis. Den fjärde studien kring gruppmentorskap lyfter fram dylika formella och professionella relationer, medan den tredje mera betonar informella sådana.

De tre rummen hänger intimt samman (Schatzki, 2002). De bildar således en helhet och inga tydliga gränser går att dra dem emellan. Att diskutera och reflektera kring resultaten och de nya lärarnas erfarenheter utifrån detta teoretiska perspektiv öppnar däremot för en delvis ny gestaltning av nya lärares induktionspraktik som en slutlig syntes. Karakteristiskt för induktionspraktiken verkar vara de kontraster, paradoxer och spänningar som den är fylld av. Lärarket och vardagen är oförutsägbara och obeständiga, vilket bidrar till ett kalejdoskop av erfarenheter. Lärare kan erfara en identisk eller liknande situation på ett diametralt motsatt sätt. De nya lärarnas subjektiva erfarenheter reflekterar således på ett intrikat sätt deras personlighet, livssituation, skolkultur, klassrumssituation, tillgång på resurser och stöd. Att delta i induktionspraktiken, som är såväl spänningsfylld–obeständig som relationell–emotionell, accentuerar vikten av att genom språk och kommunikation få artikulera, skapa mening och förståelse av denna komplexa verklighet. I min studie har dimensionen ömsesidig – professionell representerat möjligheten för reflektion, samarbete och diskussion både formellt och informellt. De här tillfällena är viktiga i den identitetsskapande processen och i den professionella utvecklingen, vilka i avhandlingen omfattas av dimensionen lärarutvecklande. Eftersom nya lärare möter sitt arbete både som fascinerande och frustrerande, är det av vikt att lyssna till deras erfarenheter när induktionspraktiken utvecklas.

References

- Aili, C., Persson, H. & Persson, K. (2003). *Mentorskap. Att organisera skolans möte med nya lärare*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Abbott, L., Moran, A. & Clarke, L. (2009). Northern Ireland beginning teachers' experiences of induction: The 'haves' and the 'have nots'. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(2), 95–110.
- Academy of Finland (2003). *Guidelines on research ethics*. Retrieved April 10, 2011, from <http://www.aka.fi/Tiedostot/Tiedostot/Julkaisut/Suomen%20Akatemian%20eettiset%20ohjeet%202003.pdf>
- Adelswärd, V. (1991). *Prat, skrott, skvaller och gräl*. Stockholm: Brombergs.
- Ahlfors, T. (September 13, 2007). Enkät kan leda till seminarier för nya lärare. *Läraren*, p. 4.
- Alerby, E., Bengtsson, J., Bjurström, P., Hörnqvist, M-L. & Kroksmark, T. (2006). *Det fysiska rummets betydelse i lärandet*. Resultatdialog 2006. Forskning inom utbildningsvetenskap. Vetenskapsrådets rapportserie 15, 7–14. Retrieved April 13, 2012, from http://www.cm.se/webbshop_vr/pdf/2006_15x.pdf
- Alvesson, M. & Sköldberg, K. (2008). *Tolkning och reflektion. Vetenskapsfilosofi och kvalitativ metod*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Andersson, I. (2005). *Nyutbildade lärares yrkessocialisation i mötet mellan praktik och teori*. Skapande Vetande 45. Linköping: Linköpings universitet.
- Andersson, I. & Andersson, S. (2004). Mikropolitiska perspektiv på nyutbildade lärares reflektioner. *Pedagogisk forskning i Sverige*, 9(3), 161–188.
- Andersson, G., Bennich-Björkman, L., Johansson, E. & Persson, A. (2003). Skolkulturer – tröghet, förändring, framgång. In A. Persson (Ed.), *Skolkulturer* (pp. 11–30). Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Angen, M. (2000). Pearls, pith, and provocation. Evaluating interpretive inquiry: Reviewing the validity debate and opening the dialogue. *Qualitative Health Research*, 10, 378–395.
- Aspfors, J. (2010). "Happy and inspired pupils brighten up the days". Newly qualified teachers' satisfying experiences during their first years of teaching. In G. Eklund & J. Sjöberg (Eds.), *Att växa till lärare* (pp. 95–106) (Special edition No 4/2010). Vasa: Åbo Akademi University, Faculty of Education.
- Aspfors, J. & Hansén, S-E. (Eds.).(2011a). *Gruppmentorskap som stöd för lärares professionella utveckling*. Helsinki: Söderströms.
- Aspfors, J. & Hansén, S-E. (2011b). Gruppmentorskapets många ansikten – en metaanalys av möjligheter och utmaningar. In J. Aspfors & S-E. Hansén (Eds.),

- Gruppmentorskap som stöd för lärares professionella utveckling* (pp. 108–124). Helsinki: Söderströms.
- Aspfors, J., Hansén, S-E. & Heikkinen, H.L.T. (2011). Nya lärares erfarenheter av gruppmentorskap i ljuset av praktikens arkitektur. In J. Aspfors & S-E. Hansén (Eds.), *Gruppmentorskap som stöd för lärares professionella utveckling* (pp. 80–93). Helsinki: Söderströms.
- Aspfors, J., Sundar, P. & Poom-Valickis, K. (2012). *Mentoring as practice in Estonia, Finland and Norway*. Paper presented at the conference Supporting New Teachers in Europe. International Conference on Research for Induction of New Teachers, Tallinn, 9-10 May, 2012.
- Barnett-Page, E. & Thomas, J. (2009). *Methods for the synthesis of qualitative research: A critical review*. ESRC National Centre for Research Methods, NCRM Working Paper Series (01/09).
- Bazeley, P. (2007). *Qualitative data analysis with NVivo*. London: Sage Publications.
- Bell, J. (2007). *Introduktion till forskningsmetodik*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Berliner, D.C. (1986). In pursuit of the expert pedagogue. *Educational Researcher*, 15(7), 5–13.
- Berliner, D.C. (1988). Implications of studies on expertise in pedagogy for teacher education and evaluation. In *New directions for teacher assessment*. (Proceedings of the 1988 ETS International Conference, pp. 39 – 68). Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.
- Bjerkeholt, E. & Hedegaard, E. (2008). Systems promoting new teachers' professional development. In G. Fransson & C. Gustafsson (Eds.), *Newly qualified teachers in Northern Europe. Comparative perspectives on promoting professional development* (pp. 45–75). Teacher Education: Research Publications no 4. Gävle: Gävle University Press.
- Blomberg, S. (2008a). *Noviisiopettajana peruskoulussa. Aloittelevien opettajien autentisia kokemuksia ensimmäisestä opettajavuodesta* (Diss.). University of Helsinki.
- Blomberg, S. (2008b). Voiko opettajankoulutusta ja opettajan työn välistä kuilua kuroa umpeen tieteellisen tutkimuksen avulla? *Didacta Varia*, 13(2), 53–57.
- Blomqvist, B., Keihäs, P., Hansén S-E. & Wikman, T. (2008). *Att välja eller välja bort läraryrket. Manliga klasslärares karriärval*. Vasa: Åbo Akademi University, Faculty of Education.
- Bondas, T. & Hall, E.O.C. (2007a). A decade of metasynthesis research in health sciences: A meta-method study. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being*, 2, 101–113.
- Bondas, T. & Hall, E.O.C. (2007b). Challenges in approaching metasynthesis research. *Qualitative Health Research*, 17(1), 113–121.

- Bondas, T., Hall, E.O.C. & Wikberg, A. (accepted for publication). Metasynthesis in health care research. In P. Liamputtong (Ed.), *Research methods in health*. Australia, Victoria: Oxford University Press.
- Boyd, D., Grossman, P., Ing, M., Lankford, H., Loeb, S. & Wyckoff, J. (2011). The influence of school administrators on teacher retention decisions. *American Educational Research Journal*, 48(2), 303–333.
- Bramald, R., Hardman, F. & Leat, D. (1995). Initial teacher trainees and their views of teaching and learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 11(1), 23–31.
- Britton, E., Raizen, S., Paine, L. & Huntley, M.A. (2000). *More swimming, less sinking: Perspectives on teacher induction in the U.S. and abroad*. Retrieved April 29, 2009, from http://www.wested.org/online_pubs/teacherinduction/
- Britton, T. (2003). Comprehensive teacher induction in five countries. In U. Lindgren (Ed.), *Mentorship for learning and development. Contributions from an international conference on mentorship for beginner teachers and school pupils. Umeå University, June 1–4, 2003* (pp. 53–60). Umeå: Umeå University.
- Brouwer, N. & Korthagen, F. (2005). Can teacher education make a difference? *American Educational Research Journal*, 42(1), 153–224.
- Buber, M. (1995/1954). *Det mellanmänskliga*. Ludvika: Dualis.
- Cameron, M., Dingle, R. & Brooking, K. (2007). *Learning to teach: A survey of provisionally registered teachers in Aotearoa New Zealand*. Wellington: New Zealand Teachers Council. Retrieved February 15, 2008, from <http://www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/prt/research/learning2teach-survey.pdf>
- Carr, W. & Kemmis, S. (1986). *Becoming critical. Education, knowledge and action research*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Catterall, M. & Maclaran, P. (1997). Focus group data and qualitative analysis programs: Coding the moving picture as well as the snapshots. *Sociological Research Online*, 2(1), U53–U61.
- Chase, S.E. (2005). Narrative inquiry. Multiple lenses, approaches, voices. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed.) (pp. 651–679). California: Sage publications.
- Cheng, M.H. & Pang, K.C. (1997). Teacher socialization: Implications for the design and management of initial teacher education programmes. *Education + Training*, 39(5), 195–204.
- Coba Arango, E. & Valle, J.M. (2011). Initial teacher education: Learning how to teach 'Key Competences'. In P. Picard & L. Ria (Eds.), *Beginning teachers: A challenge for educational systems – CIDREE Yearbook 2011* (pp. 29–47). Lyon, France: ENS de Lyon, Institut français de l'Éducation.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research methods in education*. London: Routledge Falmer.

- Commission of the European Communities (2007). *Improving the quality of teacher education*. Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament. Brussels.
- Colnerud, G. & Granström, K. (2002). *Respekt för läraryrket. Om lärarens yrkesspråk och yrkesetik*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Conway, P.F. & Clark, C.M. (2003). The journey inward and outward: A re-examination of Fuller's concerns-based model of teacher development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 19, 465–482.
- Corbin, J. & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Corcoran, E. (1981). Transition shock: The beginning teacher's paradox. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(3), 19–23.
- Corradi, G., Gherardi, S. & Verzelloni, L. (2008). *Ten good reasons for assuming a 'practice lens' in organization studies* (Unpublished paper). University of Trento, Italy: Research Unit on Communication, Organizational Learning, and Aesthetics. Retrieved May 18, 2012, from <http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/wbs/conf/olkc/archive/olkc3/papers/contribution312.pdf>
- Corradi, G., Gherardi, S. & Verzelloni, L. (2010). Through the practice lens: Where is the bandwagon of practice-based studies heading? *Management Learning*, 41(3), 265–283.
- Creswell, J.W. (2005). *Educational research. Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Cronqvist, A., Theorell, T., Burns, T. & Lütznén, K. (2004). Caring about – caring for: Moral obligations and work responsibilities in intensive care nursing. *Nursing Ethics*, 11(1), 63–76.
- Dahlberg, K. (2006). The essence of essences – the search for meaning structures in phenomenological analysis of lifeworld phenomena. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being*, 1, 11–19.
- Day, C. (2008). Committed for life? Variations in teachers' work, lives and effectiveness. *Journal of Educational Change*, 9(3), 243–260.
- Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.). (2000). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.
- DEPT-project: The doctoral programme offered by Åbo Akademi University. Retrieved February 5, 2009, from http://www.abo.fi/public/pf_dept
- Devos, C., Dupriez, V. & Paquay, L. (2012). Does the social working environment predict beginning teachers' self-efficacy and feelings of depression? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28, 206–217.

- Edwards-Groves, C., Brennan Kemmis, R., Hardy, I. & Ponte, P (2010). Relational architectures: Recovering solidarity and agency as living practices in education. *Pedagogy, Culture & Society*, 18(1), 43–54.
- Eisenschmidt, E., Heikkinen, H.L.T. & Klages, W. (2008). Strong, competent and vulnerable. Experiences of the first year as a teacher. In G. Fransson & C. Gustafsson (Eds.), *Newly qualified teachers in Northern Europe. Comparative perspectives on promoting professional development* (pp. 125–147). Teacher Education: Research Publications no 4. Gävle: Gävle University Press.
- Eisenschmidt, E., Poom-Valickis, K. & Kärner, A. (2011). Support programme for beginning teachers in Estonia: Benefits and challenges. In P. Picard & L. Ria (Eds.), *Beginning teachers: A challenge for educational systems – CIDREE Yearbook 2011*. Lyon, France: ENS de Lyon, Institut français de l'Éducation.
- Eklund, G. (2010). Students' views of the scientific thesis within teacher education in Finland. In G. Eklund & J. Sjöberg (Eds.), *Att växa till lärare* (pp. 11–28) (Special edition Nr 4). Vasa: Åbo Akademi University, Faculty of Education.
- Elbaz-Luwisch, F. (2005). *Teachers' voices. Storytelling & possibility*. Greenwich: Information Age Publishing.
- Elo, S. & Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 62(1), 107–115.
- Eriksson, K. & Lindström, U. (1997). Abduction – A way to deeper understanding of the world of caring. *Scandinavian Journal of Caring Science*, 11, 195–198.
- Estabrooks, C.A., Field, P.A. & Morse, J.M. (1994). Aggregating qualitative findings: An approach to theory development. *Qualitative Health Research*, 4(4), 503–511.
- European Commission: Directorate-General for Education and Culture (2010). *Developing coherent and system-wide induction programmes for beginning teachers: A handbook for policymakers*. Brussels, Belgium: European Commission. Retrieved April 29, 2012, from http://ec.europa.eu/education/school-education/doc/handbook0410_en.pdf
- European Science Foundation (2000). *Good scientific practice in research and scholarship*. Retrieved March 5, 2009, from <http://www.esf.org/home.html>
- Feiman-Nemser, S. (1996). *Teacher mentoring: A critical review*. ERIC Digest. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teaching and Teacher Education.
- Feiman-Nemser, S. (2001). From preparation to practice: Designing a continuum to strengthen and sustain teaching. *Teachers College Record*, 103(6), 1013–1055.
- Feiman-Nemser, S., Schwille, S., Carver, C. & Yusko, B. (1999). *A conceptual review of literature on new teacher induction*. Washington, DC: National Partnership for Excellence and Accountability in Teaching, 47.

- Fessler, R. & Christensen, J. (1992). *Teacher career cycle: Understanding and guiding the professional development of teachers*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Finnäs, F. (2010). *Finlandssvenskarna 2009. En statistisk rapport*. Helsinki: Svenska Finlands Folkting.
- Fleming, V., Gaidys, U. & Robb, Y. (2003). Hermeneutic research in nursing: Developing a Gadamerian-based research method. *Nursing Inquiry*, 10(2), 113–120.
- Flores, M.A. (2007). Looking at induction of beginning teachers in Portugal: Meanings and paradoxes. In M.V. Zuljan & J. Vogrinc (Eds.), *Professional inductions of teachers in Europe and elsewhere* (pp. 236–259). University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Education.
- Flores, M.A. & Day, C. (2006). Contexts which shape and reshape new teachers' identities: A multi-perspective study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22, 219–232.
- Fransson, G. (2001). Den första tiden – en forskningsöversikt med fördjupningar. In G. Fransson & Å. Morberg (Eds.), *De första ljuva åren – lärares första tid i yrket* (pp.186–215). Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Fransson, G. (2006). *Att se varandra i handling. En jämförande studie av kommunikativa arenor och yrkesblivande för nyblivna fänrikar och lärare* (Diss.). Stockholm: HLS Förlag.
- Fransson, G. (2010). Mentors assess mentees? An overview and analyses of the mentorship role concerning newly qualified teachers. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 33(4), 375–390.
- Fransson, G. & Gustafsson, C. (2008). Becoming a teacher – An introduction to the book. In G. Fransson & C. Gustafsson (Eds.), *Newly qualified teachers in Northern Europe – Comparative perspectives on promoting professional development* (pp. 11–26). Teacher Education: Research Publications no 4. Gävle: Gävle University Press.
- Fransson, G. & Morberg, Å. (Eds.).(2001). *De första ljuva åren – lärares första tid i yrket*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Fuller, F. (1969). Concerns of teachers: A developmental conceptualization. *American Educational Research Journal*, 6(2), 207–226.
- Gadamer, H-G. (1975). *Truth and method*. London: Sheed and Ward.
- Ganser, T. (2003). Teacher mentorship programs in the United States: Shaping trends and new directions. In U. Lindgren (Ed.), *Mentorship for learning and development. Contributions from an international conference on mentorship for*

- beginner teachers and school pupils. Umeå University, June 1–4, 2003* (pp. 24–39). Umeå: Umeå University.
- Gestrin-Hagner, M. (February 7, 2008). Föräldrar klagar ofta på lärarna. *Vasabladet*.
- Gholami, K. (2009). *Representing the epistemic nature of teachers' practical knowledge. The case of class teachers' general knowledge*. (Diss.). University of Helsinki.
- Gibbs, A. (1997). Focus groups. *Social Research Update* 19. Department of Sociology, University of Surrey, Guildford. Retrieved May 24, 2012, from <http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU19.html>
- Goodson, I. & Numan, U. (2003). *Livshistoria och professionsutveckling. Berättelser om lärares liv och arbete*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Graneheim, U.H. & Lundman, B. (2004). Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: Concepts, procedures and measures to achieve trustworthiness. *Nurse Education Today*, 24, 105–112.
- Green, B. (2009). Introduction: Understanding and researching professional practice. In B. Green (Ed.), *Understanding and researching professional practice* (pp. 1–18). Rotterdam/Taipei: Sense Publishers.
- Hansén, S-E. (1997). "Jag är proffs på det här". *Om lärarens arbete under en tid av förändring*. (Report Nr 16). Vasa: Åbo Akademi University, Faculty of Education.
- Hansén, S-E. (2004). The Swedish 'people's school' in Finland and the language question: Homogenization and differentiation. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 36(6), 645–655.
- Hansén, S-E. & Sjöberg, J. (2011). Att förstå och använda läroplanen. In S-E. Hansén & L. Forsman (Eds.), *Allmändidaktik – vetenskap för lärare* (pp. 281–302). Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Hansén, S-E., Sjöberg, J. & Sjöholm, K. (2008). Att kvalificera lärare i senmodern tid. Kontextuella dilemman i finländsk lärarutbildning. In G. Björk (Ed.), *Samtid & Framtid. Pedagogisk forskning vid ÅA 2008. Jubileumsrapport 90 år*. (Report Nr 26). Vasa: Åbo Akademi University, Faculty of Education.
- Hardy, I. (2010). Academic architectures: Academic perceptions of teaching conditions in an Australian university. *Studies in Higher Education*, 35(4), 391–404.
- Hargreaves, A. (1998). The emotional practice of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 14(8), 835-854.
- Hargreaves, A. (2000). Mixed emotions: teachers' perceptions of their interactions with students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16, 811–826.
- Hargreaves, A. (2001) Emotional geographies of teaching. *Teachers College Record*, 103(6), 1056–1080.

- Hargreaves, A. & Fullan, M. (2000). Mentoring in the new millennium. *Theory Into Practice*, 39, 50–57.
- Heaton, J. (2004). *Reworking qualitative data*. London: Sage Publications.
- Hebert, E. & Worthy, T. (2001). Does the first year of teaching have to be a bad one? A case study of success. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 897–911.
- Heikkinen, H.L.T., Jokinen, H. & Tynjälä, P. (2008). Reconceptualising mentoring as a dialogue. In G. Fransson & C. Gustafsson (Eds.), *Newly qualified teachers in Northern Europe. Comparative perspectives on promoting professional development* (pp. 107–124). Teacher Education: Research Publications no 4. Gävle: Gävle University Press.
- Heikkinen, H.L.T., Jokinen, H. & Tynjälä, P. (Eds.)(2010). *VERME. Vertaisryhmämentorointi työssä oppimisen tukena*. Helsinki: Tammi.
- Heikkinen, H.L.T., Jokinen, H. & Tynjälä, P. (Eds.)(2012). *Peer-group mentoring for teacher development*. London: Routledge.
- Heikkinen, H.L.T., Jokinen, H., Markkanen, I. & Tynjälä, P. (Eds.)(2012). *Osaaminen jakoon. Vertaisryhmämentorointi opetuslalla*. Jyväskylä: PS-Kustannus.
- Hermansen, M., Løw, O. & Petersen, V. (2004). *Kommunikation og samarbejde – i professionelle relationer*. København: Akademisk forlag.
- Hesse-Biber, S.N. & Leavy, P. (2006). *The practice of qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Hiebert, J., Gallimore, R. & Stiegler, J.W. (2002). A knowledge base for the teaching profession: What would it look like and how can we get one? *Educational Researcher*, 3–15.
- Hobson, A.J., Ashby, P., Malderez, A. & Tomlinson, P. (2009). Mentoring beginning teachers: What we know and what we don't. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25, 207–216.
- Hobson, A.J., Malderez, A., Tracey, L., Homer, M., Mitchell, N., Biddulph, M., ...Tomlinson, P.D. (2007). *Newly qualified teachers' experiences of their first year of teaching. Findings from the phase III of the becoming a teacher project*. Nottingham: Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF).
- Hogan, P. (2010). *Gadamer and the philosophy of education. Encyclopaedia of the Philosophy of Education*. Retrieved May 22, 2012, from http://www.ffst.hr/ENCYCLOPAEDIA/doku.php?id=gadamer_and_philosophy_of_education
- Holmer, J. & Starrin, B. (1993). *Deltagarorienterad forskning*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Hopmann, S. (2006). Læreruddannelsen i Norden – Et internationalt perspektiv. In K. Skagen (Ed.), *Lärarutbildningen i Norden* (pp. 109–135). Stockholm: HLS Förlag.

- Howe, E.R. (2006). Exemplary teacher induction: An international review. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 38(3), 287–297.
- Høigaard, R., Giske, R. & Sundsli, K. (2011). Newly qualified teachers' work engagement and teacher efficacy influences on job satisfaction, burnout, and the intention to quit. *European Journal of Teacher Education*. Retrieved January 9, 2012, from <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/02619768.2011.633993>
- Huberman, M. (1989). The professional life cycle of teachers. *Teachers College Record*, 91(1), 31–57.
- Huling-Austin, L. (1992). Research on learning to teach: Implications for teacher induction and mentoring programs. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(3), 173–180.
- Ingersoll, R.M. (2003). The teacher shortage: Myth or reality? *Educational HORIZONS*, 81(3), 146–152.
- Ingersoll, R.M. & Kralik, J. (2004). *The impact of mentoring on teacher retention: What the research says*. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States. Retrieved May 6, 2009, from <http://www.ecs.org/clearinghouse/50/36/5036.htm>
- Ingersoll, R.M. & Smith, T.M. (2004). Do teacher induction and mentoring matter? *NASSP Bulletin*, 88(638), 28–40.
- Ingersoll, R.M. & Strong, M. (2011). The impact of induction and mentoring programs for beginning teachers: A critical review of the research. *Review of Educational Research*, 81(2), 201–233.
- Isenbarger, L. & Zembylas, M. (2006). The emotional labour of caring in teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22, 120–134.
- Jakku-Sihvonen, R. & Niemi, H. (Eds.).(2006). *Research-based teacher education in Finland – Reflections by Finnish teacher educators*. Research in Educational Sciences 25. Helsinki: Finnish Educational Research Association.
- Jarzabkowski, L.M. (2002). The social dimensions of teacher collegiality. *Journal of Educational Enquiry*, 3(2), 1–20.
- Jensen, B., Sandoval-Hernández, A., Knoll, S. & Gonzalez, E.J. (2012). *The experience of new teachers: Results from TALIS 2008*. OECD Publishing. Retrieved April 10, 2012, from <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/5/40/49846877.pdf>
- Johnson, S.M., Berg, J.H. & Donaldson, M.L. (2005). *Who stays in teaching and why: A review of the literature on teacher retention*. The project on the next generation of teachers: Harvard Graduate School of Education.
- Jokinen, H., Heikkinen, H.L.T. & Välijärvi, J. (2005). *Mentoring in supporting newly qualified teachers' professional development: Individualism or organisational development*. Paper in ATEE 2005 Conference web publication. Retrieved April 15, 2007, from http://www.atee2005.nl/download/papers/21_bb.pdf

- Jokinen, H., Morberg, Å., Poom-Valickis, K. & Rohtma, V. (2008). Mentoring of newly qualified teachers in Estonia, Finland and Sweden. In G. Fransson & C. Gustafsson (Eds.), *Newly qualified teachers in northern Europe. Comparative perspectives on promoting professional development* (pp. 76–106). Teacher Education: Research Publications no 4. Gävle: Gävle University Press.
- Jones, M. (2006). The balancing act of mentoring: Mediating between newcomers and communities of practice. In C. Cullingford (Ed.), *Mentoring in education: An international perspective* (pp. 57–86). Abingdon, UK: Ashgate.
- Jordell, K-Ø. (2002). *Processes of becoming a teacher: A review of reviews*. Oslo: University of Oslo, Institute for Educational Research.
- Kagan, D.M. (1992). Professional growth among preservice and beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(2), 129–169.
- Kangasniemi, J. (2012). Verme Osaavan poluilla. In H.L.T. Heikkinen, H. Jokinen, I. Markkanen & P. Tynjälä (Eds.), *Osaaminen jakoon. Vertaisryhmämentorointi opetuslalla* (pp. 235–241). Jyväskylä: PS-Kustannus.
- Kelchtermans, G. (1996). Teacher vulnerability: Understanding its moral and political roots. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 26(3), 307–323.
- Kelchtermans, G. (2006). Teacher collaboration and collegiality as workplace conditions. A review. *Zeitschrift für Pädagogik*, 52(2), 220–237.
- Kelchtermans, G. & Ballet, K. (2002). The micropolitics of teacher induction. A narrative-biographical study on teacher socialization. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18, 105–120.
- Kemmis, S. (2012). Phronēsis, experience and the primacy of praxis. In E.A. Kinsella & A. Pitman (Eds.), *Phronesis as professional knowledge. Practical wisdom in the professions* (pp. 147–162). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Kemmis, S. (In press). Pedagogy, praxis and practice-based higher education. In J. Higgs, R. Barnett & S. Billet (Eds.), *Practice-based education*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Kemmis, S. & Grootenboer, P. (2008). Situating praxis in practice: Practice architectures and the cultural, social and material conditions for practice. In S. Kemmis & T. Smith (Eds.), *Enabling praxis: Challenges for education* (pp. 37–62). Rotterdam: Sense.
- Kemmis, S. & Heikkinen, H.L.T. (2011). *Understanding professional development of teachers within the theory of practice architectures*. Paper presented in the symposium Practice architectures of teacher induction at the European Conference on Educational Research, ECER, Berlin, September 13–16, 2011.
- Kemmis, S. & Heikkinen, H.L.T. (2012). Future perspectives: Peer-group mentoring and international practices for teacher development. In H.L.T. Heikkinen, H. Jokinen

- & P. Tynjälä (Eds.), *Peer-group mentoring for teacher development* (pp. 144–170). London: Routledge.
- Kemmis, S., Edwards-Groves, C. & Heikkinen, H.L.T. (2012). Teacher induction as practice. Paper presented in the Symposium *Research on practices of teacher induction* at the European Conference on Educational Research, ECER, Cádiz, September 18–21, 2012.
- Kemmis, S., Heikkinen, H.L.T., Aspfors, J. & Hansén, S-E. (2011). *Gruppmentorskapets arkitektur och ekologi*. In J. Aspfors & S-E. Hansén (Eds.), *Gruppmentorskap som stöd för lärares professionella utveckling* (pp. 54–78). Helsinki: Söderströms.
- Kemmis, S., Hardy, I., Wilkinson, J., Edwards-Groves, C. & Lloyd, A. (2010/2011). *On being “stirred” into practice*. Unpublished manuscript. School of Education, Charles Sturt University, Wagga Wagga, Australia.
- Kendall, D. (2008). *Sociology in our times: The essentials*. Belmont: Wadsworth.
- Kitzinger, J. (1995). ‘Introducing focus groups’. *British Medical Journal*, 311, 299–302.
- Komulainen, J. (2010). *Ohjattu harjoittelu luokanopettajaopiskelijoiden ammatillisen kehittymisen tukena* (Diss.). Kajaani: University of Oulu, Kasvatustieteiden tiedekunta, Kajaanin opettajankoulutusyksikkö.
- Kommunnätverket Induction: Research project at the University of Gävle, Sweden. Retrieved February 16, 2009, from <http://www.hig.se/pinst/DIDAKTIK/forsk/i/Induction.html>
- Koskenniemi, M. (1965). *The development of young elementary school teachers: A follow-up study*. Helsinki: Annales Academiae Scientiarum Fennicae.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews. An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. London: Sage Publications.
- Kylmä, J. (2000). *Dynamics of hope in adult persons living with HIV/AIDS and their significant others – a substantive theory* (Diss.). Kuopio University.
- Kyriacou, C. & Kunc, R. (2007). Beginning teachers’ expectations of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 1246–1257.
- Laaksola, H. (2000). Palkkataso opettajapulan syy. *Opettaja*, 32, p. 12.
- Laaksola, H. (2007a). Moni opettaja lähtökuopissa. *Opettaja*, pp. 48–49.
- Laaksola, H. (2007b). Opettajan ammatti ei ole enää elämäntyö. *Opettaja*, pp. 48–49.
- Landsheere, G. (1997). History of educational research. In J. Keeves (Ed.), *Educational research—methodology and measurement: An international handbook* (2nd ed). Oxford: Elsevier Science.
- Lang, C. (1999). *When does it get easier? Beginning teachers’ experiences during their first year of teaching*. Paper at the Annual Conference of the Australian

- Association for Research in Education, Melbourne, November 29–December 2, 1999.
- Langdon, F.J. (2007). *Beginning teacher learning and professional development: An analysis of induction programmes* (Diss.). University of Waikato.
- Lankshear, C. & Knobel, M. (2004). *A handbook for teacher research. From design to implementation*. Berkshire: Open University Press.
- Lave, J. & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning. Legitimate peripheral participation*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Laverty, S.M. (2003). Hermeneutic phenomenology and phenomenology: A comparison of historical and methodological considerations. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 2(3). Article 3. Retrieved January 29, 2009, from http://www.ualberta.ca/~iiqm/backissues/2_3final/pdf/laverty.pdf
- Lee, J.C. & Feng, S. (2007). Mentoring support and the professional development of beginning teachers: A Chinese perspective. *Mentoring & Tutoring*, 15(3), 243–262.
- Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105–117). Thousands Oak, California: Sage Publications.
- Lindgren, U. (2000). *En empirisk studie av mentorskap inom högre utbildning i Sverige – innebörd, utformning och effekter* (Diss.). Åbo Akademi University.
- Lindgren, U. (2007). Supporting the professionalization of new teachers: The role of teacher education and mentoring. In U. Lindgren (Ed.), *A Nordic perspective on teacher education in a time of societal change. Contributions from a Nordic conference that focused on the professional teacher role* (pp. 97–112). Umeå: Department of Swedish and Social Sciences, Teacher Education, Umeå University.
- Long, T. & Johnson, M. (2000). Rigour, reliability and validity research. *Clinical Effectiveness in Nursing*, 4(1), 30–37.
- Lortie, D.C (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lundmark, L. (1993). *Tiden är bara ett ord. Om klockornas makt och hur man bryter den*. Stockholm: Rabén Prisma.
- Mattesson, M. (2009). *Att använda Internet i forskningen har många fördelar*. Fakulteten för Hälsa och Samhälle, Malmö Högskola. Retrieved March 16, 2009, from <http://www.mah.se/templates/Page37026.aspx>
- Maxwell, J. (2002). Understanding and validity in qualitative research. In A.M. Huberman & M.B. Miles (Eds.), *The qualitative researcher's companion* (pp. 37–64). London: Sage Publications.

- McCormack, A. & Thomas, K. (2003). Is survival enough? Induction experiences of beginning teachers within a New South Wales context. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 31(2), 125–138.
- McLaughlin, H.J. & Burnaford, G.E. (2007). Re-thinking the basis for “high-quality” teaching: Teacher preparation in communities. In T. Townsend & R. Bates (Eds.), *Handbook of teacher education. Globalization, standards and professionalism in times of change* (pp. 331–342). Dordrecht: Springer.
- McNaughton, D.B. (2000). A synthesis of qualitative home visiting research. *Public Health Nursing*, 17, 405–414.
- McRae, K. (1999). *Conflict and compromise in multilingual societies: Finland*. Helsinki: Finnish Academy of Science and Letters.
- Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. (1994). *An expanded sourcebook. Qualitative data analysis*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Ministry of Education (2007). *Teacher education 2020*. Helsinki: Ministry of Education.
- Morberg, Å. & Gustafsson, L. (2007). *Söderhamnsmodellen – mentorstöd för nybörjarlärare i yrkesutveckling och lokal skolutveckling*. Lärarutbildningens skriftserie nr 3. Gävle: Högskolan i Gävle.
- Morgan, D.L. (1997). *Focus groups as qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Morgan, D.L. & Spanish, M.T. (1984). Focus groups: A new tool for qualitative research. *Qualitative Sociology*, 7(3), 253–270.
- Moyle, K. (2006). *Focus groups in educational research: Using ICT to assist in meaningful data collection*. Paper presented at the AARE conference. Retrieved January 29, 2009, from <http://www.aare.edu.au/06pap/moy06634.pdf>
- National Advisory Board on Research Ethics (2002). *Good scientific practice and procedures for handling misconduct and fraud in science*. Retrieved March 5, 2009, from <http://www.tenk.fi/ENG/HTK/index.htm>
- National Advisory Board on Research Ethics (2009). *Ethical principles of research in the humanities and social and behavioural sciences and proposals for ethical review*. Retrieved April 10, 2011, from <http://www.tenk.fi/eng/Publications/guidelines/ethicalprinciples.pdf>
- Niemi, H. & Jakku-Sihvonen, R. (2006). Research-based teacher education. In R. Jakku-Sihvonen & H. Niemi (Eds.), *Research-based teacher education in Finland - reflections by Finnish teacher educators* (pp. 31–50). Research in Educational Sciences 25. Helsinki: Finnish Educational Research Association.
- Noblit, G.W. & Hare, R.D. (1988). *Meta-ethnography: Synthesizing qualitative studies*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Noddings, N. (1999). ‘Two concepts of caring’. *Philosophy of Education*. Retrieved March 2, 2011, from <http://ojs.ed.uiuc.edu/index.php/pes/article/viewFile/2024/719>

- Noddings, N. (2005). Caring in education. *The encyclopaedia of informal education*. Retrieved February 12, 2011, from www.infed.org/biblio/noddings_caring_in_education.htm
- Noddings, N. (2010). Moral education in an age of globalization. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 42(4), 390–396.
- Nuikkinen, K. (2005). *En sund och trygg skolbyggnad*. Helsinki: Finnish national board of education.
- Nyholm, B. (1999). "Vår uppgift är den högsta i lifvet...". *Studier i den finlandssvenska folkskollärarkåren 1871–1971 ur pedagogikhistorisk och utbildningshistorisk synvinkel* (Diss.). Åbo Akademi University.
- Nyman, T. (2009). *Nuoren vieraan kielen opettajan pedagogisen ajattelun ja ammatillisen asiantuntijuuden kehittyminen* (Diss.). University of Jyväskylä.
- O'Connor, K.E. (2008). "You choose to care": Teachers, emotions and professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24, 117–126.
- OECD (2003). *Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers. Country background report for Finland*. Retrieved February 5, 2009, from <http://www.oecd.org/education/preschoolandschool/5328720.pdf>
- OECD (2005). *Teachers matter – Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers*. Paris: OECD publications.
- Online Etymology Dictionary*. Retrieved March 15, 2012, from <http://www.etymonline.com/>
- Orland-Barak, L. (2006). Convergent, divergent and parallel dialogues: Knowledge construction in professional conversations. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 12(1), 13–31.
- Oxford English Dictionary*. Retrieved December 12, 2011, from <http://www.oed.com/>
- Patel, R. & Davidson, B. (1991/2003). *Forskningsmetodikens grunder. Att planera, genomföra och rapportera en undersökning*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Paterson, B., Dubouloz, C-J., Chevrier, J., Ashe, B., King, J. & Moldoveanu, M. (2009). Conducting qualitative metasynthesis research: Insights from a metasynthesis project. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 22–33.
- Paulin, A. (2007). *Första tiden i yrket – från student till lärare. En studie av de svårigheter nyblivna lärare möter under sin första tid i yrket* (Diss.). Stockholm: HLS förlag.
- Picard, P. & Ria, L. (Eds.) (2011). *Beginning teachers: A challenge for educational systems – CIDREE Yearbook 2011*. Lyon, France: ENS de Lyon, Institut français de l'Éducation.

- Pigge, F. & Marso, R. (1997). A seven year longitudinal multi-factor assessment of teaching concerns development through preparation and early years of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 13(2), 225–235.
- Polkinghorne, D.E. (1995). Narrative configuration in qualitative analysis. In J.A. Hatch & R. Wisniewski (Eds.), *Life history and narrative* (pp. 5–23). London: The Falmer Press.
- Postholm, M.B. (2003). *"I can't find my grandma on the Internet". A study of project work using ICT as a mediating artefact* (Diss.). NTNU, Trondheim: BIBSYS.
- Postholm, M.B. (2008). Teachers developing practice: Reflection as key activity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(7), 1717–1728.
- Practice architectures of teacher induction*. Symposium at the European Conference on Educational Research, ECER, Berlin, September 13–16, 2011. http://ktl.jyu.fi/img/portal/20002/Symposium_in_ECER2011_Berlin_NQT_COM E.pdf?cs=1316486020
- Quaglia, R. (1989). Socialization of the beginning teacher: A theoretical model from the empirical literature. *Research in Rural Education*, 5(3), 1–7.
- Rabiee, F. (2004). Focus-group interview and data analysis. *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society* 63, 655–660. Retrieved February 17, 2009, from Cambridge University Press online: http://journals.cambridge.org/download.php?file=%2FPNS%2FPNS63_04%2FS0029665104000874a.pdf&code=e0863fa3b4e7a9b367d2aaa56a4c8e16
- Research on practices of teacher induction*. Symposium at the European Conference on Educational Research, ECER, Cádiz, September 18–21, 2012.
- Reckwitz, A. (2002). Toward a theory of social practices. A development in culturalist theorizing. *European Journal of Social Theory*, 5(2), 243–263.
- Richards, L. (2005). *Handling qualitative data. A practical guide*. London: Sage Publications.
- Riggs, I. & Sandlin, R. (2007). Workplace contexts of new teachers: An American tradition of “paying one’s dues”. In T. Townsend & R. Bates (Eds.), *Handbook of teacher education. Globalization, standards and professionalism in times of change* (pp. 317–329). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Rolls, S. & Plauborg, H. (2009). Teachers’ career trajectories: An examination of research. In M. Bayer, U. Brinkkjær, H. Plauborg & S. Rolls (Eds.), *Teachers’ career trajectories and work lives* (pp. 9–28). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Romano, M. (2008). Successes and struggles of the beginning teacher: Widening the sample. *The Educational Forum*, 72, 63–78.
- Romano, M. & Gibson, P. (2006). Beginning teacher successes and struggles: An elementary teacher’s reflections on the first year of teaching. *The Professional Educator*, 28(1), 1–26.

- Roness, D. (2011). Still motivated? The motivation for teaching during the second year in the profession. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, 628–638.
- Rots, I., Kelchtermans, G. & Aelterman, A. (2012). Learning (not) to become a teacher: A qualitative analysis of the job entrance issue. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28, 1–10.
- Rots, I., Aelterman, A., Vlerick, P. & Vermeulen, K. (2007). Teacher education, graduates' teaching commitment and entrance into the teaching profession. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 543–556.
- Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. (2011). *Opettajuuuden alkutaival. Vastavalmistuneen vieraan kielen opettajan toimijuus ja ammatillinen kehittyminen* (Diss.). Jyväskylä University.
- Råholm, M-B. (2010). Abductive reasoning and the formation of scientific knowledge within nursing research. *Nursing Philosophy*, 11, 260–270.
- Sahlberg, P. (2011). *Finnish lessons. What can the world learn from educational change in Finland?* New York: Teachers College Press.
- Salo, P. (2002). *Skolan som mikropolitisk organisation. En studie i det som skolan är.* (Diss.). Åbo Akademi University.
- Sandelowski, M. & Barroso, J. (2007). *Handbook for synthesizing qualitative research.* New York: Springer.
- Sandén, T. (2007). *Att leda i lust och leda: Om rektorers arbete under en tid av förändring.* (Diss.). Åbo Akademi University.
- Schatzki, T.R. (1996). *Social practices: A Wittgensteinian approach to human activity and the social.* New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Schatzki, T.R. (2001). Introduction. Practice theory. In T.R. Schatzki, K. Knorr-Cetina & E. von Savigny (Eds.), *The practice turn in contemporary theory* (pp. 1–14). London: Routledge.
- Schatzki, T.R. (2002). *The site of the social: A philosophical account of the constitution of social life and change.* Pennsylvania: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Schatzki, T.R., Knorr-Cetina, K. & von Savigny, E. (Eds.).(2001). *The practice turn in contemporary theory.* London: Routledge.
- Schirato, T. & Yell, S. (1996). *Communication and cultural literacy: An introduction.* Sydney: Allen & Unwin.
- Schollaert, R. (2011). Continuing professional development for the 21st century: Setting the scene for teacher induction in a new era. In P. Picard & L. Ria (Eds.), *Beginning teachers: A challenge for educational systems – CIDREE Yearbook 2011* (pp. 9–28). Lyon, France: ENS de Lyon, Institut français de l'Éducation.
- Schutz, P.A. & Zembylas, M. (Eds.).(2009). *Advances in teacher emotion research.* Dordrecht: Springer.
- Schön, D.A. (2007). Den reflektive praktikern. In C. Brusling & G. Strömquist (Eds.), *Reflektion och praktik i läraryrket* (pp. 29–47). Lund: Studentlitteratur.

- Scott, S., Sharpe, H., O'Leary, K., Dehaeck, U., Hindmarsh, K., Moore, J. & Osmond, M. (2009). Court reporters: A viable solution for the challenges of focus group data collection? *Qualitative Health Research*, 19(1), 140–146. Retrieved February 3, 2009, from <http://qhr.sagepub.com>
- Shapiro, S. (2010). Revisiting the teachers' lounge: Reflections on emotional experience and teacher identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 616–621.
- Sikes, P.J., Measor, L. & Woods, P. (1985). *Teacher careers: Crises and continuities*. Lewes: Falmer.
- Sjöholm, K. (2004). Swedish, Finnish, English? Finland's Swedes in a changing world. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 36(5), 637–644.
- Sjöholm, K. & Hansén, S-E. (2007). Developing teacher professionalism. Dynamics of dichotomies in Finnish teacher education. In U. Lindgren (Ed.), *A Nordic perspective on teacher education in a time of societal change. Contributions from a Nordic conference that focused on the professional teacher role* (pp. 45–64). Umeå: Department of Swedish and Social Sciences, Teacher Education, Umeå University.
- Sjöström, S. (2001). *Semantisk förändring. Hur ord får nya betydelser*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Skaalvik, S. & Skaalvik, E.M. (2010). Utfordringar i lærerrollen. In R-A. Andreassen, E.J. Irgens & E.M. Skaalvik (Eds.), *Kompetent skoleledelse* (pp. 147–163). Trondheim: Tapir akademisk forlag.
- Smith, M.K. (1999/2011). 'What is praxis?' *The encyclopædia of informal education*. Retrieved March 10, 2012, from <http://www.infed.org/biblio/b-praxis.htm>
- Sundli, L. (2007). Mentoring – A new mantra for education? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 201–214.
- Supporting early career teachers: Practice architectures of teacher induction in Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Norway and Sweden*. Symposium at the NFPF conference, Jyväskylä, March 10–12, 2011. <http://ktl.jyu.fi/img/portal/19869/NERA2011Symposium120311.pdf?cs=1299851557>
- Sutton, R.E. & Wheatley, K.F. (2003). Teachers' emotions and teaching: A review of the literature and directions for future research. *Educational Psychology Review*, 15(4), 327–358.
- Swedish in Finland* (2010). Retrieved February, 9, 2012, from http://www.folktinget.fi/Site/Widget/Editor/137/files/SVENSK_i_FINLAND_ENGLISH_A4_WEB.pdf
- Swedish Research Council (2002). *Forskningsetiska principer inom humanistisk-samhällsvetenskaplig forskning*. Retrieved March 8, 2009, from http://www.vr.se/download/18.7f7bb63a11eb5b697f3800012802/forskningsetiska_principer_tf_2002.pdf

- TEPT-project: Teacher education project in Tanzania. Retrieved February 5, 2009, from http://www.abo.fi/public/om_pf_tept
- The Swedish Assembly of Finland*. Retrieved February 9, 2012, from <http://folktinget.fi/eng/home/>
- Thorne, S., Jensen, L., Kearney, M., Noblit, G. & Sandelowski, M. (2004). Qualitative metasynthesis: Reflections on methodological orientation and ideological agenda. *Qualitative Health Research, 14*, 1342–1365.
- Trost, J. (2007). *Enkätboken*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Tynjälä, P. & Heikkinen, H.L.T. (2011). Beginning teachers' transition from pre-service education to working life. Theoretical perspectives and best practices. *Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft, 14*(1), 11–33.
- Van Manen, M. (1990). *Researching lived experience. Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy*. London: Althouse Press.
- Van Manen, M. (2002). *Inquiry: Hermeneutical phenomenology*. Retrieved January 31, 2009, from <http://www.phenomenologyonline.com/inquiry/5.html>
- Veenman, S. (1984). Perceived problems of beginning teachers. *Review of Education Research, 54*(2), 143–178.
- Verma, G. & Mallick, K. (1999). *Researching education. Perspectives and techniques*. London: Falmer Press.
- Villegas-Reimers, E. (2003). *Teacher professional development: An international review of the literature*. UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning.
- Virta, A. (2002). Becoming a history teacher: Observations on the beliefs and growth of student teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 18*, 687–698.
- von Zweck, C., Paterson, M. & Pentland, W. (2008). The use of hermeneutics in a mixed methods design. *The Qualitative Report, 13*(1), 116–134.
- Väljjarvi, J. & Heikkinen, H.L.T. (2012). Peer-group mentoring and the culture of teacher education in Finland. In H.L.T. Heikkinen, H. Jokinen & P. Tynjälä (Eds.), *Peer-group mentoring for teacher development* (pp. 31–40). London: Routledge.
- Wang, J. & Odell, S. (2002). Mentored learning to teach and standards-based teaching reform: A critical review. *Review of Educational Research, 72*(3), 481–546. Retrieved May 25, 2009, from <http://rer.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/72/3/481>
- Wanzare, Z. (2007). The transition process: The early years of being a teacher. In T. Townsend & R. Bates (Eds.), *Handbook of teacher education. Globalization, standards and professionalism in times of change* (pp. 343–363). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Webb, R., Vulliamy, G., Hämäläinen, S., Sarja, A., Kimonen, E. & Nevalainen, R. (2004). Pressures, rewards and teacher retention: A comparative study of primary

- teaching in England and Finland. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 48(2), 169–188.
- Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning and identity*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Wenger, E. (2006). *Communities of practice: A brief introduction*. Retrieved April 14, 2012, from <http://wenger-trayner.com/wp-content/uploads/2012/01/06-Brief-introduction-to-communities-of-practice.pdf>
- Westbury, I., Hansén, S-E., Kansanen, P. & Björkqvist, O. (2005). Teacher education for research-based practice in expanded roles: Finland's experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 49(5), 475–485.
- Whisnant, E., Elliott, K. & Pyncheon, S. (2005). *A review of literature on beginning teacher induction*. Prepared for the Center for Strengthening the Teaching Profession, July, 2005.
- Wibeck, V. (2000). *Fokusgrupper. Om fokuserade gruppintervjuer som undersökningsmetod*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Wideen, M., Mayer-Smith, J. & Moon, B. (1998). A critical analysis of the research on learning to teach: Making the case for an ecological perspective on inquiry. *Review of Educational Research*, 68(2), 130–178.
- Williams, J. & Williamson, K.M. (1996). University support for novice teachers: Successes, struggles and limitations. *Education*, 116(3), 366–372.
- Winstead Fry, S. (2010). The analysis of an unsuccessful novice teacher's induction experiences: A case study presented through layered account. *The Qualitative Report*, 15(5), 1164–1190.
- Wong, H.K., Britton, T. & Ganser, T. (2005). What the world can teach us about new teacher induction. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 86(5), 379–384.
- Zeichner, K. & Gore, J.M. (1990). Teacher socialisation. In W.R. Houston (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 329–348). New York: MacMillan Publishing Company.
- Zimmer, L. (2006). Qualitative meta-synthesis: A question of dialoguing with texts. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 53(3), 311–318.
- Åsberg, R. (2000). *Ontologi, epistemologi och metodologi: En kritisk genomgång av vissa grundläggande vetenskapsteoretiska begrepp och ansatser*. Göteborg: Göteborgs universitet, Institutionen för pedagogik och didaktik.
- Åsberg, R. (2001). Det finns inga kvalitativa metoder – och inga kvantitativa heller för den delen. Det kvalitativa - kvantitativa argumentets missvisande retorik. *Pedagogisk forskning i Sverige*, 6(4), 270–292.
- Ödman, P-J. (2007). *Tolkning, förståelse, vetande. Hermeneutik i teori och praktik*. Stockholm: Nordstedts akademiska förlag.

Appendices

Appendix 1. Questionnaire

Nya lärares första tid i yrkesverksamhet

Vänligen kryssa för/ringa in det lämpligaste alternativet eller besvara frågorna.

BAKGRUNDSINFORMATION

1. Namn

(önskar gärna få ditt namn endast för att jag skall kunna kontakta dig ifall det visar sig vara behövt med tanke på projektets fortsättning)

2. Kön

Kvinna

Man

3. Ålder

- 24

25-29

30-34

35-39

40-44

45-49

50-54

55-

4. Vilken är Din utbildning och behörighet?

5. Vilket år inledde Du dina lärarstudier?

6. Vilket år avlade Du din lärarexamen?

2004

2005

2006

7. Uppskatta den tid som Du sammanlagt har vikarierat som lärare i grundskolan INNAN Du avlade din lärarexamen.

8. Hur många skolor har Du arbetat vid som lärare EFTER avlagd lärarexamen (undantaget korttidsvikariat om några dagar)?

1 skola

- 2 skolor
- 3 skolor
- 4 skolor
- 5 skolor
- Fler än 5 skolor
- Har inte jobbat som lärare

9. Beskriv hur Du har arbetet under din yrkesverksamma tid som behörig lärare. Med vilka årskurser har Du arbetat och hur länge?

10. Ifall Du inte har arbetat som lärare, vad har Du gjort istället?

11. Om Du är i tjänst som lärare för tillfället; I vilken kommun är din nuvarande skola belägen? Hur många lärare och elever finns på skolan?

BEREDSKAP FÖR LÄRARYRKET

12. Nu när Du har fått lite distans till dina lärarstudier och har arbetslivserfarenhet att jämföra med, anser Du då att Du fått tillräckliga kunskaper/beredskap från lärarutbildningen gällande

1= inte alls 2= i liten grad 3= i ganska hög grad 4= i hög grad

	1	2	3	4
Planering av undervisning				
Undervisning och lärande				
Läroplansarbete				
Utvärdering och bedömning				
Ämneskunskaper				
IT i undervisningen				
Skollagstiftning				
Pedagogiskt ledarskap				
Hantering av specialpedagogiska frågor				
Elever med störande beteende				
Disciplin och arbetsro				
Konflikthantering				
Elevvård				
Etiskt handlande				
Föräldrakontakter				
Samarbete med kolleger och övriga parter				
Aktuell pedagogisk forskning				
Att möta förändringar				

13. Övriga områden Du vill lyfta fram i fråga 11

14. Vilken betydelse har praktikperioderna haft för Din professionella utveckling?

UPPLEVELSER UNDER DEN FÖRSTA TIDEN I YRKET

15. Beskriv Dina förväntningar på läraryrket och hur dessa har förverkligats.

16. Beskriv känslan Du hade när Du började arbeta som nyutbildad lärare.

17. Hur var mötet med eleverna i början? Efterhand?

18. Vad har Du upplevt som mest tillfredställande/positivt under den första tiden i yrket?

19. Vad har Du upplevt som mest jobbigt/negativt under den första tiden i yrket?

20. Vilka utmaningar har varit de största för dig som lärare?

21. När Du försöker samla dina erfarenheter och upplevelser, vad sätter Du hittills störst värde på inom läraryrket?

22. Hur upplever Du att Du mår mentalt idag i jämförelse med vid tidpunkten då Du började arbeta som lärare?

INTRODUKTION OCH STÖD I YRKET

23. Beskriv hur Du som ny lärare har blivit introducerad på de skolor Du har arbetat/arbetar på.

24. Beskriv hur Du som ny lärare har blivit emottagen av dina kolleger.

25. Beskriv det stöd Du fick på den första skolan Du började arbeta på som nyutbildad lärare.

26. Av vem fick Du mest stöd? Vilken typ av stöd fick Du? Hur upplevde Du stödet?

27. Om Du skulle få möjlighet att ha en egen mentor som Du kunde vända dig till, vilka uppgifter skulle Du då önska mest stöd/vägledning med?

28. Beskriv hurudan din mentor borde vara, hur möten med denne kunde utformas och hur ofta ni skulle träffas.

29. Vilka råd skulle Du vilja ge en nyutbildad lärare som är i början av sin karriär?

FRAMTIDSVISIONER

30. Vad har Du för avsikt att göra om 5 år? Motivera!

SEMINARIER FÖR NYUTBILDADE

Min forskning fortsätter nu på så sätt att lärares första tid i yrket samt erfarenheter av stöd studeras utifrån seminarier som arrangeras läsåret 2007-2008. Seminarierna arrangeras i samarbete med Fortbildningscentralen vid Åbo Akademi i Vaså. Avsikten med seminarierna är att under dessa ge Dig som lärare möjlighet att prata om Dina erfarenheter samt erbjuda Dig möjlighet att ta del av andras erfarenheter och situationer. Föresatsen är att seminarierna, med medverkande seminarieledare, skall utgöra ett stöd för Dig som nyutbildad lärare samtidigt som seminarierna fungerar som fortbildning. Seminarierna är deltagarstyrda och diskussionen kommer därför att utgå från just Dina och de andra lärarnas behov. Det enda Du som deltagare behöver bidra med är Dina egna erfarenheter från Din första tid i yrket.

31. Skulle Du vara intresserad av att delta i seminarier läsåret 2007-2008?

Ja

Tveksam

Nej

32. Ifall Du är intresserad av att delta i seminarier, hur kan jag enklast kontakta dig?

33. Vilken ort för seminarierna skulle i såfall vara lämplig för dig?

34. Ifall Du är tveksam till eller inte vill delta i seminarier inkommande läsår, kan Du tänka dig att delta i dylik verksamhet i framtiden?

35. Varför?

Tack för din medverkan!

Appendix 2 (1/3). Invitation to the questionnaire survey



Hej!

Du vill väl medverka till att förbättra arbetssituationen för nyblivna lärare?
Du vill väl få stöd under din första tid i yrket som utbildad lärare?

Vänligen ge några minuter av din tid och fyll i webbenkäten genom att gå in på länken nedan. Mera information finns i den bifogade bilagan.

<http://oppimiskeskus.tritonia.fi/survey/public/survey.php?name=mentorskap>

mvh

Jessica Aspfors
Forskare, Assistent i pedagogik
Tel. (06) 3247 XXX

Pedagogiska fakulteten
PB 311, 65101 Vasa
www.vasa.abo.fi/pf/



Bästa klasslärare!

Du har nyligen fått Din lärarexamen och inlett Din yrkeskarriär som lärare. Du kanske upplever mötet med arbetet som en stor och omtumlande upplevelse, där Du som lärare känner dig ensam. Nu erbjuder vi Dig ett tillfälle att i grupp få prata av Dig, dela med Dig av Dina erfarenheter, lyssna till andras erfarenheter och därigenom uppleva stöd i Ditt fortsatta arbete. Under detta läsår startar vi ett fortbildningsprojekt som samtidigt också är ett forskningsprojekt. Projektet förverkligas i samarbete mellan Fortbildningscentralen och Pedagogiska fakulteten vid ÅA i Vasa. Samarbetet är ett gensvar på den omfattande forskning kring stöd- och introduktionsprogram som bedrivs om nya lärare i andra länder.

Hela projektet inleds med denna enkätstudie som riktar sig till alla klasslärare som är utexaminerade från Pedagogiska fakulteten åren 2004-2006. Syftet är att undersöka nyutbildade lärares erfarenhet av den första tiden i yrket samt erfarenheter av och åsikter om mentorskap som stöd. Dela därför med Dig, ditt svar är viktigt! Det spelar ingen roll om Du än så länge har lite praktisk lärarerfarenhet. Din åsikt är viktigt också om Du för närvarande inte jobbar som lärare.

Resultatet av enkäten läggs som grund för den fortbildning som genomförs läsåret 2007-2008. Ambitionen med fortbildningen, som genomförs i form av seminarier, är att dessa skall kunna utgöra en del av den obligatoriska fortbildningen. Tre tillfällen å 2-3 h anordnas och genomförs vid behov på olika orter i Svenskfinland. Anmäl Ditt intresse i enkäten så får Du med mera information. Din anmälan är inte bindande.

Seminarierna leds av två samtalsledare där den ena anlitas från Fortbildningscentralen och den andra är forskaren. Seminarierna är deltagarstyrda och diskussionen kommer därför att utgå från just Dina och de andra lärarnas behov. Ditt bidrag är Dina egna erfarenheter från Din första tid i yrket. Dessa läggs sedan som grund för de mentorskapsprogram för nya lärare som vi hoppas kunna utveckla i framtiden.

Vid redovisningen av resultaten garanteras Din anonymitet. I enkätens frågor finns inga riktiga eller felaktiga svar, endast personliga åsikter. Ditt svar önskar jag få inom två veckor per e-post dvs. senast fredagen den 14.9.2007. Om Du har några problem med frågorna eller vill veta mera, ring gärna Jessica Aspfors, Pedagogiska fakulteten, tel: (06) 3247 XXX eller ta kontakt per e-post.

Tack på förhand för Din medverkan!

Vasa den 3 september 2007

Sven-Erik Hansén
Handledande professor
Pedagogiska fakulteten
Åbo Akademi i Vasa

Jessica Aspfors
Forskare, Assistent i pedagogik
Pedagogiska fakulteten
Åbo Akademi i Vasa

Appendix 2 (3/3). Reminder letter



Bästa klasslärare

För ett par veckor sedan skickade vi en webbenkät till Dig. Vi var intresserade av hur Du som nyutbildad lärare upplever den första tiden i yrket. Samtidigt erbjöd vi Dig möjlighet att delta i fortbildning läsåret 2007-2008. Fortbildningen genomförs, i samarbete med Fortbildningscentralen vid Åbo Akademi, i form av seminarier som ger Dig möjlighet att dela med dig av Dina erfarenheter, lyssna till andras erfarenheter och därigenom uppleva stöd i Ditt fortsatta arbete. För mera information om projektet se även Läraren nr 19, utgiven den 13.9.2007.

Då denna undersökning kan komma att påverka insatserna för nyutbildade lärare i framtiden, är det mycket viktigt att alla som fått enkäten besvarar den.

Eftersom vi ännu inte har fått något svar från Dig, antar vi att Du glömt bort eller inte haft tid att fylla i enkäten. Vi skulle vara tacksamma om Du ville besvara frågorna i den elektroniska enkäten så snart som möjligt. Frågorna hittar Du på adressen; <http://oppimiskeskus.tritonia.fi/survey/public/survey.php?name=mentorskap>

Har Du några problem vid besvarandet av frågorna, kan Du vända Dig till Jessica Aspfors, Pedagogiska fakulteten, tel.nr. 06-3247XXX.

Vi tackar på förhand för Din medverkan i undersökningen.

Vasa den 18 september 2007

Sven-Erik Hansén
Handledande professor
Pedagogiska fakulteten
Åbo Akademi i Vasa

Jessica Aspfors
Forskare, Assistent i pedagogik
Pedagogiska fakulteten
Åbo Akademi i Vasa

Appendix 3 (1/4). Invitation to focus groups/peer-mentoring groups



Bästa Lärare!

Tack för Din positiva respons på enkäten kring lärares första tid i yrkesverksamhet! Det är glädjande att se att så många besvarade enkäten och är intresserade av att delta i seminarier detta läsår för att fördjupa diskussionerna om aktuella frågor i samband med den första tiden i läraryrket. Syftet med seminarierna är också att diskutera olika former av stöd t.ex. i form av mentorskap.

Seminarierna arrangeras i samarbete med Fortbildningscentralen vid Åbo Akademi i Vasa och leds av fortbildningsledare XX och planerare XX. Forskaren Jessica Aspfors kommer även att närvara. Sammanlagt planeras tre seminarietillfällen / deltagare, ett på hösten och två på våren. Vid det första tillfället presenteras projektet och resultat från webbenkäten. Möjlighet ges även för utbyte av erfarenheter och av diskussion kring områden som enligt enkäten varit frekventa (bilaga 1). Seminarierna är, som tidigare informerats om, deltagarstyrda och diskussionen kommer därför att utgå från just Dina och de andra lärarnas behov. Ditt bidrag är sålunda Dina egna erfarenheter från Din första tid i yrket.

Det första seminariet arrangeras regionalt på tre olika orter i Svenskfinland enligt tidtabellen nedan. Val av orter för seminariet grundar sig på deltagarantal och önskemål om placeringsort. De följande seminarietillfällena ordnas under vårterminen enligt överenskommelse med de regionala grupperna.

Ort 1	1.11.2007	kl. 15.00 - 18.00 XX
Ort 2	6.11.2007	kl. 15.00 - 18.00 XX
Ort 3	27.11.2007	kl. 15.00 - 18.00 XX

Vi önskar att Du anmäler ditt deltagande senast v. 43, dvs. **torsdagen den 25.10.2007**, till Jessica Aspfors (e-post XX eller tfn 06-3247XXX). I anmälan bör du uppge vilken ort Du ämnar delta i. Anmälan behövs för planeringen och trakterings skull.

För att så många som möjligt ska kunna delta har Pedagogiska fakulteten beslutat att betala resekostnaderna till det första tillfället till den ort som ligger närmast dig enligt arvode för buss/tåg. I bilaga 2 finns en reseräkning Du kan printa ut och fylla i samt returnera till Jessica Aspfors vid det första seminarietillfället.

Ambitionen med seminarierna är att de enligt överenskommelse med arbetsgivaren skall kunna utgöra en del av den årliga lärarfortbildningen. Vi bifogar därför en rekommendation som Du kan ge till rektorn vid din skola (bilaga 3).

Med hopp om givande diskussioner önskar vi Dig hjärtligt välkommen på seminarium!

Vasa den 4 oktober 2007

Sven-Erik Hansén
Handledande professor
Pedagogiska fakulteten
Åbo Akademi i Vasa

Jessica Aspfors
Forskare, Assistent i pedagogik
Pedagogiska fakulteten
Åbo Akademi i Vasa

Appendix 3 (2/4). Invitation to focus groups/peer-mentoring groups



Bästa Lärare!

Tack för Ditt deltagande i undersökningen kring lärares första tid i yrkesverksamhet! Det är glädjande att se att så många besvarade enkäten. Vi inbjuder nu intresserade till ett första seminarium för att fördjupa diskussionerna om aktuella frågor i samband med den första tiden i läraryrket. Syftet med seminarierna är även att diskutera olika former av stöd t.ex. i form av mentorskap. Du meddelade tidigare att Du inte är intresserad av att delta i seminarier detta läsår men vi vill ändå erbjuda dig möjligheten att delta ifall Du har ändrat dig. Du är alltså hjärtligt välkommen med ifall någon av de nedanstående tiderna passar dig!

Seminarierna arrangeras i samarbete med Fortbildningscentralen vid Åbo Akademi i Vasa och leds av fortbildningsledare XX och planerare XX. Forskaren Jessica Aspfors kommer även att närvara. Sammanlagt planeras tre seminarietillfällen / deltagare, ett på hösten och två på våren. Vid det första tillfället presenteras projektet och resultat från webbenkäten. Möjlighet ges även för utbyte av erfarenheter och av diskussion kring områden som enligt enkäten varit frekventa (bilaga 1). Seminarierna är, som tidigare informerats om, deltagarstyrda och diskussionen kommer därför att utgå från just Dina och de andra lärarnas behov. Ditt bidrag är sålunda Dina egna erfarenheter från Din första tid i yrket.

Det första seminariet arrangeras regionalt på tre olika orter i Svenskfinland enligt tidtabellen nedan. Val av orter för seminariet grundar sig på deltagarantal och önskemål om placeringsort. De följande seminarietillfällena ordnas under vårterminen enligt överenskommelse med de regionala grupperna.

Ort 1	1.11.2007	kl. 15.00 - 18.00 XX
Ort 2	6.11.2007	kl. 15.00 - 18.00 XX
Ort 3	27.11.2007	kl. 15.00 - 18.00 XX

Vi önskar att Du anmäler ditt deltagande senast v. 43, dvs. **torsdagen den 25.10.2007**, till Jessica Aspfors (e-post XX eller tfn 06-3247XX). I anmälan bör du uppge vilken ort Du ämnar delta i. Anmälan behövs för planeringen och trakterings skull.

För att så många som möjligt ska kunna delta har Pedagogiska fakulteten beslutat att betala resekostnaderna till det första tillfället till den ort som ligger närmast dig enligt arvode för buss/tåg. I bilaga 2 finns en reseräkning Du kan printa ut och fylla i samt returnera till Jessica Aspfors vid det första seminarietillfället. Ambitionen med seminarierna är att de enligt överenskommelse med arbetsgivaren skall kunna utgöra en del av den årliga lärarfortbildningen. Vi bifogar därför en rekommendation som Du kan ge till rektorn vid din skola (bilaga 3).

Med hopp om givande diskussioner önskar vi Dig hjärtligt välkommen på seminarium!

Vasa den 4 oktober 2007

Sven-Erik Hansén
Handledande professor
Pedagogiska fakulteten
Åbo Akademi i Vasa

Jessica Aspfors
Forskare, Assistent i pedagogik
Pedagogiska fakulteten
Åbo Akademi i Vasa

Appendix 3 (3/4). Important areas from the questionnaire survey

Områden som upplevs som väsentliga att diskutera

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Elevvård• Disciplin och arbetsro• Konflikthantering	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Föräldrakontakter• Samarbetsfrågor
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Skollagar och administration• Etik och normer	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Förändringar i skolarbetet• Lärarrollen• Lärararbetet

Rekommendation

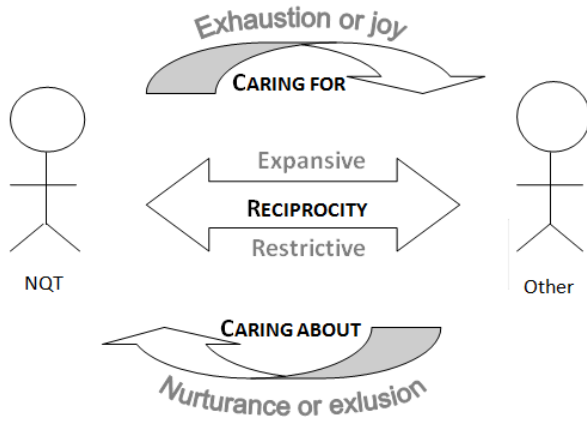
Vid Åbo Akademis Pedagogiska fakultet i Vasa pågår ett omfattande forskningsprojekt, *Qualifying teachers – A local and global perspective on teacher professionalism*, som särskilt fokuserar på lärares första tid i yrkesverksamhet. Som en del av denna forskning har en omfattande webbenkät sänts ut till ca 200 lärare som är utexaminerade åren 2004 – 2006. Steg två i forskningsprogrammet innebär att Pedagogiska fakulteten i samarbete med Fortbildningscentralen i Vasa ordnar regionala seminarier för de lärare som anmält intresse för att följa upp enkätsvaren och fördjupa för dem angelägna frågor / teman. Seminarierna arrangeras på tre orter, XX, XX och XX, och vi planerar tre tillfällen per ort under läsåret 2007-2008. Eftersom målet med forskningsprojektet och dess olika aktiviteter är att stöda den nyblivna läraren i yrkesrollen och stärka den professionella utvecklingen rekommenderas att deltagandet i seminarierna enligt arbetsgivarens beslut kunde tillgodoräknas som fortbildning.

Vasa den 4 oktober 2007

Sven-Erik Hansén
Forskningsledare, professor
e-post: XX
tel: XX

Jessica Aspfors
Forskare, Assistent i pedagogik
e-post: XX
tel: XX

Appendix 4 (1/2). Analytical model used in study III



Appendix 4 (2/2). Example of coding in NVivo

Tree Nodes

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
Förväntningar läraryrket	76	76	29.10.2008 06:42	JA	17.8.2009 14:09	JA
1. THE NATURE OF THE PROFESSION	0	0	1.12.2010 13:01	JA	23.12.2010 09:54	JA
Many-sided and meaningful	0	0	3.8.2012 09:43	JA	3.8.2012 09:43	JA
Varied	9	9	1.12.2010 13:03	JA	1.12.2010 14:50	JA
Spontaneous	1	1	1.12.2010 13:04	JA	1.12.2010 13:05	JA
Pleasant and meaningful	13	15	1.12.2010 13:10	JA	21.12.2010 13:36	JA
Challenging	7	7	1.12.2010 13:21	JA	21.12.2010 13:35	JA
Fun	4	4	1.12.2010 13:21	JA	1.12.2010 13:55	JA
Great responsibility	2	2	1.12.2010 13:36	JA	21.12.2010 13:34	JA
Independent	1	1	1.12.2010 13:50	JA	1.12.2010 13:51	JA
Social	3	3	1.12.2010 14:30	JA	1.12.2010 14:44	JA
Exciting	1	1	1.12.2010 14:45	JA	1.12.2010 14:45	JA
Intense and laborious	0	0	1.12.2010 13:00	JA	3.8.2012 09:45	JA
Work load	7	7	1.12.2010 13:11	JA	1.12.2010 14:49	JA
Other responsibilities and tasks	4	4	1.12.2010 13:12	JA	1.12.2010 14:23	JA
Curriculum work	2	2	1.12.2010 13:13	JA	1.12.2010 13:19	JA
Lack of time	9	10	1.12.2010 13:18	JA	1.12.2010 14:45	JA
Stress	4	4	1.12.2010 13:53	JA	1.12.2010 14:33	JA
2. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	0	0	1.12.2010 13:03	JA	3.8.2012 09:46	JA

The teaching profession is perceived as increasingly demanding and stressful and a growing number of teachers are leaving the profession during the first years. Teacher retention and support for newly qualified teachers (NQTs) has during recent years therefore been recognised as an internationally important subject. But how do new teachers experience their first years of work and what kind of support would be essential during this period? As induction is not only a decisive period for retention, but also for professional development and growth, it is crucial to deepen our understanding and knowledge of NQTs' experiences during this phase. Through a questionnaire survey and focus group meetings with new primary school teachers, the author has investigated teachers' experiences from different perspectives in four articles and a comprehensive summary. The results highlight a complex and unpredictable induction practice and the importance for NQTs to communicate and reflect on their work and in this way experience support in their professional development.

