"I Feel Like I'm Being Taken Care of"

A Case Study of Norwegian Teacher Mentoring Programs

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Abstract

As global concern rises for the teaching profession and quality of teachers, nations are addressing educational issues in ways that stress implementing formalized support systems for beginning teachers and teacher mentoring. Sharing these concerns, Norway has also taken measures to strengthen the teaching profession through mentoring new teachers. Different perspectives of mentoring, however, result in different outcomes.

This study compares Norwegian teacher mentoring programs in two counties by examining the nature and implementation of the programs as well as the experiences from new teachers' perspectives. Using a qualitative research strategy, data was collected from new teachers, teacher mentors, school leaders, district representatives in each county and a university professor who leads a teacher mentor program. The study draws off different theory and literature for each research question; literature examining teacher mentoring perspectives, curriculum implementation, as well as situated learning theory.

The study found that the content and aims of mentoring varied at different levels in each county. These differences influenced the structure of the programs as well as the experiences of the new teachers. The data suggests that the nature of the teacher mentoring programs differed from County A to County B, focusing mainly on socio-emotional support and acquirable skills respectively. Support, content, communication and feedback were the areas in which the counties significantly differed in their implementation. Mentoring seemed most successful in terms of the participants' experiences when the goals of mentoring were consistently aligned in the county, institutional, instructional and personal levels. The nature of the mentoring programs, as well as the new teachers' position in the school, disposition towards learning, and status, all had an influence on the new teachers' experiences. Although the new teachers reported mostly positive experiences, this study suggests that all key stakeholders involved in mentoring should be active participants in the implementation of a mentoring program.

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List of Acronyms

ETE	Enhanced Teacher Education
KD	Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research
KS	The Norwegian Association of Local and Regional Authorities
NQT	Newly Qualified Teacher
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PPU	Practical Pedagogical Education
UDIR	The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training

1 Introduction

1.1 Background and Rationale

Currently, there is a global concern about the teaching profession with several items on the international agenda including teacher recruitment, retention, career attractiveness, and developing teachers' skills (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], 2005). Likewise, the first year of teaching is often referred to a "reality shock." As the teaching profession tends to have a high rate of attrition compared to other professions, one of the strategies nations have been using to address this has been giving extra support to new teachers, coined as teacher mentoring or induction (Wang & Odell, 2007).

In teacher mentoring, typically an experienced teacher at the school works in the role to support or assist the new teachers in some way. Research validates a strong relationship between teacher mentoring programs and teacher retention (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). Studies have also demonstrated positive results from teacher mentoring addressing a number of the aforementioned global concerns including professional development (Lindgren, 2005), self reflection and enhancing relationships within the school system (Abell, Dillon, Hopkins, McInerney, & O'Brien, 1995).

The implementation of a program for new teachers, however, does not guarantee that it will be successful for all parties. For instance, mentoring can increase the mentors' workload and responsibility, leaving them little time for their already busy schedules (Simpson, Hastings, & Hill, 2007). Sundli (2007) found that mentoring in Norway was heavily dependent on the mentors' ideas and values, and can, if unquestioned, construct a barrier to the growth of those involved. Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) point to the issue that in the constantly evolving teaching profession, new teachers may know more about the latest research and strategies in education than the mentors themselves.

Depending on the type of program, there is potential for positive or negative experiences for both the new teachers and mentors alike. As Ingersoll and Smith (2004) explain,

> *Programs and activities vary in purpose, in length, in intensity, in their structure, in the numbers and kinds of beginning teachers they serve, in the numbers and kinds of veteran teachers they utilize, in how they select these veterans and whether they provide training to them and, last but not least, in their cost. (p.707)*

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The implications of teacher mentoring programs can be of considerable consequence as they can vary greatly in size, scale, outcomes, and the purposes they serve.

The teaching profession in Norway mirrors some of the previously mentioned global concerns; teacher retention, professional development, and career attractiveness amongst them (OECD, 2005). In *Stortingmelding nr. 11 Læreren Rollen og Utdanningen*, or what is known as the "White Paper on Teacher Education" the Norwegian government has set forth an array of new proposals aimed to improve the quality of teachers, increase recruitment, and provide support to beginning teachers, or teacher mentoring programs, that began to be rolled out in 2010 (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research [KD], 2009). Teacher mentoring is not obligatory on the national level, but through this agreement it should be offered to all beginning teachers in Norway. However, the White Paper does not indicate who should mentor, or the manner in which it should be carried out.

To be a teacher mentor in Norway one does not need any formal qualifications or training, and there are no official requirements for the curriculum to be taught. Yet there are university based training programs for teacher mentors, which Smith and Ulvik (2014) deem as a "unique" (p. 265), case in the European setting. Feiman-Nemser and Parker (1992) found that mentor education can indicate either success, or lack thereof, depending on a number of contextual factors. Some of which include work expectations, time to mentor, and collaborative practices.

This provides an opportunity to examine distinctive mentoring programs in the schools, while still in the early phases of implementation in Norway. In this case, mentoring is left in charge to the implementing bodies, or school owners. These can be either the county or municipal authorities depending on the type of school. Research on the district level points to how the districts can influence the quality of mentoring for newly qualified teachers (Youngs, 2007). Therefore district policy can be seen one of many important factors influencing teacher mentoring programs. A rapport on mentoring in Norway found that many schools had difficulties implementing mentoring due to a lack of response from the school owners (Harsvik & Norgår, 2011). District officials, principals, and teacher mentors tend to have different goals and priorities when it comes to mentoring (Little, 1990). Therefore teacher

mentoring must work its way through several different stakeholders before reaching the new teachers.

As Desimone (2002) points out, outcomes from policy in education are in a large part dependent on how they are implemented. How the programs are implemented can shape the outcomes on the ground. In the OECD (2011) review of the evaluation and assessment in the Norwegian education system, they wrote:

> *As the organisation of education is highly decentralised in Norway, there are variations in the implementation of national policy for evaluation and assessment at the local level. This has both advantages and drawbacks. The diversity of approaches to evaluation and assessment allows for local innovation and thereby system evolution and the large degree of autonomy given to the local and school level may generate trust, commitment and professionalism. (p. 35)*

Therefore there can be great variances among school districts and schools in Norway. The variances of mentoring programs, the potential outcomes, the university-based mentor training, and the decentralized education system in Norway, form to investigate a matter of educational significance. In 2011, Munthe, Svenson Malmo, and Rogne called for a deeper look into teacher mentoring in Norway. Since then, research has been done on specific aspects of the specific programs, as well as reports on the local and national levels, but little has looked into the implementation from the district policy level on down to the newly qualified teachers. Nor is there much on what is happening on the ground or how it takes place. This leads to the purpose of the study.

1.2 Purpose

Herein lies the purpose of this study, to explore and compare teacher mentoring programs and the roles of the participants involved in upper secondary schools in select counties in Norway. This study also aims to see how the new teachers experience these programs. To achieve this, a qualitative case study was carried out in two purposively selected upper secondary schools in two different counties. Each school has its own mentoring program with at least one mentor who has attended higher education courses in the subject of mentoring. With the potential variances between local implementation in mind, a comparative case study design was chosen to help understand the cases in question by comparing and contrasting the findings (Bryman, 2012).

1.3 Research Questions

To sufficiently address the purposes of the study, the following research questions were formulated.

1. What is the nature of the mentoring programs?
2. What role do the counties, and other stakeholders, play in the implementation of the mentoring programs?
3. What are the mentoring experiences of the newly qualified teachers?

Each question is interlinked as the nature of the programs depend on implementation, and the experiences of the new teachers are tied directly to both what is implemented and how. The main literature and theory used in the study are presented next.

1.4 Mentoring, Curriculum, and Situated Learning

The nature of the mentoring programs is interpreted through Wang and Odell's (2002) teacher mentoring perspectives. Wang and Odell classified the three predominant types of teacher mentoring programs, the humanistic, situated apprentice, and critical constructivist perspectives. Each type of program has different structures, purposes, roles of participants, methods of instruction, and assumptions of learning. Investigating these characteristics helps to highlight the nature of each program. Each perspective also suggests different outcomes for teachers and mentors alike. For instance, the humanistic perspective is based on supportive philosophy, which has been shown to have positive effects on teacher retention. Yet humanistic programs tend to lack in new teacher's pedagogical development, which may hinder new teachers' growth in certain areas (Wang & Odell, 2002). These perspectives will be further elaborated on in the framework section of the thesis.

As schools in Norway are quite autonomous in terms of staffing, budgeting, and local implementation (OECD, 2011) it means that each case can differ significantly. There can be drastic differences in how teacher mentoring is vocalized from policymakers, to how it is actually practiced at the school level. Each person at the decision making levels of an educational policy or reform, from policymaker to the individual teacher, harbors assumptions about the purposes of a specific educational phenomenon and how it should be enacted. With these complexities in mind, Goodlad, Klein and Tye's (Goodlad, Klein, & Tye,

1979) levels of decision-making and curriculum inquiry are used as a framework to help guide the study. They created a model that attempts to conceptualize the processes of curriculum implementation. According to the model, curricular decisions are made from four different levels; The societal level, which usually takes its form as a policymaker or elected official; The institutional level, which can be school administrators, program coordinators, or anyone else who helps bring the curriculum to the teachers; The instructional level, the third level, which involves the teachers who actually use the material; and the personal level, the one for who the implementation is intended. Therefore it is a necessity to identify and interview actors at each level of implementation in order to reasonably bind the teacher mentoring program as a case.

Curriculum making and policymaking are not mutually exclusive, as Kirst and Walker argue. They are inextricably interwoven, written in much of the literature under terms such as "decision making processes" or "influences" instead of taking into account the inherent political nature of curriculum implementation (Kirst & Walker, 1971, p 481). This thesis uses decision making and implementation interchangeably. Mapping out these implementation processes can help to allocate responsibility to the appropriate groups (I.E. teachers, administrators, policymakers, etc.) as well as see what gets passed along at each decision making level (Goodlad, et al., 1979). By studying implementation we also have the potential to see what difficulties arise when an educational change becomes established, and pinpoint where those difficulties arise (Fullan & Pomfret, 1977).

This study also draws off of Lave and Wenger's (1991) theory of situated learning to interpret the experiences of the newly qualified teachers. They based their work through studying newcomers in the workplace and theorized how people learn in this environment. This framework was chosen due to its relevance of new teachers in the workplace and how it explains learning in a constant ever-present manner.

1.5 Structure

The first chapter explained the background, rationale, purpose, and research questions of the study. In the second chapter, the relevant literature as well as the conceptual frameworks and working definitions are introduced and discussed. The first chapter begins with literature pertinent to teacher mentoring and implementation. Wang and Odell's (2002) three teacher

mentoring perspectives are then discussed in detail. The theory of situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) will be examined along with how it is used. The chapter finishes with elaborating on curriculum, and Goodlad, Klein, and Tye's (1979) levels of curriculum implementation.

The methodological approach is explained in detail in Chapter Three. This project is a qualitative case study of the teacher mentoring programs in two upper secondary schools in separate counties in Norway. Semi-structured interviews conducted with key persons at each level of implementation are the main form of data collection, supplemented with document analysis. The procedures and research design will be covered more thoroughly along with the reliability, validity, and ethical considerations of the study.

Chapter Four presents the findings of the study. Data relevant to the research purposes is displayed here including that related to the implementation and nature of the programs as well as the experiences of the relevant participants involved. In Chapter Five the findings are discussed in light of the relevant frameworks, literature, and theory.

The final chapter, Chapter Six, contains the conclusion of the study in both counties. Recommendations for further research are also included in this chapter.

2 Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

This chapter sets out by introducing a working definition of teacher mentoring as well as the literature on its relevance. Norway's education system will be then presented, ending by showing the routes to become a teacher in Norway. A literature review of teacher mentoring in the Norwegian context follows. Next the main perspectives used in teacher mentoring programs are elaborated upon, as well as how they are relevant to this thesis. Following the mentoring learning perspectives is the presentation of the theory of situated learning, along with the relevant working definitions key to the theory. The chapter ends by discussing curriculum and implementation, and a framework for conducting research into the two.

2.1 Teacher Mentoring

Teacher mentoring is no new concept to the field of research. Indeed, at this point there is vast literature on the subject, and thus there are widely varying perspectives, concepts, and examples from which mentoring can be interpreted, implemented, or explained. Yet it helps to start by building the foundation. The word "mentor" was derived from Homer's *The Odyssey*, in which Mentor was entrusted by King Odysseus to raise and guide his son Telemachus (Homer, n.d.). This term has been taken and utilized in the workplace and elsewhere, where an experienced colleague (or colleagues) explains and guides new employees into a new or unfamiliar system. The term is used in the current study as a means of describing the formalized relationship between a first year teacher and an individual, or individuals, as well as any formalized support systems used to induct the teachers into the workplace.

The materialization of mentoring in education can be attributed to three major themes. The first, and most prominent, is to support, or induct, new teachers into the profession. This is when a skilled teacher provides his or her expertise in order to help show the ropes to a less experienced teacher. The second is a "career within a career" for the teacher mentors. This implies that highly skilled teachers may acquire extra responsibilities as a form of career incentive. The final theme is to create a means of site based professional development, where the mentors may offer support and insight into the field of teaching, whether it be curriculum,

goals, or pedagogical strategies (Little, 1990). However, with the changing structures of schools and the complexities of society, these original themes may not be sufficiently detailed to provide an adequate notion of mentoring or its purpose (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000; Wang & Odell, 2007). Building on the aforementioned text, the next section presents some of the varying mentoring experiences by highlighting some of the main literature written on the subject.

2.1.1 Mentoring Literature

In 1983, Merriam conducted an extensive literature review on mentoring. At the time, there was very little literature on the subject, and even less within the field of education. Merriam found that there was no consistent definition of what mentoring is and it varied greatly among, and within, professions. This was one of the first comprehensive reviews on mentoring in the workplace (Little, 1990). Since 1983, much research has been done on mentoring in the field of education, to go along with a wide variety of policy strategies involving mentoring and its implementation. The following review is of relevant mentoring literature that showcases the importance of teacher mentoring as a research topic.

What do New Teachers Need to Know?

New teachers, newly qualified teachers (NQTs), beginning, and novice teachers are all terms used to describe a teacher who is entering the profession. This thesis uses new teachers and newly qualified teachers interchangeably to refer to a teacher who is in their first year of employment. Knowledge of the challenges that new teachers face in their first year helps to provide context for the environment in which mentoring takes place. Veenman (1984) conducted an international review of the perceived problems of first year teachers. He found that internationally, new teachers, dealt with similar issues. The eight most common are as follows:

- Classroom management
- Student motivation
- Differentiating instruction
- Assessment
- Interactions with parents
- Self organization
- A lack of appropriate materials
- Issues with individual students

Regardless whether the teacher was working in primary or secondary school, the challenges seemed to be the same. Veenman defined the term "reality shock" in the context of teaching as the difficult transition from student to teacher. He noted that it was a somewhat misleading term, because reality shock implies something that passes rapidly as if someone was diving into cold water. Within education, it is a much longer lasting phenomenon encompassing all aspects of the profession, which if not overcome may drive a teacher to leave the field.

Positive Experiences of Mentoring

Those who support mentoring typically claim that it is beneficial to both the mentor and the apprentice. It is said that by institutionalizing mentoring, the new teachers reap the rewards by the mitigating effects mentoring has on the first year of practice. According to this perspective, professional opportunities for the mentors open up which generates more prestige at work. Schools themselves benefit from the growing professionalism, becoming better able to serve the students, new teachers, and mentors (Little, 1990). This standpoint is usually taken by those who see mentoring as a remedy to all of education's ails.

Those who are proponents of this model of mentoring believe that it can lead to improved school performance by retaining beginning teachers. Indeed, Ingersoll and Smith (2004) conducted a large-scale study of the impact of the effects showing that mentoring programs did support the retention of beginning teachers. What had the most impact was mentoring with a teacher in the same subject, common planning time, participation in a network of teachers outside of the school, and time to collaborate on instructional techniques. They did note one of the limitations of the study, which was that the mentoring programs vary significantly, so they were not able to look into the length, costs, or depth of the programs. Other research supports mentoring as a means of inducting new teachers into the field (see Carter and Francis, 2001).

Other studies have gone into the developmental experiences of both mentors and mentees. Lindgren (2005) reported that new teachers had mostly positive experiences with mentoring in their first year. The new teachers found that they developed both as professionals and individuals, and that mentoring helped them to feel more comfortable exploring the profession. Mentors also have had positive experiences in mentoring. In a study of mentors and pre-service teachers, Simpson, Hastings, and Hill (2007) found that mentoring enabled the mentors to be more reflective on their practice. Some mentors felt ownership within the

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school setting and saw mentoring as "refreshing" (p. 291), to their careers. Some mentors saw mentoring as a means of enhancing their own careers, but this was dependent on how actively involved they are with mentoring (Little, 1990).

Challenges in Mentoring

Others are more critical of labeling mentoring as a panacea. There can be many challenges and difficulties involved with mentoring. Simpson, Hastings, and Hill (2007) found that the added responsibilities of mentoring left mentors with heavy workloads rendering them unable to tend to the needs of the new teachers. Some claim that mentoring is constricted by the regulations of the workplace environment (Griffin, 1985) which is inconsistent with the ideal of mentoring itself. Colley (2002) argues that mentoring, as it is currently being institutionalized, is disadvantageous to both mentors and mentees. The relationship between the mentor and new teacher can create an unequal power structure that pushes the knowledge of the mentor onto the new teacher as a passive recipient.

Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) give a similar warning about mentoring. With the growing diversity of classrooms and new methods, information, technologies, and laws, the teaching profession is rapidly changing. Hargreaves' and Fullan advocate that mentoring be pragmatic like the teaching profession and that an apprenticeship model is no longer suitable. Providing emotional support, learning the school routines and standards, and connecting mentoring to the transformation of school culture are necessary from this perspective in order to make mentoring meaningful and effective to the new teachers. If all of these aspects are not tended to, the ideals of the mentor can be passed down to the new teachers, even if the new teacher has the latest pedagogical strategies and research from the teacher education institutions.

The main themes that arise from the literature about the challenges of mentoring are related to teacher workload, knowledge transmission, or a lack of pragmatism by focusing on either solely practical or emotional issues and not encouraging appropriate reflection on the profession (Hobson, Ashby, Malderez, & Tomlinson, 2009). The experiences of those involved in mentoring are central to this thesis, but also the way that mentoring is implemented.

Implementation of Mentoring

In Norway the Counties are responsible for the implementation of teacher mentoring in upper secondary schools; in this regard they act in a similar fashion to a school district. Both employ their discretion over the implementation of policy over a bounded area. They are the middle ground between the state and institutional levels. These terms will be used interchangeably for the remainder of the thesis. Some interesting and relevant research has been done on the district level of implementation of mentoring. Grossman, Thompson, and Valencia (2001) conducted a longitudinal study on student teachers through their third year of teaching. They sought to understand the role of district level policy in mediating the mentoring experiences of the new teachers. They found that the district was very influential in determining new teacher experiences, from guiding their concerns to the conversations they had with mentors.

Youngs (2007) studied how district policy influenced the quality of mentoring experiences for newly qualified teachers in the state of Connecticut. Here he found that policy regarding mentor selection, the assignment to new teachers, and professional development affected the quality of mentoring for the new teachers. He also found that the views held by mentors and administrators influenced district policy in how it was interpreted and implemented. They discovered policy does not reach the mentoring program in a top-down process, rather there are several stakeholders that influence how mentoring is implemented.

The above literature provides a snapshot of the significance of teacher mentoring. In the right context mentoring programs can be a determinant of new teacher and mentor success, or have negative consequences for new teachers and mentors alike. The roles they play, and the policy informing them also influences what happens on the ground. However, a significant amount of the above literature was American or British. To fully understand the background of teacher mentoring, it is relevant to take these perspectives into account, but they are not sufficient on their own. The next segment will discuss the Norwegian education system as well as establish the context for teacher mentoring in Norway by drawing on some of the major studies and literature written on the subject.

2.2 Norwegian Education System

To help frame teacher mentoring within the Norwegian context, it is important to give a brief summary of the education system in which it is located. Norway has a broad but comprehensive national curriculum based on the aims of the 1998 Education Act, which was amended in 2014 (Norwegian Ministry of Education [KD], 2014). The Norwegian Parliament determines and defines educational goals. The Ministry of Education then has the authority and responsibility to make policy and ensure that the policy is put into place. The Education Act is firmly grounded in a humanistic tradition, based on Christian beliefs; it promotes inclusion, diversity and equality. Education is a right to all students. Students are intended to leave school with the skills to lead independent lives, think critically, and embrace Norwegian heritage. The curricula comprise a broad system that allows teachers to design their curriculum based on their local needs. This allows for teachers to work with a significant amount of autonomy when it comes to teaching in the classroom. A teacher should understand and implement the national curricula in a professional manner, be knowledgeable in their subject, create an inclusive learning environment, and relate it to the Norwegian context, while tending to the needs of the students (Hansen & Simonsen, 2001).

The education system is separated into day care, primary, lower and upper secondary school. Primary school begins during the year that the child turns six, and covers years one to seven. Lower secondary consists of years 8-10. Upper secondary typically is the last years of school, divided into 12 different programs, nine for vocational studies and three for general studies (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training [UDIR], 2011; for a complete overview see Appendix I). From a broad perspective, the curriculum is a reflection of the Norwegian societal values. Norwegian teacher education is the means in which teachers are given the chance to develop to reflect these values.

Norwegian Teacher Education

There are several routes to becoming a teacher in Norway. The most common way is either through a university or a university college, also known as simply a college. One path for teacher education is based on a four-year program. Up until the 3rd year, the teacher candidates are required to take mandatory general education courses to become a well-rounded teacher. These are the basic skills including pedagogy, Norwegian, mathematics, social studies, science, and Christian/religious and ethical education. Students are required to

spend at least 18 weeks in the schools, split up over the course of the program, while student teaching under a mentor. How this is organized may vary across institutions (Hansen & Simonsen, 2001). Another route to teacher education diverges from the four-year model in terms of structure and range of training. This program is referred to as the PPU (practical-pedagogical education), wherein the student takes a year of postgraduate teacher education coursework and works in the field. This can be taken after a traditional bachelor's degree, or done in a five year integrated master's program. An example of the integrated PPU would be where a teacher student would take a five year master's degree in chemistry, and during the 4th year they may take the PPU, then complete their regular master's coursework studies in the final year. The intent of the PPU is to extend teachers' specific studies and develop their competencies simultaneously (UDIR, 2011).

Responsibilities and Structures of the Education Sector

This section briefly describes the responsibilities of bodies in the public education system. The *Ministry of Education and Research* is the branch of government that creates education policy. The Ministry is responsible for creating legislation, developing objectives, and monitoring the public education system. The *Directorate for Education and Training* has the role of administrating under the Ministry of Education and Research. This is an executive agency under the Ministry. The Directorate is responsible for primary, lower, and upper secondary education and training. Among the Directorate's many tasks and responsibilities are overseeing the implementation of national education policy as well as the assistance to the employees of the education sector with following educational mandates. The *County Governors* (regional authorities) connects the central authorities (KD; UDIR) to the local authorities, the counties and municipalities. This is done through implementing regional directives, reviewing the quality of schools, and providing information to the school owners and the public regarding the national education acts (The Education Act, the Private Education Act, and the Kindergarten Act). They also handle complaints and appeals in regarding these acts (UDIR, 2011).

Local authorities govern primary and lower secondary schools, whereas the counties govern upper secondary schools. The local authorities and counties are known as the school owners respectively. The school owners ensure that the schools are in accordance with the national guidelines and are in charge of many aspects of the schools. They implement policy, prepare reports and documents for politicians, evaluate and assist local schools (UDIR, 2011).

Guidance in Schools

Once graduated from university or college, and placed in a school, newly qualified teachers are supposed to receive guidance in the schools. According to the "White Paper on Teacher Education" (KD, 2009) the Ministry of Education would like to have mentoring offered as an option for all newly qualified teachers. This was an agreement between the Ministry of Education and Research (KD) and the Norwegian Association of Local and Regional Authorities (KS). It should be noted that mentoring is not mandatory for new teachers by this agreement, but should be made available if the new teacher chooses. In 2009, the Ministry of Education doubled the amount of financing from previous years, to the amount of 33 million Norwegian kroner (KD, 2009). The specifics of how mentoring is being addressed for newly qualified teachers is dependent upon region, district, and school. The amount of time, training, and implementation of mentoring ends up in the hands of the schools owners and schools.

Similarly, once a teacher enters the profession, there is no national system formalized for teacher appraisal (UDIR, 2011). Teacher appraisal is left to the school owners who are responsible for the schools in which the teachers work. It is up to the school owners to decide how and to what extent teacher appraisal is implemented in the schools.

2.2.1 Norwegian Literature on Mentoring

This section aspires to place mentoring in the Norwegian context by highlighting what is known from some of the main works of literature and research written recently on the topic. The first example is consistent with the positive experiences for new teachers in other research. In 2006 an independent research organization, SINTEF (Dahl, et al.), conducted a quantitative research project on the guidance of new teachers across Norway. Most of the experiences of the new teachers were positive from the survey. The majority of new teachers found that the most beneficial aspect of mentoring was to share their experiences with other new teachers. Reflection on their own practice and expertise were the two least common categories selected that were significantly influenced by guidance (p. 24). This is helpful to see that the perceptions of new teachers on guidance were mostly positive, but this project was done before the mentoring agreement took place between the Ministry and the KS. It is also limited in explaining how the mentoring was organized and fails to go into depth.

Desiring to look more into the experiences of first year teachers in Norway, Ulvik, Smith, and Helleve (2009) did a qualitative study in Bergen. They interviewed nine upper secondary teachers at the end of their first teaching year, with the aim of finding what they thought was necessary in their first year. The new teachers mainly desired more time and wanted more information about the practicalities of the school structure. Access to information was not as available to them as they would have liked. The new teachers found positive aspects of their first year of teaching as well. Eight out of nine participants found their teacher education program helpful, but did not feel like that they had appropriate time to reflect on their practice. The authors concluded by saying that there is a "missing link" (p. 842), between teacher education programs and the reality of teaching in Norway. They recommend that schools implement programs designed specifically for the newly qualified teachers' needs.

Sundli (2007) argued that mentoring in Norway is narrowed to reflect written texts. Mentoring is dominated by the conversations of the mentor, thus the new teacher obtains a narrow perception of mentoring. Through this process the new teacher implements the current systems of the school, and may not develop their own teaching identity. In this aspect, it is similar to what Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) cautioned about the limitations of the apprenticeship model of mentoring.

As mentoring has grown more widespread in Norway, so have formal education courses for mentors. As this phenomenon is growing, Ulvik and Sunde (2013) examined how mentoring programs relate to the mentors' needs and competencies. They chose to investigate a one-year program that was in a three-year testing phase in Norway that focused on mentoring for both newly qualified teachers and student teachers. They used open-ended questionnaires at both the beginning and the end of the program as a research instrument. The mentors in the program chose to attend on their own accord, with about ½ of the sample looking to mentor student teachers, and roughly one third with the intention of mentoring new teachers. Many of the teachers in this study sought after concrete skills and theory to become strong (er) mentors.

The mentors found that the program helped to raise their awareness of their practice but felt challenged by time restrictions (Ulvik & Sunde, 2013). Many of the school leaders did not fully support the teachers in the sense that they did not expect any return from the teachers after the course, even though they all were given release time to attend. By the end of the

course, a significant number of the participants, about one third, had dropped out. Not all thought that attending the course was necessary to be a mentor, even though those who mentored previously felt that their previous practices were not up to par. The mentors also felt that the program needed a stronger practical element to it. In the end, the mentors were highly motivated students, who gained theoretical and reflective perspectives from the course, but were constrained by time and not supported fully by the administrative staff at their schools. Ulvik and Sunde (2013) left off by mentioning that further research should be conducted to see how the principals/administration of the school could get more involved, which is where the next article leads.

Ulvik and Sunde (2014) continued their research into teacher mentoring in Norway, this time looking into the school leaders' attitudes towards mentoring. This was a qualitative study done by interviewing nine school leaders in one single county in Norway. Each school leader had given consent for at least one teacher mentor to attend a university mentor education program. The results of the study varied among the participants. For instance, in relation to what the new teachers needed for support some school leaders suggested that new teachers should assimilate into the school culture, others thought that new teachers should develop their own teaching customs. Ulvik and Sunde (2014) found that the majority of participants concentrated on school practicalities and the competence of the mentor. Some schools had informal mentoring programs, where others gave little priority to mentoring due to other obligations within the school. Of all the school leaders, not a single one thought that having a mentor education was necessary, though they expressed varying degrees of support for it. This article is especially relevant to the current study by showing the perspectives of school leaders.

A 2014 survey conducted by Ramboll (Ramboll, 2014) for the Ministry of Education and Research and the KS was one of the larger projects to date on teacher mentoring in Norway. This quantitative survey compared previous surveys in 2010 and 2012 with 2014 data. The survey tried to discover how widespread the mentoring scheme is in Norway, as well as how it is organized. The survey had a low response rate for newly qualified school teachers, at only 25%, 37% of the principals, and 58% of the school owners responded (Ramboll, 2014). The survey shows that overall mentoring seems to have grown in Norway since 2010. Most of the new teachers who received guidance are satisfied with what they received. Yet many

of the new teachers surveyed who requested mentoring, almost 40%, did not receive it. Other relevant findings include that a large amount of mentors, 77% work within the school.

The study found that mentoring is mostly organized at the school level, with about 38% of mentors receiving either some sort of training, either formally or informally. According to the school leaders, the majority of mentoring takes place in a one on one situation 60%, while also having group meetings (35%) or meeting off the schools campus (39%) (Ramboll, 2014, p. 68). While the new teachers reported different results, 39%, 39%, and 31% respectively. Clearly some schools must have a combination of types of mentoring, but the perceptions were quite different between the teachers and the school leaders. When it comes to the actual content of mentoring, the top three most common themes were classroom management at number one, pupil evaluation, and then individual needs at number three. This gives us a general view of the themes of mentoring on a broad scale in the Norwegian context. It is relevant to the current thesis, especially interesting are the different perceptions between the school principals and new teachers, but lacks depth and detail regarding content and organization.

Central to this thesis is how teacher mentoring is implemented. Ulvik and Smith (2014) wrote about Norwegian teacher education and the shifting of responsibility of stakeholders involved recent education reforms. They viewed mentoring as bridging the gap between teacher education institutions, the schools, and policymakers. Each stakeholder has her or his roles and responsibilities. For instance, the higher education institutions are mainly responsible for pre-service teacher education, while the pre-service and in-service teachers work within the schools, guided by the standards and resources set by policymakers.
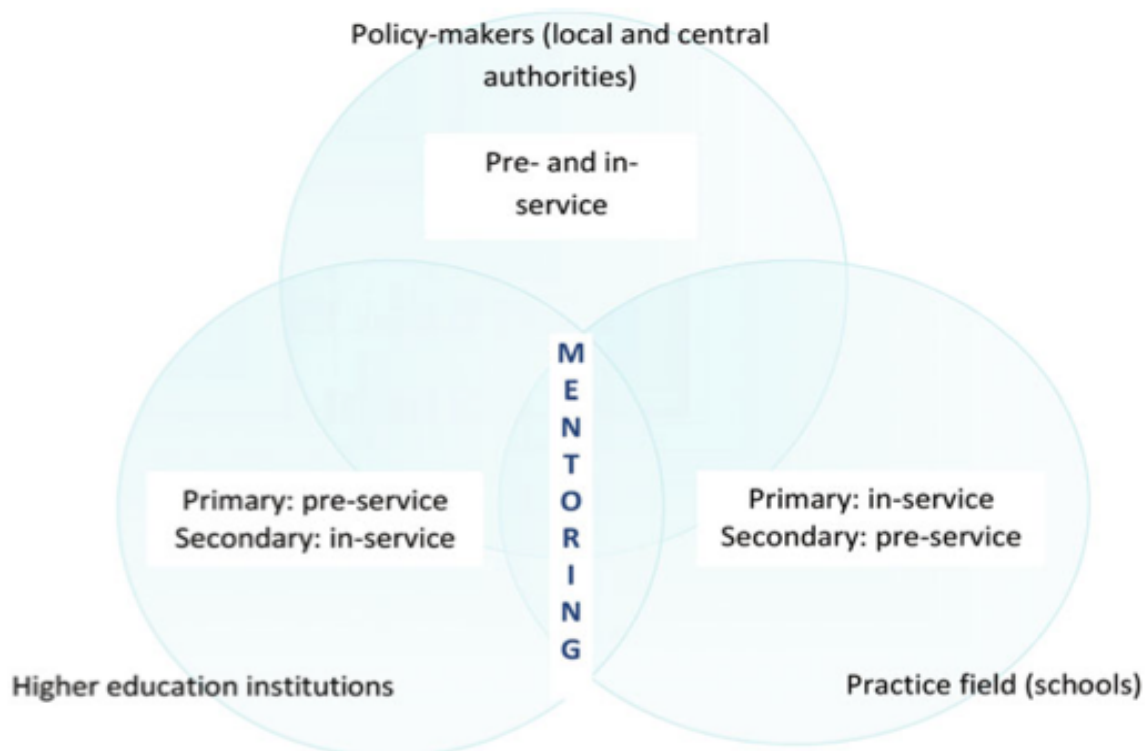
Figure 2.3: Shared Mentoring Responsibility (Ulvik & Smith, 2014, p. 263)

Figure 2.3 shows that each stakeholder has a responsibility for teacher mentoring, while none works remotely from the others. Mentoring is an area of common ground where the schools, teacher education institutions, and policymakers meet. It is the obligation of the schools to provide suitable mentors for the newly qualified teacher, who can attend higher education courses. Thus the new teachers, mentors, schools, higher education institutions, and policymakers are all intertwined in Norway. Ulvik and Smith (2014) suggested that in this process, mentors, who have finished a university program, are not utilized to their full capacity within the schools. Instead the policy requirements are adopted on a surface level by labeling someone as a mentor within the schools, while the principals opt for more financially viable routes within the schools. They conclude by recommending that the term mentor be defined by policymakers, along with the entailing responsibilities, in order to create a "profession with in the profession" (p. 274).

The literature on mentoring shows the diversity and complexity the term mentoring carries in education. With the variety of organization and outcomes of mentoring, the literature abroad and within Norway helps highlight the importance of describing mentoring in the context in which the research setting takes place. The following section will explain Wang and Odell's

(2002) three teacher mentoring learning perspectives, which will be used as a framework to help understand mentoring in the context of the Norwegian mentoring programs under study.

2.3   Teacher Mentoring Learning Perspectives

The previous literature presented is a window into the complex world of mentoring and shows how important it is to understand the context in which it takes place. One should know the goals of mentoring, how its organization supports those goals, and how it is enacted to begin to understand it.

Wang and Odell (2002) conceived three theoretical approaches to teacher mentoring programs. They claimed that previous conceptions of mentoring were limited because many were focused on specific aspects of mentoring. For instance, Feiman-Nemser and Parker (1992) categorized three approaches to mentoring; Mentors as local guides, whose purpose induct new teachers into the school system by showing them the ropes; Mentors as educational companions, where mentors work with new teachers and use reflective practices to develop a sound plan for action; Finally mentors as agents of change. Mentors in this case use collaboration and networking to break down the barriers of traditional isolated teaching practices. These understandings of mentoring focus on mentoring in a limited sense by only showing how mentors bring new teachers into the school environment.

Other conceptualizations of mentoring are focused on teaching strategies that mentors use (Franke and Dahlgren, 1996), or how to change the strategies of new teachers (Garmston, 1987). However, these are very specific in purpose and therefore lack in the comprehensiveness necessary to this study. There is an aspect of psychological/emotional support missing from the previous theories, as well as a lack of a bridge that connects them to their philosophical foundations (Wang & Odell, 2002). Of course these are not the only current conceptualizations of mentoring, but they set the context for Wang and Odell's three teacher mentoring learning perspectives. Wang and Odell (2002) set out to create a more comprehensive conceptualization of teacher mentoring, based on an extensive literature review that attempted to fill in the gaps where others left off. They synthesized three, the first of which will be discussed is the humanistic perspective.

2.3.1 The Humanistic Perspective

The humanistic perspective, as its name might imply, is underpinned by humanistic assumptions about the nature of teaching and learning (Wang & Odell, 2002). This perspective is heavily influenced by the work by psychologist Carl Rogers. Rogers (1969) emphasized education to work towards self-actualization, or unlocking your own potential. Therefore those who work to reach this stage could solve their own problems.

Rogers (1969) also explained the role of the facilitator in learning, or in this case the mentor. In this study the facilitator would be considered the mentor and the students would be the new teachers. In short, the mentor should be a facilitator in the classroom, expressing an equal relationship with the new teachers by sharing his/her perspective and not imposing his/her viewpoints. The new teachers' needs are emphasized and the mentor needs to be in tune with their desires.

Mentoring in the humanistic perspective traditionally sets out to mitigate issues in beginning teacher retention. To address these issues, humanistic mentoring programs have a high focus on socio-emotional support. In this regard, teacher mentoring programs tend to induct new teachers with strategies used to develop confidence.

The humanistic assumption behind this is that the problems surrounding first year teachers are not due to a lack of teaching strategies or knowledge of content, but more of a struggle in developing themselves as professionals. These programs are centered on the new teachers as the learners, and by doing so it is assumed that they will learn content and mature professionally. Thus the programs induct the new teacher in this way will allow them to grow personally and professionally rather than purely focusing on pedagogical methods (Wang & Odell, 2002). Another assumption behind this is that once the new teacher overcomes their emotional issues with the profession, they will have the tools necessary to develop their identities as teachers and continue in the profession.

The mentor acts as a counselor to the new teachers by encouraging them to come to them with their problems. Therefore it is vital that a mentor has high interpersonal skills and is able to listen and recognize areas of difficulty in others. A mentor should be non-judgmental and

reflective. The focus of the mentoring programs that they attend would emphasize these skills and typically would gauge their success by the satisfaction level of the new teachers.

There are also criticisms to humanistic oriented mentoring programs. When mentoring programs are implemented, there are certain intentions that the new teachers learn teaching strategies in-line with the goal of the education reform. Although mentoring programs have been linked to teacher retention, personal support may not be enough to address the changes that the policymakers intended behind implementing these programs (Wang & Odell, 2002).

2.3.2 Situated Apprentice Perspective

The situated apprentice perspective of teacher mentoring has different intents and purposes than the humanistic perspective. As Wang and Odell (2002) explain, the situated apprentice perspective stemmed out of the rise of sociocultural theory in education, which is heavily centered on learning through social interaction. Teacher education institutions were not believed to be sufficient in preparing new teachers for the field. Proponents of this model believe that the reason behind this was that experience trumps theory in terms of teacher learning. Accordingly, there was a widespread desire to engage pre-service educators in real work situations (Wang & Odell, 2002).

New teachers are believed to learn in an instrumental fashion. It is assumed that the skills necessary to become a skilled teacher can be learned in a sequential order. The difficulties that new teachers have are attributed to gaps in their practical knowledge, such as classroom management or teaching strategies. To become an expert teacher one must learn and develop these skills. Therefore the role of the new teacher is to acquire knowledge and skills from their mentor whilst the mentor slowly weans them off into becoming independent professionals (Wang & Odell, 2002).

Mentors in the situated apprentice perspective are to pass on their expertise to the new teachers. They are selected based on their expertise and success with students. Mentors must have an intimate knowledge of the school structure, teaching practices, policies, and curriculum. Skills are passed on within a traditional apprenticeship model where the mentor is the expert and teaches the tricks of the trade to the new teacher, or apprentice. The usual practices the mentor uses are modeling, observations, and creating solutions to the problems

the new teacher faces. The majority of help in this situation is directed towards resolving short-term problems through giving advice and/or modeling teaching. The formal education mentors would receive focuses on learning how to effectively explain teaching methods, solve problems, how to observe and how to demonstrate. Mentoring is assessed by how well the new teachers adjust to their local school system (Wang & Odell, 2002). The ultimate goals of the situated apprentice model are to give new teachers the strategies needed for teaching, to teach them how to adapt to the school culture, and utilize the school assets at their disposal.

The situated apprenticeship model of mentoring has been shown to help new teachers with organizational skills and adapting to the school culture (Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1992; Wang & Odell, 2002). However, there is an important point to note. Inherent in the nature of this model is the mentor-apprentice learning structure. This can hinder the new teachers' development as they passively accept the knowledge of the mentor (Franke & Dahlgren, 1996). Without critically reflecting on the methods passed down to them, the new teachers are liable to perpetuate the current systems within the school. If it is a change in the educational system that the implementers want, this may not be the best strategy used to adequately deal with these reforms.

2.3.3 The Critical Constructivist Perspective

The third and final perspective is known as the critical constructivist perspective. This is rooted in the movement of education for social justice (Wang & Odell, 2002). There are several assumptions behind this perspective. First, it assumes that the purpose of education is to transform the current discourse around education so that teaching can achieve the goal of social justice and equity. The current practices involved in teaching are not sufficient for change in this perspective, particularly in areas with disadvantaged groups. To achieve social justice, new knowledge needs to be created in collaborative ways. New knowledge is built off of inquiry and reflection about the current practices and creating new ways of teaching and learning; Secondly, it is heavily influenced by constructivism; that is that the actors in the social world create their own meanings and knowledge (Bryman, 2012). It is assumed that through the previously mentioned processes, the learners build their own understandings of the world of education.

New teachers are not passive recipients of knowledge, as in the situated apprentice perspective, but an integral part to the learning process within the school. They create ideas in an even relationship with the mentors to advocate reform. They are not isolated within the relationship with the mentor, but work with colleagues and students to strength their teaching practice (Wang & Odell, 2002).

The mentor must have good social skills and be dedicated to education reform. The role of the mentor is to work with the new teachers to work for systemic changes. The mentors must be strong in their commitment to education as well as being able to help the new teachers probe the purposes of education. In these groups they lead new teachers not just to criticize, or question, but how to change teaching practices. The mentor education programs seek individuals with the previous qualities. The programs typically focus on pedagogy and how to involve the new teachers in reflecting on pedagogy and curriculum. A successful assessment between a mentor and a new teacher would look at how the new teacher developed their goals, teaching practices, and attitudes towards education (Wang & Odell, 2002).

With the goals of transforming education for social justice, teacher mentoring in the critical constructivist perspective brings up areas of speculation. For instance, as Wang and Odell (2002) argue, if all existing knowledge is seen as problematic, new teachers are missing out on some potential valuable resources to help with their practice. Having the main emphasis on questioning and not focusing on goals may be confusing to teachers entering the field.

Although they are not necessarily mutually exclusive, these perspectives can be used as a framework to highlight and pinpoint the major goals, assumptions, roles of actors, and implications of teacher mentoring programs. In Table 2.5 are the summaries of the main characteristics of each type of program.

Table 2.5: Main Characteristics of Mentoring Programs (Adapted from Wang & Odell, 2002)

Characteristics of Humanistic Mentoring Programs	
Assumptions of Learning	Humanism
Challenges of the Newly Qualified Teachers	Reality shock, developing professional identity, personal confidence
Goals of Mentoring	Reduce teacher attrition, smooth transition into the profession, emotional support, personal development
Role of the mentor	Equal standing, counselor, identifies problems, helps develop confidence
Mentor Education Program Focus	Personal relationships, sharing, strategies to teach with novices
Measures of Assessment	New teachers' satisfaction

Characteristics of Situated Apprentice Mentoring Programs	
Assumptions of Learning	Situated learning, apprenticeship, sociocultural theory
Challenges of the Newly Qualified Teachers	Lack of practical knowledge, classroom instruction
Goals of Mentoring	Learn relevant knowledge, teach policies, share methods, solve immediate problems, pass on skills
Role of the Mentor	Expert, coach, new teacher is the apprentice
Mentor Education Program Focus	Knowledge, skills, how to use resources and contexts; emphasizes explaining these to the new teachers
Measures of Assessment	To what extent the new teachers are able to adapt into the new school environment

Characteristics of Critical Constructivist Mentoring Programs	
Assumptions of Learning	Constructivism, collaborative inquiry
Challenges of the Newly Qualified Teachers	Current teacher education is unsatisfactory for creating knowledge
Goals of Mentoring	Aims for social justice, equity, changing the profession
Role of the mentor	Agent of change, equal standing
Mentor Education Program Focus	Education reform, teaching theory
Measures of Assessment	Determining the extent to which knowledge is created through collaboration

In accordance with the goals of the research project, they will be used as guidelines that will help interpret and compare the nature of the teacher mentoring programs in the selected schools and counties in Norway.

2.4 Situated Learning

As teacher mentoring has many perspectives, so does theorizing about learning in the workplace. A heavy influence in the field was Lave and Wenger's (1991) book *Situated learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation.* Lave and Wenger developed a theory based on how participants learn and gain experience in the workplace. According to Lave and Wenger (1991), through the work environment, newcomers develop the knowledge and skills necessary to move to *full participation*. Learning is said to take place everywhere in the workplace, not just through professional development activities or apprenticeships.

> *In our view, learning is not merely situated in practice – as if it were some independently reifiable process that just happened to be located somewhere; learning is an integral part of generative social practice in the lived in world (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 35).*

Through this lens learning is a social process, which takes place regardless of a traditional model where there is a teacher, expert, or mentor who imparts their knowledge upon a student or apprentice. There are two main interrelated tenets to this theory that are pertinent to the aims of this paper and need to be discussed, the first being *legitimate peripheral participation* or LPP. According to Lave and Wenger (1991) legitimate peripheral participation is a means to understand the processes of learning, regardless of their education contexts:

> *We intend for the concept (LPP) to be taken as a whole. Each of its aspects is indispensible in defining the others and cannot be considered in isolation. Its constituents contribute inseparable aspects whose combinations create a landscape – shapes, degrees, textures – of community membership. (p. 35)*

When one enters into a new community or obtains a new job, the person learns starting with easier activities than a full participant, or "old timer." A new comer is initially on the periphery, and gradually over time through the learning process and contexts of LPP can gain full participation in a *community of practice*.

To put it simply, a community of practice can be a group of people with shared interests. This includes work colleagues, professional development groups, and students in a classroom. Lave and Wenger (1991) further elaborate, "A community of practice is a set of relations among persons, activity, and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice" (p .98). Central to this idea is that a community of practice is necessary for the production of knowledge and therefore the location of the individual in the community, whether it be on the periphery or a full participant, is of

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significance. Within these communities there are certain power structures that can either further, or negate, the participants' access to legitimate peripheral participation. How this power is exercised can determine the experiences of those in the community.

As this paper looks at the experiences of newly qualified teachers in their first year of teaching, this theory helps to visualize the complex structures of their experiences. Schools would be the community of practice in which the newly qualified teachers are initially on the periphery and the teacher mentors are full participants.

Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2004) utilized Lave and Wenger's theory and extended it into the learning of secondary school teachers in their community of practice. They argued that the experiences of the teachers largely depends on their dispositions, positions they hold, along with status in their communities. Although the definition of disposition remains in dispute (Shiveley & Misco, 2010), Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2004) describe disposition as the individual "approaches to learning" (p. 169). In the case of teachers, new teacher disposition creates a unique framework through which each experience is interpreted.

In their view, status is key because it "takes as its focus the relationship between learning and the social situation in which it occurs" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 14), of the new teacher's culture and environment. Status is a significant factor in the social situation that should be considered in the overall new teacher experience. Through the data from the interviews with the mentors and other participants in the county, the examination of disposition, position and status helps to show a fuller interpretation of experiences in the workplace.

2.5 Curriculum

Traditionally when one thinks of curriculum, the first thought may be of a history textbook, syllabus, or some other form of visible stated goals and objectives and the texts that help to reach those goals. Curriculum is derived from the Latin word currere, which means "a track" or "the course of a race." Many follow this view implying that curriculum follows a standard course to a common end destination, but in reality the definition of curriculum is a hotly contested arena. The definition of curriculum varies depending on perspective and utility. Walker (2002) explains that curriculum can be defined as a plan, events, activities, or

experiences. Below are listed some examples of definitions corresponding to their respective standpoints.

> *…a plan for providing sets of learning opportunities for persons to be educated. (J. Galen Saylor, 1981 p. 10)*
> *…all of the experiences children have under the guidance of teachers. (Caswell & Campbell, 1935, p. 69)*
> *A set of events, either proposed, occurring, or having occurred, which has the potential for reconstructing human experience. (Duncan & Frymier, 1967, p. 181)*
> *The planned learning activities sponsored by the school. (Tanner & Tanner, 1977 p. 406)*

Beyond these definitions, to further complicate the matter, there are those who define curriculum as the hidden curriculum or, "…the norms and values that are implicitly, but effectively, taught in schools and that are not usually talked about in teachers' statements of end or goals" (Apple, 1971, p .27). There is also the null curriculum, which is what is not taught. Too broad a definition risks confusion, while too narrow runs the risk of leaving out important information (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013). With a term that transmits so much ambiguity, it is only sensible to bring the term into a workable manner. Walker (2002) defined curriculum as, "…a particular way of ordering content and purposes for teaching and learning in schools" (p. 11). This definition serves to be useful as it does not take a distinct position on what curriculum is or should be. It can include purposes, plans, activities, or texts.

For the current study, the curriculum was not examined from linear sense that is solely written and defined for students in the classroom. Perspectives limited to the "plan" view were too narrow for the purposes of this paper. Yet there are parallels between a mentor and a newly qualified teacher, and a teacher to a student in the classroom. It is therefore important to have multiple data points to help reveal the nature of the mentoring programs. Goodlad et al., (1979) proposed five separate forms of curriculum. Each curriculum manifests itself in a different way and has a way to be examined by a researcher. Below details the five forms of curriculum and how they are adapted to the study.

Ideological Curriculum – The ideological curriculum is in essence the "ideal" or what is intended for the learners. The intentions of policymakers must find its way down to the learner and be implemented in the schools. In a traditional sense this might be a textbook, a teacher's guide, or some other artifact that clarifies what the learner should know or develop. In the case of the current study there are no textbooks guide instruction for teacher

mentoring. Yet the ideal remains the same. The ideological curriculum in this case just has to be sought out in a different manner; documents, policymakers, and examining the goals of teacher mentoring all express the ideological curriculum of teacher mentoring.

Formal Curriculum – The formal curriculum is similar to the ideological curriculum. Goodlad et al., explain, "The formal curriculum could be a collection of ideal curricula, simply approved and passed along without adaptation or modification" (1979, p. 61). This is what is officially adopted for the students to learn by the nations, states, districts, or schools. It is what to be studied; whether it is through course syllabi, study plans, or anything else that the students are expected to learn. The ideological is the ends, whereas the formal curriculum is the means.

Perceived Curriculum - Perceived curriculum is what the teachers believe is being taught, or in the case the mentors. What teachers believe is being taught can be quite different than what or how something is taught. This is considered the "curricula of the mind" (Goodlad et al., 1979, p. 62), and is thus best elicited through interviews with the teacher mentors.

Operational Curriculum – This is the day-to-day happening in the classroom. As mentioned early, what actuals happens can be quite different than what the teacher believes is happening. What is formally adopted may be enacted differently. Thus in this case the operational curriculum is what is happening during the mentoring meetings. The operational curriculum can be sampled through observation techniques, but as the author is not a native Norwegian speaker, interviews and detailed descriptions of the lessons were solicited from the participants.

Experiential Curriculum - The experiential curriculum is what is experienced by the students, or in the case the newly qualified teachers. The operational curriculum is what is happening, and the experiential curriculum is how the students experience what is happening. What interests, or does not interest, students about their schooling; what they find valuable, or not valuable can be found in the experiential curriculum. Interviews tend to be the main form of data collection for one who looks into this category (Goodlad et al., 1979).

Combining these curricula provides a multifaceted arena that includes intentions, experiences, perceptions of the students/teachers, and activities. This helps us to examine

what is happening on many different levels with teacher mentoring, and combined with Wang and Odell's (2002) framework allows for a deeper understanding of such.

An assumption this paper takes is that teacher mentoring in Norway does have curricula, whether or not it is mandated from the national government. The definition of curriculum was chosen because the teacher mentoring programs were organized in a particular way with goals for the new teachers. A mentor must be working with a new teacher in some aspect, and whatever goals, methods or learning takes place is part of the curriculum. The intentions from policy documents, university education courses, and implementation all construct some form of curriculum. Thus research into curriculum takes on much more complexity than simply something that should be learned. John Goodlad (1979) referred to this as curriculum inquiry. "Curriculum practice is what curriculum makers work at. Curriculum inquiry is the study of this work in all its aspects: context, assumptions, conduct, problems, and outcomes" (p. 17).

Curriculum inquiry and research, share the idea of complex interlaced parts that comprise a thorough system. Therefore, understanding the basis of the curriculum requires in depth work connecting context, elements, goals, practices, and constraints and challenges of the curriculum. One of the most comprehensive theoretical frameworks built for curriculum inquiry was developed by Goodlad et al., (1979). This will be explained in more detail below.

2.5.1 Curriculum Inquiry

Through an ambitious research project, Goodlad, Klein, and Tye (1979) determined to create an all-encompassing scheme to conduct curriculum inquiry. The aim was to be able to uncover and find the relations between the different pieces of curriculum and therefore be able to analyze a system, and/or identify problems found within it. Any system has separate but moving parts that interact with each other to keep the system in motion. Education systems are undeniably complex, a vehicle in which there is a competing conflict of interests, ideals, goals, and actors. To begin to understand these systems in the study of curriculum, Goodlad (1979), formulated a conceptual system, defined as:

> *A carefully engineered framework designed to identify and reveal relationships among complex, related, interacting phenomena; in effect, to, reveal the whole where wholeness otherwise might not be thought to exist. Such a system consists of categories abstracted from the existential phenomena the system is designed to describe and classify, categories which can be readily discussed and manipulated at consistent, clearly identifiable levels of generality and which can be developed from different perspectives. (p. 19)*

To work with a conceptual system allows the researcher to map out the framework of the curriculum, in this case for teacher mentoring. A conceptual system is not limited to just providing a skeleton of a phenomenon, it also operates to serve specific purposes. Within this context it can function to illuminate difficulties or questions related to an educational curriculum, to identify links between the aforementioned questions or problems, to reveal the sources in which to collect data relating to the above, and finally to help the researcher to be able to prioritize which sources are most significant pertaining to the questions and difficulties (Goodlad, 1979). Essentially it is a guiding apparatus for research that helps to connect theory to practice.

Curriculum inquiry is built out of three main realms where types of curriculum related decisions are made: Political-social, technical-professional, and substantive (Goodlad, 1979). Political-social refers to the realm that involves the processes in which certain actors and interests overcome others in curriculum related decisions. A researcher examining this topic might ask how one curriculum gets chosen over another. Technical-professional describes the processes involved in the creation, evaluation, economy, improvement, or replacement of curricula. A technical-professional question area might ask how a program is funded or created. The substantive realm consists of the goals, the organization, materials, evaluation, learning processes, and ends and means of a curriculum. A question for the substantive realm may be related to any of the above, or better yet all (Goodlad, 1979). What complicates curriculum inquiry is that these realms are not entirely separable. Certain decisions made by lawmakers, curriculum specialists, and teachers can, and often do, interact in other spheres. The main focus of this paper lies within the substantive realm. The above are the realms pertaining to the types of decisions that are made, but also important to curriculum inquiry is the identification of the levels in which decisions regarding these realms are made.

2.5.2 Curriculum Implementation

To further develop the conceptual system, Goodlad (1979) proposed that there are there are four main levels where curriculum is implemented: the societal, institutional, instructional, and personal levels.

Key to these levels is the idea that there is an interpretation and translation between them (Goodlad, 1979). Curriculum, or a policy that mandates a change, must go through many

levels before reaching the intended learner. These decisions according to this scheme, are the process of how mentoring is implemented. If curriculum is what is organized, experienced, intended, and perceived, implementation is the means of how it is enacted. As Fullan (2007) defines implementation:

> *Implementation consists of the process of putting into practice an idea, program, or set of activities and structures new to the people attempting or expected to change. The change may be externally imposed or voluntarily sought; explicitly defined in detail in advance or developed and adapted incrementally through use; designed to be used uniformly or deliberately planned so that users can make modifications according to their perceptions of the needs of the situation. (p. 69)*

The broadest level of decision-making is called the societal level (Goodlad, 1979). Those authorities or bodies that are most distant from the student make these decisions regarding curriculum. An example would be a policy maker, superintendent of a school district, or school board members. The decisions from the societal level would be adopted by the next level, which is the institutional level. The institutional level refers to the institutions, schools, administrators, and specialists that must interpret and implement the decisions coming from the societal level. They select and bargain for the activities sent from the mandates from the societal level through a process of transaction. According to this conceptual system, the actors at the institutional level are not passive recipients and implementers of policy, but use this process of transaction to bargain for additions or changes in the curriculum. These decisions help to determine more specifically what to be taught from the more general goals from the societal level.

The decisions from the institutional level then are interpreted by the third level, the instructional level (Goodlad, 1979). This level would involve the teachers who actually teach the curriculum. Teachers interact with their principals and interpret and translate these specifics into their lessons. The decisions made at the instructional level are the ones directly interacting with the learner. The experiences of the learner are then known as the personal level. This level involves how the student reacts to the teacher and the curriculum. The learning and meaning of the curriculum is central to the personal domain.
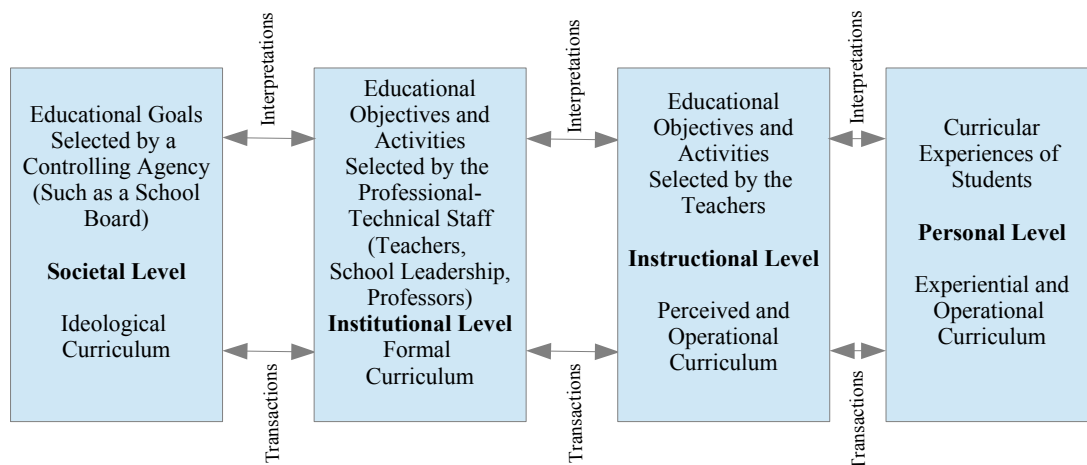
Figure 2.2: A Conceptualization for Guiding Curriculum Practice and Inquiry (Adapted from Goodlad, 1979)

As seen in figure 2.2 is the adapted conceptual system derived by Goodlad (1979) combined with the correlating forms of curricula. What we have here is the result of a complicated and comprehensive conceptualization for curriculum inquiry. Although it has been criticized for being overly comprehensive, to the point of confusion (Short & Grove, 1991), it can serve as a guide to large-scale curriculum studies. Or used delicately it can highlight more specific areas of inquiry, such as implementation, which is how it will be utilized in the current study. Thus the system was narrowed down to the specific purposes of the thesis. There will be more details in how exactly it will be used further along in the methodology section.

Goodlad's conceptualization for curriculum inquiry provides the structure to identify participants, their roles, active levels of curriculum, and the processes of implementation. To further explore these processes, Fullan (2007) explains that with implementation of any educational change, there are four issues to tend to.

- Active initiation and participation
- Pressure and support
- Changes in behavior and belief
- Ownership (p. 91)

Active initiation refers to beginning the process of change, in this case the change is the teacher mentoring program. According to Fullan (2007) effective educational changes take place on a small scale, and then further implemented on a larger scale. Thus role of the district heavily determines how the programs are initiated and who participates within. Fullan explains that pressure and support are both necessary to any successful project. One without the other can lead to either resistance to the change or a misuse of resources. Changes in

behavior and belief are integral to successful implementation. The behavior usually changes before the belief, and one must change in order for an implementation to be successful. As Fullan explains, individuals are the ones who have to make meaning of what is being implemented. Finally, ownership refers to accepting the change, as well as understanding and committing to it. Those implementing the change must be skilled, or learn what is intended, order to effectively create change.

2.6 Summary

This chapter began with showcasing the literature on teacher mentoring and the three major mentor-teacher learning perspectives that are utilized and implemented in school systems. A brief overview of the Norwegian education system followed, along with the literature on Norwegian teacher mentoring. To address the experiences of the newly qualified teachers, the theory of situated learning was introduced. A working definition of curriculum was presented along with a conceptual system to guide research into its implementation. Through identifying curriculum, curriculum implementation and the teacher mentoring learning perspectives there is now a means to connect curriculum and mentoring. This has supported the assumption underlying this paper that teacher mentoring in fact has curricula and places importance on studying it within the Norwegian context. This is the frame in which to interpret and explain the findings of this study. The following chapter continues by explaining the methodology of the study and how the frameworks guided the data collection.

3 Methodology

This chapter begins by describing the general differences between qualitative and quantitative research and how qualitative research is used as a strategy to conduct research within this study. It moves on to the design of the study, which is a case study, and how it is utilized. The following sections describe the data collection procedures, how the sampling of research sites and participants were addressed and conducted, and then the strategies used to analyze the data. Finally, how the study addresses both reliability and validity in a qualitative context is explained, ending with attention to the ethical issues surrounding the project.

3.1 Qualitative vs. Quantitative Research

Qualitative and quantitative research are considered two discrete research strategies. A researcher chooses which strategy to use and employs it based on his/her research goals. To comprehensively discuss the similarities and differences between qualitative and quantitative research would be far too expansive to contain within the limits of this thesis. Thus for the intents of this thesis, one must start by defining the main attributes and purposes of each in order to understand how and why each can be used in a research setting in a general sense.

Quantitative research is heavily associated with numbers, measurement, causality, and making generalizations. It is usually highly structured and carried out in controlled settings. It is generally deductive in nature, where the researcher tests out a predetermined hypothesis, structures the research project according to the hypothesis or research questions, and forms data collection procedures accordingly (Bryman, 2012). This type of research is conducted in a methodological manner, precisely constructing tools to answer specific questions, or test certain hypotheses, which leads from theory to findings.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, is characterized in a different manner. It is considered descriptive, heavily dependent on words and experiences to collect data and purvey the findings to the reader. Contextual understanding also bears a heavy influence in qualitative research. Through context and thick descriptions, it enhances the ability to acquire an in depth understanding of specific events, experiences, or cases (Patton, 2001). It is a research strategy that is inductive in nature, where theory is produced by research, opposite of the

deductive nature of quantitative research. Qualitative research is also considered to be flexible in comparison to its quantitative counterpart. It is a process, with a focus on the discovery and exploration of a phenomenon.

The two research strategies also differ in their epistemological orientations, or how the nature of knowledge is viewed. The epistemology of quantitative research is usually associated with positivism, which aligns the nature of knowledge with how data is collected. According to a positivist stance, only data that can be observed can be known to exist and it relies on a deductive method of inquiry (Bryman, 2012). The converse of positivism is interpretivism, which maintains that the social sciences are a different entity than the natural sciences, and therefore must be approached in a different way. Interpretivism is based on subjectively understanding people or events. As its name implies, interpretivism is meant to interpret to understand therefore utilizing inductive methods for research and explanation, as opposed to the deductive methods of positivism. For these reasons qualitative research usually subsumes an interpretivist epistemology.

Further separating the research strategies are their ontological orientations, or the nature of reality. Quantitative paradigms assume an ontological position that objects in reality exist outside of actors in the social world, and therefore their meanings must be collected in a scientific and rigorous way. Reality is seen as determined and continuous. This is also known as objectivism. On the other hand, qualitative research is characterized by constructivism: or that meaning is constantly being created by those in the social world, and people, objects, or entities do not exist outside this created meanings. Reality is constantly being constructed and revised (Bryman, 2012).

Each type of research has its strengths and purposes. Quantitative research for example, allows for large statistical measurements pertaining to specific questions. This can produce large amounts of data that can be reproduced. One of the advantages of quantitative research is that the findings can be generalizable. This refers to the applicability of the findings of a study to different contexts. As populations can be large and diverse, it seems to be impossible to sample everyone in a research project. Thus quantitative research aims to be generalizable for different populations and settings. This, of course, depends on the integrity of the research plan and instruments (Bryman, 2012).

As the scope of quantitative research can be quite large, the depth of the discussion may be limited to the frame in which the project was designed and carried out. This is where qualitative research builds its strength. Qualitative research utilizes smaller samples to an advantage by going into greater descriptive detail than is usually possible with quantitative research. As this strategy relies on the understanding of an event, context, or person, the generalizability of qualitative research is then hampered (Patton, 2001). The specific case under study is better understood, but the findings cannot always be transferred to other similar cases. As previously mentioned, flexibility is associated with qualitative research. Flexibility is used as a strength to keep the research process open to new venues and ideas while limiting possible restrictions from categories established in advance. Qualitative research is especially useful in cases where there is little data about a topic, as it would be difficult to create a refined quantitative plan with little information available. Researchers who use this research strategy also look to explain the world through the views of the research participants (Bryman, 2012). This has to do with the constructivist nature of qualitative research as reality is expressed by the participants and through their eyes.

The above is a general description of the two main strategies used in conducting research. It is important to note that they are not entirely separable, but the intention is to present the main characteristics commonly assigned to each. A qualitative research strategy was chosen for the current study as the strengths of the qualitative method were aligned with the research questions and the case of teacher mentoring in Norway. As there was little available data on the nature of the teacher mentoring programs, or how they are implemented, the expectation was to go into depth to understand the processes involved in the two counties. By understanding the perspectives of participants, it helps to understand how and why mentoring is implemented. This also gives the necessary background information needed to go into detail into the experiences of the new teachers in these cases. This inductive strategy allows for the possibility of being open to new categories in the exploration of the experiences of the new qualified teachers, as emphasis is placed on the participants' experiences. The following section is a description of the design of the study and how it is applied.

3.2   Case Study Design

A research design is the blueprint for both data collection and analysis within any research undertaking. As there different types research strategies, there are different ways of

conducting research; experiments, surveys, and case studies just to name a few. Designs are chosen in relation to the purpose of the study and according to the strengths and weaknesses of the design. This study uses a case study as a means of conducting research.

One of the prominent scholars on case study research, Yin (2009), pointed to the disagreement surrounding the definition of a case study, and thus proposed that the definition be broken into two separate parts. "A case study is empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p. 18). This definition implies that the understanding of the context that the case is embedded in is required in order to understand the phenomena in question. Yin (2009) then moved on to a complimentary definition:

> *The case study inquiry copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis. (p. 18)*

The second half of the definition points to the available data and methods used to collect as well as interpret it. When these two pieces converge there is a definition that entails not just data collection or analysis, but the design of the study as well. The case study therefore is able to reveal in great depth complex situations not divorced from their every day settings. For this thesis, the case study provides a design to examine the research questions of teacher mentoring in its ongoing situation. Aligned with qualitative research as the overarching research strategy, a case study can be used as a powerful tool to thoroughly explore teacher mentoring and the experiences of those involved.

What constitutes a case varies depending on the study. A case can be a school, an organization, an event, a family, community, or even a single person. The unit of analysis is the case that is chosen which must be bound by certain criteria. These boundaries need to be clearly set and defined in order to bring the case to an operational definition (Yin, 2009). Looking into the context, experiences, and implementation of teacher mentoring are all relevant to this current study, thus using the teacher mentoring program in each county as the case. The district level of the case is chosen in part by Goodlad et al.'s (1979) conceptual scheme, which identifies the various active levels in which decisions related to teacher

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mentoring are made. Further explanation of how this case is bound will be discussed in more detail in the sampling section of this thesis.

As the definition of the case is dependent on the research goals and questions, so is how the case is to be looked at. This study chooses to look at teacher mentoring from a comparative perspective. As Yin (2009) stated, "The evidence from multiple cases is often considered more compelling, and the overall study is therefore regarded as being more robust" (p. 53). Comparisons in research help fashion and strengthen the understandings of educational systems (Bray, 2007). With this in mind, it is assumed that teacher mentoring can be better understood from a comparative perspective in context. Each mentoring program has separate actors, views, stances and policies and the comparative case study can help bring these to light. Also integral to the case is how it is bound, which connects the collection of data, research location(s), and sampling, which will be explained thoroughly below.

3.3   Data Collection Methods

Data collection is the means in which a researcher gathers the information to answer the research questions. The methods used should be consistent with the research strategy and design of the project. Therefore this project uses qualitative methods that can be used in a case study situation. These methods that this project utilizes are semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and document analysis. The following section explains how each method was chosen, why it was chosen, and how it was carried out in the research setting.

Semi-structured and Focus Group Interviews

The interview is one of the most common choices of data collection within qualitative research. Interviews are necessary to obtain information of what we cannot see in the field. Participants' thoughts, emotions, expectations, knowledge, fears and perceptions can all be elicited through the exchange between interviewer and interviewee (Patton, 2001). It can be used as a tool to help illuminate the stories and experiences from the perspectives of the participants.

In qualitative research, there are two main forms of interviews that can be employed by the researcher: unstructured and semi-structured interviews. The unstructured interview is where the interviewer takes a conversation like approach to the interview. Little is prepared before

the interview to allow for flexibility. Questions or interview guides are typically not prepared in this method as the goal is to gather information in whichever direction the participant takes it. The semi-structured interview on the other hand, is slightly more rigid. An interview guide is put together to cover the main topics or questions the researcher is interested in. The researcher is still able follow lines of interest, to go on tangents and gather new and/or exciting information. Depth and meaning can still be explored using the semi-structured interview. This method works exceptionally well in a case of comparison as the same topics, themes, or questions can be followed amongst the differing participants, as this method is more systematic than the unstructured interview (Patton, 2001).

Semi-structured interviews were chosen due to their flexible nature, and the ability to cover similar themes between the participants. Interview guides were tailored to specific participants depending on their position relating to teacher mentoring. The questions were formulated based on the research questions and the literature guiding the study. The frameworks of the study and literature helped to inform the guides in regards to the experiences of newly qualified teachers. Consistent with Goodlad's conceptualization of curriculum, certain questions were aligned amongst the guides, specifically those that address the implementation research question of the study. These were based on the substantive domain of curriculum inquiry, or the domain that involves the goals, practice, organization, and evaluation of curricula (Goodlad, 1979), as this domain is closest to the research questions. The purpose was to see how each participant views and enacts mentoring and therefore identify how teacher mentoring is implemented according to Goodlad's scheme.

In a certain session with an interview with an administrator at the district level, another person with a similar position in the district joined the interview. The interview had to be adapted into a focus group session, utilizing the strengths of this particular method. Focus groups interviews are interviews with more than one person, but differ from a group interview as the topics are more narrowed in relating to the research topic. Focus groups can be an effective tool within research by seeing how multiple participants make sense of a certain phenomenon, through agreement and disagreement between the participants, and providing an opportunity for the participants to challenge and revise their views (Bryman, 2012). In this case the researcher acted more of the position of a moderator, allowing the participants to describe and build on what they found was important, while still covering the main themes of the interview guide.

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Interviews ranged from 45 to 90 minutes depending on scheduling and the responsiveness of the participants. New information was found through the interviews and in this case the semi-structured interview was found especially useful to follow leads and adapt the questions to the interviewees. In certain cases time ran out and follow up questions were sent via email to conclude the session. All interviews were recorded with a tape recorder and the data was immediately transferred to the computer and deleted from the recorder. Semi-structured interviews are the main form of data collection within this study.

Document Analysis

Documents can range from photographs, to books, to official reports. Documents are able to give rich evidence to the researcher about phenomena that cannot be observed (Patton, 2001). Official documents were reviewed, such as the "White Paper on Teacher Education" (KD, 2009) to find the official stance at the societal level. In combination with this, reports, new teacher course syllabi (Enhanced Teacher Education), mentoring course syllabi, and documents from the teacher mentoring working group were used as evidence to build the background on teacher education and mentoring in Norway. This information guided the research questions as it helped to clarify what is known about teacher mentoring in Norway as well as certain justifications for implementing it.

These official documents were specifically chosen for their relevance to teacher mentoring and according to the level of Goodlad's scheme from which they were derived. In combination with the interviews, the data analysis provides another source of evidence to strengthen the validity of the study.

3.4   Sampling of Research Sites

According to Bryman (2012), sampling in qualitative research can be divided into two levels; the sampling of context or location; and the sampling of participants. This section is dedicated to the former. The sampling of a research site can be used as a strategy based on the researcher's goals, research questions, and demographics of the location. Thus the research site needs to be selected strategically and carefully. This is in part what Patton (2001) calls purposive sampling. In brief, purposive sampling entails choosing a case that yields rich information in relation to the research questions of the study. Purposively

selecting your case is done especially when the case exemplifies the attributes you want to investigate, which then allows the researcher to explore the case in depth.

In this study, two counties were purposively selected based on several factors; teacher mentoring had to be formalized in at least some of the schools; there had to be a nearby university or college in which a mentor could take mentor education courses; and large size with a variety of mentors and newly qualified teachers. Both of the counties in the case met the requirements, which then moved the study to the selection of schools and participants.

Patton (2001) identified over 15 different variations of purposive sampling, this study utilized two. The first of which is snowball sampling. Snowball sampling utilizes people knowledgeable about a topic as resources to help identify relevant cases. University professors and district level administrators were approached to identify examples of schools that would present rich information regarding teacher mentoring. The school sites were then selected based on criteria of intensity sampling; where the case is replete with evidence yet not too extreme as to warp the phenomena in question. Both schools that were chosen were upper secondary schools that had a formalized mentoring program in which; the mentor received some formal university mentor education, and; there was a newly hired teacher working at the school participating in the program. Upper secondary schools were chosen to provide an even basis for comparison, as the authorities in Norway that are responsible for the implementation of mentoring in upper secondary and primary schools usually differ. Secondly, upper secondary schools were selected because of the complexity of the material in which the new teachers teach. These criteria are the prerequisites to be able to go into depth into how and why these schools within these counties interpret and implement mentoring. Below is more detail on how the participants were sampled in relation to the goals of the study.

3.5   Sampling of Participants

As with the sampling of locations, the sampling of participants for any research project must be aligned with the nature of the project and its goals. As the teacher mentoring programs are considered one unit of analysis to address the research questions, a sample must be provided to give a holistic view of the programs. Indeed, an advantage of qualitative research, and the case study, is to give a comprehensive view of particular programs (Patton, 2001). As

mentioned in the previous section, each case must be bound by certain parameters in order to know what is under study. To address this issue, Goodlad et al.'s (1979) conceptualization for curriculum inquiry was utilized to build the framework for the sampling of participants in this study. Therefore, key participants from each level (the societal, institutional, instructional, and personal) were purposively selected to both bind the case and address the research questions.

At the top level, the societal level (Goodlad et al., 1979), in each county, the person responsible for mentoring for the school district was selected and interviewed. These were the people at the highest level of each county responsible for the mentoring implementation and thus were seen as the most knowledgeable and relevant participants for the sampling in the county. As such, they are responsible for setting the goals of and implementation teacher mentoring within their respective counties and a necessary component for the case.

The societal level decisions then move down to the institutional level (Goodlad et al., 1979). At this level two different types participants were selected who both work with mentoring and have an influence in its practice; school leaders and the head of the teacher mentoring university program. In each upper secondary school, mentoring was organized differently, so the person in charge of mentoring was in a different position. In School A the leadership was the vice principal of the school. In School B, the school leadership in charge of mentoring was what is called the *avdelingsleder*, or one of the schools department leaders. At the time of the interview, the school was in the process of getting a new principal and the department head was the person who had the responsibility for mentoring in this case. As comparative designs are stronger when using analogous strategies (Bryman, 2012), it is taken into consideration that there may be differences in the structure of the mentoring programs between the two counties. Therefore the head of the department in School B was the closest comparable position to the vice principal in School A. To gather a more comprehensive view of teacher mentoring, the head of the university program that educates mentors was also interviewed. The University Professor is responsible for teacher mentoring courses that the mentors interviewed in the study attended. This professor plays a major role in the implementation processes according to the framework of this study. She helped educate the mentors who then work with the new teachers and thus is considered an integral factor in this study.

The decisions regarding mentoring then are interpreted and translated at the instructional level (Goodlad et al., 1979). This is where the teacher mentors practice what they deem to be mentoring. A mentor was selected at Schools A and B in each county based on the requirement that they were actively mentoring a new teacher. Teacher mentors were selected based on the following criteria; they had to have attended some degree of formal training from either the university and; they had to be currently mentoring new teachers. In this way there is a consistent connection between the participants at this level. Mentors of new teachers in each secondary school were both strategically selected.

Lastly, at the personal level (Goodlad et al., 1979), first year teachers were selected who were working in schools A and B that had contact time with mentors who were interviewed. Pairs of teacher mentors and new teachers are shown to be more effective in research (Little, 1990), so at least one teacher mentor pair was selected at each school. The new teachers all have taken a PPU program for their teacher education as this gives them a similar background coming into the schools. This is the final link in the sampling of participants at each level, and the overall structure attempts to provide perspectives of mentoring from each stakeholder at each level. Within this process of sampling each level, this study attempts address the research questions and purpose of the thesis.
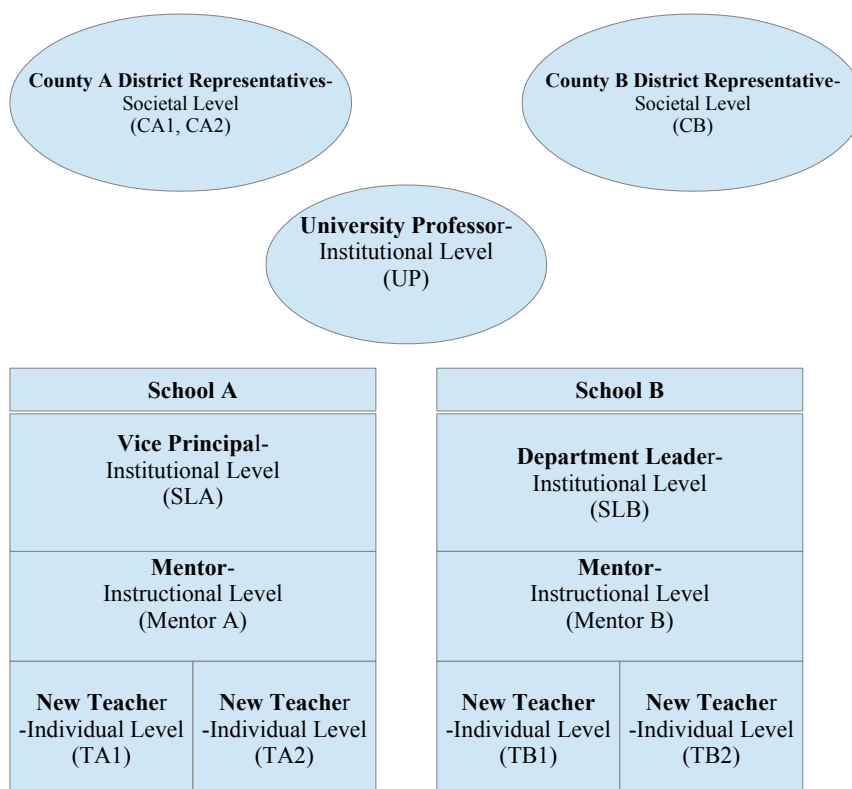
Figure 3.6: Research Participants

In Figure 3.6, the text in the parenthesis describes the position of the participants in relation to their county.

3.6 Data Analysis

The main form of data collection was through semi-structured interviews. The first stage in the analysis was to transcribe the audio recordings. Then all the interviews were read before taking notes. In the following stage, loose categories were developed on the second reading of the interview, using the qualitative software analysis program, NVivo. Upon the third reading of the transcripts, patterns became more apparent. These patterns were then coded, which is a means of identifying themes in the data (Bryman, 2012). These themes were further broken down into distinct categories and the patterns were examined in the text once again. Each case of the mentoring programs in County A and County B was coded separately. At the end of the process, comparisons were made with the final results.

The participants were coded in reference to their position and location. For instance, the school leadership in County A would be referred to as School Leadership A. The in text citation therefore corresponds as (SLA, 2014). The focus group interview in County A had two participants and therefore is coded as CA1 and CA2 noting the difference of participants speaking. The mentors were coded in reference to their county, Mentor A and Mentor B accordingly. As there were two new teachers interviewed at each school, they were assigned a letter depending on the location as well as a number. Teacher B1 would be the first new teacher interviewed in School B and would be cited accordingly as (TB1, 2014). The University Professor is simply coded as UP according to her position as she worked with both schools and mentors.

3.7 Reliability and Validity

Anyone critically reading a report, newspaper, or published article may ask, "How do I know that what I'm reading is accurate?" The validity of project helps to answer the question, purveying to the reader that what you measure is indeed what is claimed to be measured. Any project must have measures enacted to ensure quality. Yin (2009) identified four measures of quality assurance for case study research; construct validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability.

Since qualitative research may be considered subjective, as it typically does not follow the same measurement procedures as quantitative research, measures need to be set into place to identify the concepts of the research. This is what is construct validity, or as Yin (2009) defined it "identifying correct operational measures for the concepts being studied" (p. 41). You can address construct validity in several ways. First the concepts of the study must be defined and then operationalized through comparisons with other published literature. This study addresses construct validity in this way through the literature review and framework in chapter 2. Next Yin explained three ways in which to increase the construct validity of a case. Triangulation is the first method, or using more than one source of evidence to confirm your data. This is done within the current project by crosschecking the data within each interviewer in each county. The second strategy is to create and maintain a "chain of evidence" (p. 42), within a research project. This entails linking the questions of the study to the design and methodology of the study, linking it to evidence, and the data collected. After this a database is created in which the researcher has a chain from the first to the final step in order to review and verify the research process. This project utilizes a chain of evidence as notes were taken before and after each interview, relating to the research questions and stored in an organized folder. The final strategy to increase construct validity is to use key informants to review the data to ensure that it is accurate. Specific key informants volunteered to review the data and were then used as a means to verify certain data within the study.

Internal and external validity deal with causal explanations and generalizability respectively. As this case is neither quantitative in nature nor geared towards generalizing the results, these two of quality assurance are not seen as relevant to the study. Finally, reliability deals with the repeatability of a study. Technically speaking, if a study is to be considered as reliable, another researcher must be able to repeat it step by step and obtain similar results. The way in which to address reliability in a case study is to clearly document and outline the steps taken to get to your conclusion (Yin, 2009). This thesis attempts to describe in detail the procedures taken to be as clear as possible in terms of reliability.

3.8   Limitations

Since the study is in part dedicated to exploring the experiences of the newly qualified teachers, the experiences are self-reported. What happens on the ground between mentors and

new teachers, as opposed to the mentors' perceptions of what happens on the ground may be entirely different. To help address this limitation, triangulating data from interviews with the new teachers, administrators, county level participants, the university participant and mentors was done. Another limitation in this arena is that the new teachers experiences were based on interviews that took place in one moment of time. Further research could explore the changing nature of the experiences the new teachers encounter over time.

The small sample size of the study can also be seen as a limitation. More participants could have provided more valuable information. Each school had a limited number of purposefully selected participants and it is not possible to make generalizations to other contexts. There were other teachers and mentors in some of the cases, but they were chosen not to be interviewed because they did not meet the selection criteria proposed by the author. For instance, some teachers in the mentoring groups were in their second year, or did not take the PPU. Bryman (2012) explains that one criticisms of qualitative research is related to the difficulty of generalizability. This study does not intend to make generalizable conclusions, rather to describe in depth the teacher mentoring programs and the specific experiences of the teachers involved.

A significant limitation to the validity of this thesis is that the author's native tongue is not Norwegian. There are policy documents, work group notes, program syllabi, and other items that had to be translated to the English language. This also limited observations as a means of data collection. This may construct a barrier in the loss of some interesting data, but this was foreseen and interviews were used as a strategy with key individuals to help compensate for this as well as help to fill in missing gaps.

3.9   Ethical Considerations

This study meets the ethical guidelines of both the institution through which the research takes place, The University of Oslo (UiO), and the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD). Rigorous measures were taken to meet these guidelines. The participants were informed prior to the interview of the nature of the study, and gave written consent to participate. The information regarding the participants was made anonymous and stored either on a password-encrypted drive, or in a locked folder. The participants were given opportunity to withdraw from the study at any time; this was verbally offered and written into

the consent form. None of the participants chose to withdraw from the study. The information provided in the study is written to be as accurate as possible, while citing all other sources not from the author. All participants were also offered the opportunity to read the finished version of the study. This highlights a few of the important steps taken to ensure that the views and information of the participants were respected and kept safe.

3.10 Summary

This chapter reviewed the qualitative orientation of the research project, the design of the case study, and the procedures for collecting data and sampling. The importance of carrying out research designed in a consistent manner with the goals of the research project was emphasized. This case study involves comparing the teacher mentoring programs in two counties, A and B, with purposively selected participants. Each participant was selected based on their position in relation to teacher mentoring, the literature guiding and purposes of the study, and location in which they work. County administrators and school leadership were selected as they worked directly with mentoring. A mentoring professor was also interviewed based on her position. Teacher mentors were also selected based on the requirements that they had some form of formal mentor education at the University and that they were currently mentoring a new teacher. Semi-structured interviews were the main form of data collection, with document analysis used to supplement the interviews. The study aims to maintain integrity with special attention to construct validity by using the criteria that Yin (2009) proposed. Reliability is addressed by ensuring the clarity of the procedures of the study so that, hypothetically, it could be reproduced. The study follows the ethical regulations of both the University of Oslo and was approved by the Norwegian Social Science Data Services. The procedures for data analysis were discussed in relation to the qualitative approach. The next section continues with a presentation of the data collected according to the previous procedures.

4 Findings

This chapter presents the qualitative data collected during the fieldwork. At the beginning of this chapter, the University mentoring program is first introduced. Next are the findings from County A, first describing how the program is organized, the nature of the mentoring program with the implementation processes, and then the experiences of the newly qualified teachers. Following County A are the findings from County B, presented in similar fashion by beginning with the organization of the mentoring program.

4.1   The University Mentoring Program

The institutional level of the mentoring curriculum takes into consideration the goals, and activities selected to meet those goals, of the middle ground actors between teacher and politicians (Goodlad et al., 1979). At this junction, this section looks at the "formal curricula" or what is actually internalized by the schools. According to the Goodlad model, the mentors would adapt these curricula and implement it to the new teachers as they interpret it. As the mentors interviewed in both counties attended the University courses to gain competencies as mentors, it is maintained that what is taught at the university is indeed the adopted formal curriculum. There are other mentoring programs, yet this is the one that the mentors have attended.

At the University mentoring was seen as a way to prepare teachers for life long learning. There was a requirement of teaching for at least three years before entering the program, although exceptions can be made with a written letter from a principal. The curriculum of the mentoring program was divided into three courses. A five study point course, then a 10 point course, and finally a 15 point course. The first course was titled VEIL4005 "Guidance in Schools". This course stated that the aim is to provide a general introduction to the teaching profession, teacher education, mentoring, and communication skills. The course ideally gave teachers the tools to reflect and analyze their mentoring practice in the school.

The follow up courses were VEIL4015 and VEIL4020, Guidance and Mentoring in the Teaching Profession, one and two, respectively. These courses cover various traditions and models of mentoring. By the end of VEIL 4020, the stated outcomes are to:

- Perform research and development on their own and in collaboration with colleagues
- Contribute to the professional development of teacher students and colleagues
- Perform manual guidance
- Act on ethical awareness in professional mentoring relationship
- Communicate about the teaching profession's academic issues and practical challenges to various stakeholders (VEIL4005, n.d.; VEIL4015, n.d.; VEIL4020, n.d.)

To achieve these goals the university utilized a variety of methods such as lectures and seminars as well as practical exercises such as mutual observations and selecting cases to discuss and analyze. Important to note is that the University mentoring program was for mentors who will work with both new teachers and student teachers. Mentoring is considered the same for both.

Statements from the University Professor (UP) about the courses were similar to the stated outcomes of the syllabi. Professional development, the ability to mentor, reflection, knowledge of the profession, and teacher education were all cited as important aspects of teacher mentoring. The University Professor then highlighted that one purpose of mentoring is to strengthen teacher education through mentoring.

> *So that's one reason, but your reason why we, here, do it so much that has to do with persons and it has to do with that we think that this is good for our teacher education. Because those who are mentors for new teachers they are also mentors for the teacher students in schools. (UP, 2014)*

Mentors are seen as knowledgeable resources for the new teachers. They are to guide the new teachers with their expertise. Mentors are not in the role to tell what the new teachers what they should do, nor solely support them in an emotional manner. Understanding the teaching profession is an important aspect of the course. The mentors should then help reduce the workload for the new teachers through a combination of support and expertise.

When asked about the knowledge the mentors should have after the course the professor replied:

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> *Knowledge about teacher education. That is important for us, because we, if you are going to do mentoring you have to know what the new teachers come. What they have with them. (UP, 2014)*

According to the University Professor the mentors should have knowledge of what the new teachers know. The new teachers' challenges are seen a combination of workload, methods, and classroom management. Emotional support for the new teachers was also stated as necessary, but should not be the sole focus of mentoring. Continuing the conversation the University Professor went on.

> *"And it's knowledge about teaching and being a teacher, that's not the same. And the ability of mentoring, that's another thing" (UP, 2014).*

This illustrates two important points. The first is the philosophical difference between the essence of being a teacher, and the art of teaching. Secondly, mentors need to have the skills necessary to be a mentor. From this perspective mentoring is seen as requiring certain abilities that can be learned.

According to the University Professor, the mentor should be a knowledgeable resource for the new teachers whilst supporting them in the areas that are perceived to be the most apparent. This program uses the mentor as a valuable resource, but in a way that supports the new teachers through a combination of advice, reflection, and expertise.

4.2 County A

This section presents the findings from the data collected from the study in County A. The findings are organized by each implementation level, according to Goodlad et al.'s (1979) scheme, from the societal to the instructional levels. This highlights the roles and activities of each participant as well as helps to identify the necessary components of the nature of the program. The personal level is presented through the experiences of the newly qualified teachers.

There were four different links to mentoring in School A. The vice principal of the school, who is referred to as School Leadership A, or SLA in this thesis. Next was the "*fadder*" who was an informal teacher assigned to new teachers who do not have a subject specific mentor. This would be a person who is there to show a newcomer to a school, or organization, the

ropes. At the time of the interview the *fadder* did not have formal mentor education. Then there was the group mentoring, where there are three mentors and each have a degree of formal education in mentoring. There were two brand new teachers at the school, who consist of the seven total teachers in the mentoring group. Some of which were vocational teachers, teachers returning to the profession, or teachers in their 2nd or 3rd years of teaching. The final link depended on who was assigned a mentor. Some new teachers had one of the three group mentors assigned as their individual mentor. These roles will be further elaborated in the presentation and further discussion of the data in this chapter.

Each of the group mentors had completed some form of education in mentoring at the local university. The interviewed mentor, Mentor A, was one of the three mentors in School A. She had been teaching for six years, mentoring for three, and taught the subjects English and psychology. Mentor A individually mentored three teachers on top of her group mentoring responsibilities. She had taken the first 15 study points, VEIL4005 and VEIL4015, from the University in mentoring and eventually plans on taking the final 15 credit course VEIL4020.

4.2.1 Mentoring at the Societal Level/County Context

The counties are the school owners for upper secondary schools in Norway. The school owners in County A worked closely with the schools, local university and university college with mentoring. They based their initial plan for mentoring on the national network for mentoring success criteria. These criteria list seven major points to successful mentoring based on international and local research, and local discussions and reports. These success factors highlight the responsibilities and of the school owners, the schools, mentors, and newly qualified teachers. The success factors are as follows:

- Owner takes responsibility for the guidance scheme of new teachers put into time and followed up as a rooted system in institutions and across of institutions
- Cooperation between the owner, manager and teacher training to develop quality locally based ideals
- Collaboration between different stakeholders in the regions to inform, initiate, and develop quality offers
- Newly qualified teachers' employment details
- Mentors' employment details
- Teacher Education Quality
- Mentoring Quality (Bjerkholt, 2010).

These success criteria help to form what is known as the ideological curriculum, or what mentoring should look like in the intended form. The highlights from these criteria relevant to the study are that both mentors and newly qualified teachers should have time off in their schedule to allow space for mentoring. Mentors should have formal education in the practice of mentoring and have an arena to regularly discuss challenges and share insights with other mentors. Further, it is recommended that mentors should also have systematic feedback on their practice. The school owners should also work with the schools and universities to develop mentoring.

At the county level, speaking directly with the school owners in County A helped reveal their priorities. When questioned about the purpose of mentoring, the school owners found three reasons to justify it.

- Student learning
- Teacher recruitment to the district
- Professional development

Thus mentoring should provide professional development opportunities for staff in the schools. In turn having mentoring can attract new hire teachers in the district as well. It should also have a benefit for the students in the classroom; which was expressed could happen by a confident new teacher.

> *More confident and secure new teacher, that's one thing. But also that we see that you can bring this back in the school system and you make some more professional meetings and guidance between colleagues. (CA1, 2014)*

At the county level it was felt that mentoring should have outcomes that increase the self-efficacy of the new teachers. This also suggests that there is an overall goal to benefits the school as a whole through professional development opportunities.

County A provided financial support to schools based on the amount of new teachers who are in the school each year.

CA1 explained that the terms of the money is related to the evaluation forms sent to the new teachers each year.

> *We provide them money, then the new teachers report back to us, that they don't have sufficient mentoring. Or that the mentors don't show up on these meetings then we take the money back, yes. (CA1, 2014)*

> *This money is actually for the school not for the teachers directly. It's for the school. Some of their time they use for mentoring instead of teaching. They don't get extra paid. They just get their work a little bit different organized. They will have time within the normal week to do mentoring. (CA2, 2014)*

These evaluation forms were surveys that roughly determine success by the new teachers' satisfaction. In the eyes of the representatives of County A, money is used to restructure the work schedules of the participants involved in mentoring. They recommended that the newly qualified teachers have a reduction in their work schedule. If they do not meet certain criteria then the money must be returned to the school. This highlights a process of communication between the schools, as well as the influence the county has on ensuring a successful program by tying financing to results.

4.2.2 Mentoring and the Roles at the Institutional Level

School A and County A worked together to organize off site meetings where the mentors could meet and share their practices. The location rotates depending on the school. The schools that host the meetings decide the topics of discussion. Mentors mainly attended these meetings, but school leaders also attended. These events took place about twice every school year.

School A was asked by the County to develop a mentoring program and the school agreed. School Leadership A then worked out with a team of mentors a program of mentoring for the newly qualified teachers. Important to note is the influence of the University on developing the program as well. In describing the development of the program, School Leadership A explained:

> *"Yeah and with the university then also because they took this course at the same time as we started it. They got lots of input from there so we tried it this way" (SLA, 2014).*

School Leadership A felt that mentor education is important for mentors to have, and has remarked both specifically and indirectly supporting this. To confirm this, all of the group mentors in this school did have, to varying degrees, education at the University. The role of

the county in the development of this program seems less influential than the University in regards to the content and organization of mentoring. The County did provide funding and said that newly qualified teachers should have a reduction in their schedule. However, it was explained that they were not directed to organize mentoring in any specific way. Thus it seems to be a more bottom up approach where the school works out its own system with the assistance of the University, mentors, and the County.

School Leadership A played a limited role in evaluating the performance of the mentors and mentoring program. The evaluation is mostly done informally through conversations. As she feels, it is an area that could be improved on.

> *"But no we probably could have better, sort of, that I discuss more with them. What we're doing, is it good? What could we do differently? Etc." (SLA, 2014)*

This leaves space for the mentors to work rather freely with the methods and subjects in which they choose, but does not give them any formal means of evaluation.

Some of the challenges School Leadership A had in implementing mentoring in School A relate to the workload and motivation of the new teachers. Getting them to see the value of mentoring on a more general level as opposed to just the specifics of grading, writing exams, etc., is a difficulty that she noted. According to School Leadership A, it was partially due to the fact that there is such limited free time available for the NQTs that they do not always prioritize the content of the mentoring curriculum. Another challenge found is the evaluation of mentoring. How to show the newly qualified teachers their progress over an extended period of time is currently under consideration.

When asked about the outcomes of the benefits of mentoring at the school, School Leadership A expressed that it was difficult to measure. She felt that it was important for the new teachers to have someone to go to that helps alleviate the pressures of the first year. Overall she felt it was positive and cited the feedback forms that the County sends out to the first year teachers, noting a degree of utility to these evaluations. As the new teachers generally had positive experiences, it has been positive for the school.

The University Professor was involved in implementation in the mentoring program in School A in two different ways. One was through the mentor education courses which all of

the mentors at the school have attended at least the first two. The second way was through the connection between County A, the University, and mentoring:

> *That's interesting because I have good talks with County A, many meetings. That's a good talk. And they say, can you go to that school? Can you go to THAT school. And I know almost every school in County B and County A. I have a network. Perhaps I get a telephone can you command help, I get a mail, come. And then it's up to me. Do I have the resources to come? And what kind of help do they need? So there in County A there are regions where they gather to try to give some competence to the mentors. (UP, 2014)*

The communication between the University and County A was quite strong. This illustrates a societal/institutional bond between County A, School A and the University. Furthermore, it showcases the influence the University had in County A.

School Leadership A explained the goals of mentoring from her perspective. When asked about the purpose of mentoring, helping to get the new teachers to reflect on their practice was an important component. School Leadership A also noted mentoring as the development of the new teacher.

> *I think it should make...the new teacher perhaps more able to develop his or her role as a teacher by giving advice but also perhaps giving, they're different and in teaching you have to find your professional role in a way. "How do I do it? I can copy you perhaps in some things but I have to find my way and what is good for me. (SLA, 2014)*

This explains that the new teachers should find their own path as a professional. New teachers should not feel like they are alone in the school when they have mentoring. They should feel supported in the school. Aside from reflection and personal development, mentoring should include tasks related to classroom management and teaching strategies as well. However, it was specifically stated that the emphasis of mentoring should be on being a teacher, not subject specifics.

School Leadership A seemed very keen of the situation of the new teachers in the school. She began by explaining that the challenges faced vary from person to person, but spoke on some of the more common issues. The pressure and workload of the first year of teaching are seen as obstacles.

> *Because the pressure in a first year teaching career can be quite horrendous. (SLA, 2014)*

> *I think the workload, sort of managing your work and not working too much. It depends on what kind of teachers you have I think. Norwegian teachers, language teachers, a lot of assessment and they correct papers all the time and sort of trying not to work too much. (SLA, 2014)*

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Assessment was also seen as something the new teachers have to adapt to. New teachers seemed to have a difficult time discerning how to assess in a diverse classroom environment. Classroom management was the other noted challenge: how to engage students throughout the entire lesson. She saw developing into a classroom leader was a process that can take quite some time.

> *That kind of thing is something that you need a couple of years at least to manage, to get used to and to focus on students instead of yourself. (SLA, 2014)*

In this sense, SLA felt that the mentoring program should span more than just one year.

4.2.3 Mentoring and the Role at the Instructional Level

As the mentor, Mentor A was a person directly involved in implementing mentoring in both the groups and individually. According to Goodlad et al.'s (1979) forms of curriculum, what takes place here is are both the perceived and operational curricula. This is what the mentor believes to be taking place as well as what is actually occurring. As previously mentioned, there were formal group mentoring meetings and more informal individual meetings. The group mentoring sessions tended to focus on what Mentor A considered the more general aspects of teaching, such as didactics, pedagogical strategies, classroom leadership, and assessment. The lessons were adapted to a time frame in which the mentors felt that the new teachers need advice on certain skills, routines, or strategies throughout the year. Looking at upcoming dates and deadlines were two specific instances given. Yet the program was not solely focused on what the mentors feel the new teachers need. An example is the case where each of the new teachers in the group presented a challenge that they dealt with, and they took a vote to select the topic for discussion. Once a topic was selected, the new teachers discussed amongst each other possible solutions with the mentors playing the roles of mediators rather than lecturers. The mentors asked if the teachers in the group would like to focus on different areas for the following lessons, and tried to adapt the curriculum while keeping to their schedule.

The individual mentoring sessions with Mentor A and the newly qualified teachers ran more informally. When there was a one on one meeting, it is usually to discuss something that the NQTs have an immediate question about. An example was given when a NQT had a question about grading papers, then the mentor graded the exams separately from the NQT then they came back and discussed why they graded they way that they did. This type of example is not

based in a form in which Mentor A passes her expert knowledge down to the new teachers, rather she uses assumptions of collaborative methods. The mentor also had an open door policy in which the teachers could drop by any time with questions.

Mentor A viewed mentoring as a means to "help the teacher to overcome the obstacles in the first year" (Mentor A, 2014). Mentoring should transition the teachers into the school from the university programs. Successfully doing this would mean to keep the new teachers in the profession.

> *To keep them longer than the two first years. And they do have some reduction in their working time here, so they have like 10% reduction in teaching hours and so on. That is to give time to this mentoring stuff that we do. So the main goal must be to make them stay. (Mentor A, 2014)*

Clues to the goals of mentoring were not just given in the direct responses to the question. How Mentor A explained she would address these goals revealed what she felt was important. Organizational strategies and prioritizing work were listed as ways to help make new teachers stay, but the main theme throughout the conversation was making the new teachers confident in their abilities. When discussing the individual mentoring practice of grading, Mentor A said:

> *That's so she could see that we actually sat the same grade in very many of the papers to like make her secure of her own ability to grade. (Mentor A, 2014)*

Both theoretically and practically the Mentor A seemed to have the notion that the new teachers first and foremost need to be secure of themselves in the new school system.

What Mentor A perceived the challenges of the new teachers to be serve to form an important aspect of defining the mentoring program. Mentor A suggested that new teachers in school can have many challenges, but stressed that finding confidence in oneself is of high importance.

> *I think it's probably many things but I think finding security about that what you do is good enough. Because we are kind of in our own rooms doing our own things and maybe the observation part could help you see that both observing the mentor and the mentor observing you, you can see that we all have good and bad days in the classroom. And that is okay, and that you could advise each other on it. (Mentor A, 2014)*

The emphasis on self-confidence and subsequent listing of mutual observation as a means to show the newly qualified teachers that the everyday happenings in the classroom are normal suggest the priority of the new teacher's personal development. Mentor A went on to explain

that new teachers are burdened by the workload of the first year, but should spend more time getting to know the school system and social atmosphere.

Important to the understanding of the role of the mentor, is the dynamic between the mentor and the new teachers. Mentor A believed that the new teachers and her as a mentor should have an equal relationship in the school.

> *...we are not supposed to judge. It's not our agenda either to say something to the principal or anything. So it's kind of equal level in some ways. But still we are the mentors, so we see that they kind of seek our opinion on things. So it's kind of finding a balance between giving advice and at the same time making them secure. (Mentor A, 2014)*

Here shows Mentor A's belief that there is an asymmetrical relationship between the two of them, but there is a delicate balance that needs to be carefully measured in order to accomplish her goals. Indeed, when asked about the role of being a mentor, Mentor A noted that it is challenging to balance the relationship with the new teachers without being perceived as judging. Some of the other challenges she expressed were also related to interpersonal skills. Mentor A gave an example when she was mentoring a student teacher and could not find a way to stay in the classroom. The student teacher ultimately left the teaching field.

Mentor A felt her workload has not changed much since she took on the role of being a mentor. Personally she pushed herself more since she felt like there is an additional responsibility now that she is working with the newly qualified teachers. Having multiple mentors to work with was advantageous according to Mentor A. Mentoring also had its upsides. Mentor A decided to pursue mentoring based on her positive experiences mentoring student teachers. When asked about the positive experiences she had while being a mentor, she mentioned learning new things.

> *You teach a lot of new things, you learn a lot new things yourself. Because they are fresh from university and also not always, not just with the same subject teacher, but also with other teachers because you have the didactical approaches and it's really interesting to observe. (Mentor A, 2014)*

What is interesting in this piece was not only her desire to learn, but how she saw new teachers as knowledgeable resources through which information can be shared. Being open to learning from the newly qualified teachers puts them on a more level playing field than would be in an apprenticeship model. Further she explained that mentoring has been

beneficial in the way that she was able to reflect on her own teaching. By observing other teachers, she was able to reflect and adapt her own practice.

Tied into the both the nature and implementation of an educational program is how it is evaluated. In regards to the feedback surveys the NQTs filled out, Mentor A described that they were a way that helped improve her practice by seeing which areas to improve on. Mutual observations then a following discussion were also a part of the individual mentoring. This served as an informal way to get feedback on the practice of both the mentor and the newly qualified teachers. The mentor did not have any formal evaluation form for the new teacher.

> *We have this agreement that we, the mentoring group, are not supposed to report anything to, for example, principals. (Mentor A, 2014)*

The formal new teacher evaluations were done by the department heads who hold a higher position in the school, but Mentor A tried to have the new teachers reflect and evaluate themselves through questioning techniques. When asked about how she would give feedback in an area where a new teacher could improve, Mentor A responded,

> *...you would maybe try to see, ask questions, "Did you think this worked out for you?" and maybe make them see it themselves. (Mentor A, 2014)*

This relates to reflection and guidance, rather than a more rigid method where the mentor might give direct feedback about what he/she feels needs to be corrected

4.2.4 The Experiences of the Newly Qualified Teachers

This section explores the personal level of the mentoring curriculum according to Goodlad et al.'s (1979) scheme as well as the experienced curriculum. It also showcases the experiences the newly qualified teachers. Both Teacher A1 and Teacher A2, the newly qualified teachers interviewed, went through the teacher education program, or PPU, from a major Norwegian university to get a master's degree. In part having the background experiences from the University newly qualified teachers helps to clarify their thoughts and show their transitions from being a student to teacher. Similar themes ran through their explanations of the experiences during their time in teacher education. This section begins with Teacher A1.

Table 4.2: School A: New Teacher Background Information

Participant	Gender	Position	Degree	Years Teaching	Subjects Taught
Teacher A1 (TA1)	Female	Newly qualified teacher	Master's biochemistry PPU	1st Year	Natural sciences, mathematics
Teacher A2 (TA2)	Female	Newly qualified teacher	Master's Norwegian PPU	1st Year	Norwegian, English

Teacher A1

Teacher A1 was a first year teacher in School A, who had completed her teacher education with a focus on biochemistry from a major Norwegian university. She spoke confidently during the meeting. The conversation began with her experiences during her teacher education program. To begin, Teacher A1 was not happy with her field placement. She did not have any influence to where she was placed and worked in lower grades than she desired. She expressed,

> *And in the first week, there I was placed in a kindergarten. So I was playing with lego the whole week. I was like, "Yeeeeah, I'm a biochemist, I'm playing with lego...So it should be good if you had some influence on that. (TA1, 2014)*

Teacher A1 felt that teacher education program was strong theoretically but not practically.

As a teacher, TA1 felt that she was able to "reach out" to students. She felt very social and aware of the students' needs. One of the skills she used in the classroom was breaking down information into understandable terms. Through this strategy she could explain difficult concepts to students. However, TA1 also had some difficulties with teaching as well. She had a problem with motivating students that "do not want to learn" (TA1, 2014).

Since Teacher A1 taught in the maths and sciences, she did not have an individual mentor from the mentoring group. Instead she had a *fadder* assigned to her who shared her subject. The *fadder* was another teacher in the maths and sciences who meets with Teacher A1 once a week to discuss their common subject. Teacher A1 expressed that her *fadder* was the person she can go to with any random question as well as subject specific issues. She felt comfortable going to her *fadder* for a wide range of issues. Teacher A1 also felt supported in

the school community. In School A she felt welcomed and that she could turn to someone if she needed to.

In the group mentoring, Teacher A1 viewed the sessions as a place where she ccould get advice on the more general issues such as the Norwegian law and grading. It was also interactive where everyone could participate and give input. For example, Teacher A1 described the mentoring groups:

> *Everybody can learn something, everybody is in that situation, or can be in that situation and it's very broad and good to have this figured out before you get in that situation. (TA1, 2014)*

The group mentoring sessions helped to enable Teacher A1 to change the way she thought about teaching. She became more reflective on her practice.

> *And give you, help you reflect and then also process and input to, in the different direction you can go. So you kind of get a better overview of the situation. With a better overview you will also mature more as a teacher so that you can be more professional as well. (TA1, 2014)*

These group mentoring sessions helped TA1 to become more professional in her terms. She did not feel the same way about the individual meetings though. Keeping in mind that she had a *fadder* who is not trained in mentoring, TA1 received help from her *fadder* on what she considered the smaller things related to her subject.

To get a more complete picture of what is most important to the new teachers, some questions were directed to what mentoring should be in its ideal form. Teacher A1 wanted strategies more towards the art of teaching. She wanted more immediate feedback and relevant techniques.

> *...and give you feedback. Positive criticism. I'm very fond of that. I think that's something the most important that you can do is really get somebody else to look at what are you doing. How does this work? Especially if you have some problems in the class. Then you in front can say, "Okay, be aware of this. And if you think of some other things to do, another way to go, please tell me afterward so I can try that next time. (TA1, 2014)*

This also shows how she desired more direct practical feedback that could be immediately applied. TA1 also felt that mentoring should happen through dialogue, and that reflection was an important part of the mentoring process. By the end of the year, mentoring should make you a more professional teacher.

TA1 expressed a desire for direct practical feedback and constructive criticism. This was further explained through one of the challenges she had in the mentoring group.

> *Well I remember in the beginning when I just got the big group, and I realized that I was the only one with science. And everything they were talking about was Norwegian and English, all that I was like, well this doesn't correspond to me. Because I wanted kind of more subject related matters. (TA1, 2014)*

As TA1 was the only teacher in the sciences in the mentoring group, she felt left out. The mentoring group was too general to meet her individual subject related needs. Her desire for constructive feedback became a theme in the conversation. At the point in time of the interview, she had not had any classroom observations from a mentor, but did from the head of her department.

When she was observed she only received positive feedback on her practice, which left her with a feeling of being "annoyed." When asked if she was able to improve her practice based on the observations, she responded:

> *No. It sounded like a perfect two sessions. And that's of course good but it doesn't give you anything to go forward on. (TA1, 2014)*

This again expresses Teacher A1's desire to develop her skills as a teacher through direct feedback. It also reveals part of her disposition towards learning. Without constructive criticism it leaves her with no area to focus on for the next lesson. It also implies that she is not able to implement strategies or improve her teaching practice through the observations. Teacher A1 had not observed any of the teachers or mentors either, although she had been invited to do so. She felt that she is too busy and unless it is formalized and she is assigned a time to visit, she will not go on her own. When questioned about observing other teachers, she responded:

> *Well of course I can, always just go into a class, but it's not on the schedule. And I have a lot to do. So it's kind of not something you prioritize. But I think that I should, if I just felt like…yeah it's the first year of teaching. You're kind of drowning, all the time. You just have to try to stay above water. Hopefully after a while I will have more…but I have been invited by another teacher to come and observe. Not my mentor but somebody else that said "Please stop in, drop by." But I don't have time. (TA1, 2014)*

As a first year teacher, Teacher A1 was extremely busy and this relates to what the vice principal said about wanting the new teachers to prioritize mentoring. She did not feel that the value of mentoring outweighs her other obligations. She would have liked to observe

other teachers, but unless a time for observing was assigned to her, she expressed her other duties take precedence.

Teacher A2

Teacher A2 took her teacher education from a major Norwegian university with a master's degree in Norwegian. She taught Norwegian and English. As the conversation followed a similar path as the previous one with TA1, the discussion began with her teacher education program experiences. Teacher A2 was also not happy with her field placement. She wanted to teach in upper secondary but was placed in lower grades than she hoped for. She used this placement to solidify her decision to work in an upper secondary school.

> *Yeah, but I got jr. high school. Like 8-10. And that was sort of a disappointment, that wasn't a choice we were to make. We were just placed in groups and I just figure that this is an experience that I can learn from. I figured out that I didn't want to be in junior high school, because I loved 10th grade. 10th grade was wonderful; so I took that as a sign that I should sort of go up. Sort of aim towards high school, and I did. (TA2, 2015)*

By the end of her teacher education program, Teacher A2 felt unsure if teaching was the career for her. She did not feel welcome in the school in which she student taught, did not feel like it was organized, and was not able to apply the theory from the University courses.

> *So after finishing PPU I did not really know if I wanted to teach. I was just sick of the program I gotta say. I'm being brutally honest here. (TA2, 2015)*

Noting some of her strengths as a teacher, Teacher A2 explained how she is able to relate to students of different various backgrounds. She maintained rapport with the students by creating a safe classroom environment built on trust. On the other hand, TA2 found it challenging to use teaching theory in her day-to-day activities. Even though her teaching education program was strong theoretically, she did not have the practical experiences to apply it. Also interesting to note is that she was having a more difficult time with her English class than the Norwegian. Teacher A2's individual mentor is Mentor A, and they shared Norwegian as a subject. Teacher A2 and Mentor A do not meet according to a schedule, but both were active in communicating with each other. Teacher A2 felt that these individual meetings were helpful, especially in regards to her self-confidence.

When asked about some of the experiences during the individual sessions, she explained how they grade papers separately, then come together and discuss their reasoning. Then she explained:

> *But it worked really well because I sort of got this confirmation that I was doing something right. (TA2, 2015)*

Mentoring took place mostly during the group sessions. Teacher A2 felt that these sessions were helpful to her experience. She gave an example on how they were useful:

> *For example the term grades. That was very useful how you decide for example, both Norwegian and English, they get one grade. And you're supposed to take into account both the oral, everything they say and everything they write. And sometimes there is a huge gap between them. And that works in Norwegian class as well, sometimes they write well and they can't really perform, so that's been useful and we talk a lot about that, just before Christmas. That was a good one. (TA2, 2015)*

Through the group discussions Teacher A2 was able to apply knowledge created in the mentoring group. Some of the topics covered were laws and grading, and TA2 found these to be very helpful. Like TA1, Teacher A2 felt supported in the school community. Teacher A2 conveyed that her mentor, the mentoring group, her department leader, and School Leadership A supported her. In contrast with her teacher education experiences, she was welcomed at the school and feels like it is a safe zone.

> *I feel like I'm being taken care of. I knew that when I started that they were aware of my background and my lack of experience and I feel like I'm being understood in a way. So I think that's a positive outcome I guess. Because I feel like they understand me. And it's not...they don't expect me to be very experienced yet. And that's good that people are aware of that. (TA2, 2015)*

There are multiple different levels that Teacher A2 could reach out to if she had a question. This statement also implies more than just support, but a feeling of openness, or lack of judgment from her coworkers. The value Teacher A2 placed on support manifested itself throughout the interview in different ways through different levels of the school. Teacher A2 felt that the fellow new teachers, school administration, and the mentors were supportive. The safe environment of the school was brought up several times by Teacher A2. She also was heavily influenced by her teacher education experiences:

> *If I feel like I messed up, they always say that, "No relax, it's gonna be fine and you didn't mess up. It's alright." And that feels very good to have someone not, sort of attacking you in a way. They're very positive and understanding I gotta say. (TA2, 2015)*

There seems to be some residue from Teacher A2's teacher education experiences, which she referred to quite often in contrast with her experiences of her first year of teaching. She did

not feel safe while student teaching, which can be illustrated by her choice of using the word "attacking." Her expressions of feeling supported within the school shows her experiences leave her with an idea that mentoring should be about emotional and social support.

> *I felt like I was a bit awkward, like I didn't belong there. So I was sort of surprised when I loved teaching. I gotta say. (TA2, 2015)*

> *It's just a whole different world. Because I was kind of skeptical if I wanted to teach or not. I was very open when I started, I went of course to the interview saying that, "I want to teach and I want to try teaching" but I was sort of open to either I loved it or I hated it. It could go both ways. And I ended up loving it and I'm very glad it went that way. (TA2, 2015)*

These quotes from Teacher A2 show that she did feel included in the school environment. Since she arrived School A she found a love for teaching which was not apparent before working there. Mentoring and the supportive school environment has actually changed her perspective of teaching from something she was unsure of doing, to actually being surprised that she enjoyed doing it.

Another part of mentoring for Teacher A1 was mutual observations with the mentors. She had been observed, and had observed two of the three group mentors. After the observations they were able to discuss the practice and Teacher A2 revealed excitement about the next discussion of her observation. This locates the disposition of the teacher in relation to mentoring itself. Perhaps it is in part due to having an individual mentor with a formal education, as observations were part of the University program coursework. Yet it seems that Teacher A2's eagerness and her outgoing nature solidified the observations.

In its ideal form, Teacher A2 felt that mentoring should cover the basic school structures and laws as well as assessment. She also put a lot of emphasis on personal support. Help with teaching strategies was also mentioned, especially in regard to subject related content.

As Teacher A1 did not feel the mentoring group tailored to her needs, Teacher A2 voiced similar concerns when it came to subject specific mentoring. Although her mentor was Mentor A, and they share Norwegian as a subject, she still feels lost in English. Throughout the interview she cited a specific case as frustrating her and not having anyone to turn to who has been through a similar case. She did not feel the general feedback from the groups, or advice from Mentor A1 was strong enough to help her resolve the issue

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4.3 County B

In School B, group mentoring takes place about twice a month for 90-minute sessions. Mentor B was the mentor, and brought the topics of discussion to the mentoring sessions. Individual meetings were also available between the mentor and the new teachers, but these were more informal and were dependent on the scheduling of the new teachers and mentor. Observations were another part of the mentoring program at School B, the mentor observed the newly qualified teachers and then the lessons were discussed. Mutual observation was recommended, but not compulsory. As there was currently only one official mentor in this school, if there was a subject specific need, the newly qualified teachers could discuss it during departmental meetings.

Mentor B was the key mentor, or *nøkkelveileder*, who was responsible for the eight new teachers coming into the school. Mentor B had 20% the time in her contract dedicated to mentoring instead of teaching; there was no increase in pay for this position. This allowed her to have Thursdays free from teaching so that mentoring sessions can be booked with whoever was available. The mentor taught English and had 12 years of experience. She had been mentoring for year and a half at the time of the interview. Her other responsibilities included organizing the student teachers that came into the school. Mentor B had taken all 30 mentor education study points from the university. Unlike in County A, there were currently no formally organized forums by the county for mentors to discuss their profession.

The *avdelingsleder*, one of the department leaders, was the person in a leadership position responsible in School B for mentoring. She is referred to as School Leadership B or SLB. She was one of three group leaders, who also hired new teachers to the school. School Leadership B worked with the new teachers through observations throughout the year and was also responsible for the results of the science, social science, and economics courses.

There were two newly qualified teachers interviewed, Teacher B1 and Teacher B2. Teacher B1 taught 95% of his 100% contract, while the other five percent was used towards mentoring. He taught math, chemistry, and the natural sciences. Teacher B1 had a master's in chemistry and completed the PPU teacher education program. Teacher B2 was teaching

upper secondary English and social sciences for her first year. She was working on finishing her master's degree in the aforementioned areas, but had completed her PPU student teaching period. She worked on a 43% contract while finishing her degree.

4.3.1 Societal Level and Enhanced Teacher Education

In County B, it is important to explain that new teachers working in the schools were offered a 50 point course during their first year of teaching known as *Forsterket Laererutdanning*, or roughly translated to English, "Enhanced Teacher Education (ETE)". The school owners in County B were responsible for the delivery of this course to the new teachers. This course was spread out over six days of the school year. Attendance to these courses was not mandatory for new teachers. This was the form of mentoring that the county offered new teachers, and shows where the ideological interests of the county lie. Both new teachers in School B have attended. The majority of the courses covered practical issues or skills that new teachers may need. A similar course was also being offered from the county to the mentors, but as no mentors interviewed have taken this course, it was not deemed relevant in this particular case.

The content of this course was to provide new teachers with the skills that County B considered necessary. The topics were as follows:

- The teacher as a leader
- Pupil assessment - Assessment of and for learning
- Pedagogical delivery
- Home-school cooperation
- Basic skills - reading and writing in subjects
- Relationships and achievements (Forsterket Lærerutdanning, 2015)

The only evaluation of mentoring was done through the county was through feedback reports given to new teachers who attended the Enhanced Teacher Education courses. These feedback reports discussed the perceptions of the quality and frequency of mentoring of the NQTs. It was not specific in how or who administers the mentoring however. For new teachers who were not enrolled in the Enhanced Teacher Education courses, there was no direct line to County B to give feedback on the mentoring that took place.

The County B representative (CB) gave spoken insight to what should occur with newly qualified teachers. When CB was asked about the goals of mentoring, she began by

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explaining the system and the conditions that new teachers begin working under. "Stressful" and "scary" were some of the terms she described the first year for newly qualified teachers. This helps reveals that she believed that the first year of teaching is quite overwhelming. Thus mentoring should be a means to alleviate these stresses. Many of the goals paralleled what is written was the Enhanced Teacher Education. New teachers should be stronger with class leadership, assessment, and gaining professional competence, but she moved in a different direction and said the following:

> *...from day one that the teachers come into your school door, you make sure that they are well taken care of. Provided with information and mentor. We want to make sure that they quickly go into their class and provide their students with good learning as quickly as possible. Not just waiting for the course (Enhanced Teacher Education), from the first day. You need to know who these new teachers are and provide them with the help they need. (CB, 2014)*

From this we see that there was a desire to support the new teachers by giving them information and helping them succeed with their students. She brought up the fact that the teacher education programs did not sufficiently prepare teachers for the reality of teaching. Part of the course was to help the new teachers hone in their basic skills. The general feeling was that teacher education did not arm the new teachers with the skills that they needed to be a teacher.

> *We want to provide the new teachers with information which I know they have been touching in the teacher education, but also they have to...often we see the teacher education is not enough because when the teachers come out they suddenly become teachers, and the role and understanding of, "How am I going to be as a teacher?" (CB, 2014)*

At least part of the intended outcome of mentoring was to supply students with access to a good education as quickly as possible. As the County B representative elaborated on the purposes of mentoring, she explained from the perspective of a new teacher in the work environment:

> *Because when I started I know that my professor told me this but I didn't understand it before I began to work and now I see how it works. (CB, 2014)*

Yet she also explained that mentoring is more than just learning the practicalities of the profession, it should also include discussion and reflection about solving problems.

The discussion went further into the Enhanced Teacher Education program. The following quote illustrated County B's role in implementing mentoring in the schools.

> *We don't say to the schools that you NEED to send all new teachers to this program (Enhanced Teacher Education). What we say is that, "You need to make sure that the new teachers are being given a mentor and you need to make sure that you do some mentoring with that new teacher." We do not say to the schools that you need to be a part of Forsterket Laererutdanning. It's only, "You need to do some mentoring here." (CB, 2014)*

The county did not specify how mentoring should take place. Neither did it specify who should do the mentoring. Thus the main role in implementation of the mentoring was through the Enhanced Teacher Education course. Adding to this, mentoring was loosely evaluated through surveys sent to newly qualified teachers who attend this course. It was a questionnaire regarding the frequency, quality, and desired outcomes of mentoring. The county could take measures based on the feedback from the newly qualified teachers, such as calling the school or sending a team to the location to further develop a mentoring program. This was a connection from the new teachers straight to the county. Two notes of importance, County B did not provide additional funding for schools with new teachers as did County A. However, the University Professor disclosed recently that County B financed the schools that would like to send their teachers to the University mentor education courses.

One of the requirements of going to the Enhanced Teacher Education was that the new teachers were supposed to receive mentoring back at their own school.

> *So we have supported the school, we have told the schools, "If you want to send your new teachers to this program, you also have to send some teachers to another, no some other people, to another course that we are offering which are for the mentors" So we have a teacher course, and we also have a mentor course. (CB, 2014)*

This quote illustrates that mentoring should not necessarily be done by another teacher at the school. In the past school leaders have taken the mentoring course that the county offers. A school leader as a mentor could present an unequal relationship between the mentor and new teacher. The participant has indicated a shift in her priorities however, trying to encourage more teachers to take the mentoring course.

4.3.2 Mentoring and the Roles at the Institutional Level

Mentoring is structured in School B based on the local desire to have a system in place for the new teachers. Previously the school leaders were also the mentors, and that was not working in the eyes of the school leadership and teachers. According to School Leadership B,

mentoring could be more effective when done with a mentor who is also a teacher to give a more equal relationship standing. School Leadership B offered Mentor B the opportunity to take the mentor education courses and become a mentor.

The main challenges of having a mentoring program according to School Leadership B were attributed to financing. As Mentor B had 20% of her work contract allotted to mentoring, her teaching hours had to be made up in other places. The same went for the newly qualified teachers who taught 95% of their contract. Another challenge noted was convincing the principal that this was an important area to the school, and prioritizing mentoring in the budget. In this case they found that it was important enough to rearrange their budget so that they could still have a system of mentoring involving a reduced workload for the mentor and newly qualified teachers.

The University Professor also has played a role in implementing mentoring in School B. The representatives at County B were not in contact with the University Professor like they were at County A. If there were schools in County B that would like help with developing a program, University Professor B extended her network through the mentors who took her courses.

> *Those who take the mentor education are the best ambassadors for building mentoring in the schools. (UP, 2015)*

Indeed in this case describes the cooperation between the University, School Leadership B, and Mentor B. Mentor B was the ambassador representing the school. They were able to work together and develop a system for mentoring with the school's resources. The mentor education courses from the University also played a role in influencing Mentor B's take on mentoring:

> *Knowing more what mentoring is. And I've been mentoring before because I've had my student teachers here. Oh my god I wasted their time. Because I didn't know what to do with them actually. Okay so, "This is what I teach, you are supposed to teach like this, do you have any problems?" But now it's more how you questions them, what you focus on. I feel more confident when I do this now. And then I notice about the methods, and I'm more sure where I want to go with this. (MB, 2014)*

This suggests a change in her perception of what being a mentor is, how to mentor, and her own self-confidence. Mentor B spoke very highly of her mentoring class experience and found it to be extremely useful in developing her role as a mentor.

There was no formal system to evaluate the mentoring program in School B for either the new teachers or the mentor. Evaluation was done through informal talks with the mentor and the new teachers. What School Leadership B explained was that there was an open door policy of communication where the new teachers or the mentor could express their thoughts about the mentoring program. What happened with mentoring in this school was not reported to any entity such as the county or any other governing body.

Compared to CB, School Leadership B had different intentions for mentoring. When discussing the main areas newly qualified teachers need support in, the School Leadership B noted the following:

- Support
- Assessment
- Classroom leadership
- Planning
- Clarifying goals and objectives
- Laws

She also described the first year for the new teachers.

> Lots of people, they almost kill themselves it's too much work. It's to avoid too much of this, and we have this expression in Norwegian, "Praxis shock" which means you have this shock of practice, or being in the classroom for the first time. (SLB, 2014)

Through this statement we see that she sees that new teachers are overwhelmed by the reality shock of teaching. Though some of the points listed above were also covered in ETE, the direction changed when SLB was questioned about what the outcomes should be by the end of the year. The benefits were listed in terms of the new teachers, mentors, and the school as a whole.

> For fresh teachers as I call them, I think they will be more secure. They have seen for themselves what's important, they also discover what they have to improve or develop further. (SLB, 2014)

Self-confidence was mentioned as well as reflective practice. SLB noted that through these they realize what they need to focus on professionally. She also stated that mentoring was in place for new teachers to develop. Phrases such as "practice" or "trying out different ways" came up quite frequently when she described what mentoring ought to be. Through practice and reflection the newly qualified teachers were to become more secure in themselves as professionals.

Another purpose of mentoring was to have a "culture" of mentors within the school. School Leadership B indicated that having mentoring would attract other experienced teachers to want to be mentors. Ultimately this would be beneficial for the school in the sense that the mentors would improve their own practice whilst helping to develop the school as an organization. Following this line she indicated that an area in which school could improve on in mentoring was recruiting more mentors with formal mentor education.

When discussing the needs and challenges of the Mentor B, School Leadership B brought up two main themes: scheduling and relationships. She described a situation in which the mentors and new teachers cannot match schedules for either meetings or observations. When describing the relationship challenge, she used a real life hypothetical example posed by the mentor:

> "So what about if there is a teacher that I'm supposed to mentor and then it doesn't work, what do I do?" she said. And of course you can talk on this on a general level and we'll probably understand or you can put it up as a problem. (SLB, 2014)

This would be a situation that conflicts with the privacy policy the school had with the teacher mentor relationships. The interactions between the mentors and teachers were supposed to be confidential in order to provide a safe, non-judgmental environment for the newly qualified teachers. Therefore it was perceived that mentors could either run into a conflict in schedule, or relationship difficulties.

4.3.3 Mentoring and the Role at the Instructional Level

Mentor B bore the majority of the responsibility for what actually took place in both the mentoring groups and individual mentoring. To begin this section, the role of the mentor and assumptions about learning will be presented by explaining the content of both the group and individual mentoring in School B. This offers a glimpse into what and how the mentoring curriculum is being presented to the newly qualified teachers.

Starting with the group mentoring, the topics were predetermined based on what was decided the NQTs need in their first year. Topics such as classroom management and assessment were examples of such. To discuss the content of a specific lesson, Mentor B gave an example of the PowerPoint presentation that she used during group mentoring. "How to have clear goals, objectives, for the sessions" (Mentor B, 2014), was the title of the session. The

Enhanced Teacher Education courses also tied into the mentoring sessions. Mentor B was aware of what happened in those sessions and they discussed them back at the school.

Also key to understanding the nature of mentoring is not just what is taught, but how it is taught. Mentor B emphasized discussion and practice in her mentoring groups. She recommended the teachers try out certain methods and discuss the experiences in the groups. Some other examples of methods she used in the group are as follows:

> *And I will also ask them to think about their teaching and whenever they feel that they are uncomfortable in the classroom, they should try to describe it. (MB, 2014)*

> *Then we should take a round in this group and figure out how to solve this problem. How we can help each other? (MB, 2014)*

Lectures, description, reflection, and discussion were different methods in which the mentoring curriculum was delivered to the newly qualified teachers. Presentations and content regarding management and assessment were strategies that helped to structure the content for Mentor B while discussions, group interactions, and reflections could be more seen as a more organic means of creating knowledge.

Individual mentoring between the mentor and newly qualified teachers occurred through observations and meetings. The observations were booked based on convenience and scheduling. During the observations the NQT would give the mentor an area of focus in which he or she would like Mentor B to look at. After the observation Mentor B would give feedback on these specific areas in which the NQT requested. In the case of a meeting without an observation, Mentor B gave the NQTs the opportunity to decide what they would like to discuss. Mentor B gave feedback to the NQTs through observations. As she stated her position on commenting on their practice:

> *Something regarding their teaching? Then we have to agree on it. I can only observe and give them a summary of my observations. Hopefully they will find something that they want to change but I can't tell them "Oh you can't do that" or "Oh you can't teach that way" I would never do that. (MB, 2014)*

These meetings did not take one position or another on what the new teachers needed to learn, rather they emphasized a discussion based on the needs of the NQTs. Some of the positive experiences Mentor B had help to explain her role. Mentoring provided Mentor B with opportunities to improve her own practice as well.

She felt that since she has become a mentor she was more reflective on her own practice, which in turn made her a better teacher.

I'm more focused on my teaching actually. Because I talk about it all the time. And they are coming to observe me so I have to have focus. But I've done this for many years so I don't find it very hard actually to come up with methods because usually when I get in the classroom I start the session. But now I'm very focused on how to start and how to end because I discuss it, procedures good classroom teaching. So I'm quite aware of it. So I think it actually makes me more efficient. (MB, 2014)

By modeling teaching through observations, Mentor B incorporated the strategies she used with the newly qualified teachers. This was a means to be more aware about her own teaching. Mentor B also felt that mentoring gave her the opportunity to learn more about herself and the field in which she works.

I learn so much about myself, about my profession, as a teacher. It's quite helpful. (MB, 2014).

Aside from the noted benefits, mentoring provided Mentor B with the chance to work with mentoring as a profession within a profession. Before mentoring she was burnt out with teaching, or "bored" (Mentor B, 2014), in her words. With mentoring she indicated she had the opportunity to move up in the career ladder while still teaching in the classroom.

Continuing the conversation, Mentor B explained what she felt mentoring should accomplish. According to Mentor B mentoring should provide a forum where new teachers:

- Challenge themselves
- Can come to common understandings
- Reflect on their practice
- Self Improve

All of this should be done in a safe environment for the new teachers. From this standpoint mentoring is heavily framed in terms of goals for the new teachers. Each of these places the newly qualified teacher as the center of learning in terms of what to learn and how.

But mentoring should be something else, it should be about relations, it should be about how you want to improve as a teacher. (MB, 2014)

Everything is part of keeping the teachers in the classroom. By urging them to challenge themselves to become better teachers and providing them a safe environment. (MB, 2014)

Mentor B explained that mentoring also should keep the teachers in the profession. Providing a safe environment and having the new teachers challenge themselves seems to be the way to

retain new teachers. Mentoring should also serve as a means to recruit teachers to their school.

> *And I also think as competing schools they would choose our schools because we can provide a program like this. And I know that they talk about it, when they meet with colleagues at other schools, "Oh at … we have a mentoring program. What do you have? We don't have anything." (MB, 2014)*

Thus mentoring should serve the school with the means of lower teacher turnover rates and be a more attractive workplace for potential hires.

Although the Mentor B's main mentoring goals were centered on the new teachers, she also explained that mentoring could be a benefit to the mentors as well. She viewed mentoring as a way that could also retain experienced teachers within the school system by providing an alternative step in the career ladder.

> *We have to make this a different profession within the school system. This is also a way out of boredom. Because I think most teachers do get very bored around seven to eight years. Because the first years are like, "Oh my god this awful" I don't think I can survive. But then you get the hang of it. Then it's becoming sort of not so challenging anymore and you have to find something else. I think my goal will be to keep them in the classroom.*

> *Usually within a huge company you can move to another department, find something else to do. But here there's nothing. You can move to another school but it's the same job. (MB, 2014)*

In this case being a mentor was seen as a profession within the profession as well as a benefit to experienced teachers who need a change in their career direction.

Part of understanding the nature of Mentoring Program B is knowing the perceived challenges of the new teachers. Mentor B felt that the newly qualified teachers have their main challenges in four different areas: Classroom management, student relationships, assessment, and teaching methods. Mentor B placed a higher importance on management and student relationships as illustrated by the following quotes.

> *Assessment in situations and methods that's secondary, where actually it's very important for them. How to manage the class, what to do and how to do it. (MB, 2014)*

> *And also because they are so afraid of being exposed, that the students should think that they can't teach their subjects good enough. They will ask questions that they can't answer. So they're so concerned about the subject and they forget about the relation. How to relate to students. A lot happened with that. Because am I supposed to be a social worker here? Yeah you have to be that as well, because if you're not taking care of them, making the students feel safe, then you're not able to teach them anything. (MB, 2014)*

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The new teachers' confidence was seen as something that needs to be developed in order to have the foundation for student relationships. Cultivating the new teachers' self image relates to personal development. Mentor B felt that new teachers struggle more with student relationships in relation to classroom management, and self-confidence over some of the more technical issues such as content delivery or assessment.

The personal challenges Mentor B discussed were broken down into several themes. The first of which relates to the work environment. Time, scheduling and workload were all issues Mentor B was balancing. Apart from having scheduling difficulties, Mentor B felt that there was not enough time to accomplish everything she needed to.

> *I'm fully booked. And it's way too much. (MB, 2014)*

Her workload increased from her previous schedule when she was a full time teacher. The lack of time to meet, observe, and schedule appointments also constrained her work performance. The other theme related to her self-perception as a mentor. As there were no formal methods of evaluation, it left Mentor B with some doubts on her practice.

> *To ask the right questions. Do I help them? Do they have any progression here? Do they feel that they evolve as a teacher? Do they become better? I don't know. (MB, 2014)*

> *The content actually, am I good enough as a mentor? I think that's quite challenging. (MB, 2014)*

These two quotes evidence two areas. Finding a way to ensure that the new teachers are improving, and developing her security in practice. Systems were in place to evaluate student progress, but nothing was in place to evaluate the new teachers' progress, nor the work of the mentor. This is also shown through the following comment when she describes her situation where she has nobody to discuss her practice with.

> *The thing is that I'm the only one here, and I can't discuss colleagues with other colleagues. So who should I talk to? So I need someone else feeling the same problem, challenges, so we can discuss. "Oh I have this teacher…What do you suggest I do?" A psychiatrist would do that with other psychiatrists. A shrink would do that, they would do that. They would also meet up with the same profession for discussions. (MB, 2014)*

Due to the confidential mentoring environment in School B, Mentor B had nobody to turn to about the challenges she faced.

Continuing the discussion of the evaluations of the mentoring practices with Mentor B, she further explained her dilemma:

> *I don't (get feedback) because that's something I'm planning. There are only eight of them and trying to make them do this anonymously, that is going to be a challenge. I don't know actually how to do that but I need feedback. What do they want more of? What do they want me to not focus on? So I don't know.*
>
> *Hopefully they would talk to their bosses and they could give me their feedback. But so far only positive, I guess I am doing something they way they want it to be. I've asked them, there were four of them and they talked to their newly qualified teachers and then they can give me feedback on that. (MB, 2014)*

Feedback on Mentor B's practice had to be given informally through conversation with the NQT, or informally from the NQTs to the school leaders, and then back to Mentor B.

4.3.4 The Experiences of the Newly Qualified Teachers

Table 4.3: School B: New Teacher Background Information

Participant	Gender	Position	Degree	Years Teaching	Subjects Taught
Teacher B1 (TB1)	Male	Newly qualified teacher	Master's chemistry PPU	1st Year	Chemistry, mathematics, natural sciences
Teacher B2 (TB2)	Female	Newly qualified teacher	Master's English, social sciences (in progress) PPU	1st Year	English, social sciences

There were two newly qualified teachers interviewed, Teacher B1 and Teacher B2. Teacher B1 taught 95% of his 100% contract, while the other five percent was used towards mentoring. He taught math, chemistry, and the natural sciences. Teacher B1 had a master's in chemistry and completed the PPU teacher education program. Teacher B2 was teaching upper secondary English and the social sciences for her first year. She was working on finishing her master's degree in the aforementioned areas, but had completed her PPU student teaching period. She worked on a 43% contract while finishing her degree.

Teacher B1

At the beginning of the interview, Teacher B1 described his teacher education program as being too theoretical and not practical enough. Teacher B1 wanted more practical strategies to be able to incorporate into his practice.

What he felt was he needed more of falls into the following categories:

- Practical classroom experience
- Norwegian law
- Assessment
- Lesson planning

However, Teacher B1 felt that the student teaching period was very useful, as he could apply the knowledge he had been learning. Teacher B1 would have liked more time in the field, however. From the descriptions of the interviewee, the student teaching experiences helped him to develop as a more confident teacher, but overall the program left some gaps in practical knowledge.

Teacher B1 indicated that he had a strong grasp of his subject material. He was confident in math and chemistry. He also expressed that one of his strong points is being a class leader. He made himself clear to the students so that they understand their role in the classroom. He asserted that he was a fair teacher and he treated his students justly. As the interview went further, Teacher B1 highlighted three main points about what he found difficult with teaching:

- Implementing varied lesson plans
- Motivating students
- Incorporating theory into practice

Teacher B1 attended the Enhanced Teacher Education courses on top of mentoring in the school. He found it to be helpful as it bridged the gap between theory and practice, whereas in the university it was hard to comprehend. He also had weekly meetings with the other teachers in his department. This was where he found the opportunity to ask subject related questions. Teacher B1 and Mentor B did not share the same teaching subject, yet Teacher B1 did not find having a mentor without his subject to be a disadvantage because he was confident that he was supported within the school system.

Teacher B1 expressed that mentoring, individually and in the group, was useful. The areas most valuable to him were in assessment, classroom management, and direct feedback. This can partially explain why he was so keen on observations as a part of mentoring. Both he and Mentor B had observed each other on multiple occasions. Teacher B1 enjoyed the aspects of getting feedback that he was able to apply in later lessons. The observations were organized

in a way in which the new teachers gave Mentor B the background on what they would like her to observe. Then she commented only based on the areas of focus, which were decided by the NQT. This way the new teachers led the observations. He also found observing as a way of confirming his practice. This was how Teacher B1 responded when questioned about the benefits of observing his mentor:

> *Well tricks about how to keep your class silent, or structured maybe. How to get a good start to the lesson, a good ending. Just tips. Maybe just get relaxed, maybe get a feeling about okay, the students are on facebook and they are lessons too in a way. Just get confident that you are not all over the place, that you're on the right track in a way. (TB1, 2014)*

While observing other classes Teacher B1 was able to pick up strategies that he could use in his own class. The way Teacher B1 utilized these observations were in line with his perspective of mentoring. He utilized his mentor and the strategies they discussed to incorporate into his own practice. They also served as a means to reassure Teacher B1 that the day-to-day happenings in the classroom, such as distracted students, are everyday occurrences and happen even with expert teachers. In mentoring's ideal form, Teacher B1 felt that the purpose of mentoring should be focused around what he referred to as "tips" and "tricks."

> *Well tricks about how to keep your class silent, or structured maybe. How to get a good start to the lesson, a good ending. Just tips. (TB1, 2014)*

Although Teacher B1 expressed his belief that mentoring should be flexible according to the teachers' needs, his responses regarding the purpose of mentoring and what it should accomplish were mostly directed towards tips and tricks. Assessment, feedback, organizational skills were all tasks he described. That said, Teacher B1 also viewed mentoring as a means to give the new teacher confidence. In response to what mentoring should accomplish he explained:

> *Of course I would hope to feel much more confident in that I did give the best feedback to my students, I did give the most accurate grades. I did kind of my duty as a teacher in a way. Because everything besides that, that you have a very good lesson, very good didactic way of acting, I think that's maybe a more process of when you get more experience. In the first year it's more about getting set that you do follow up what you need to follow up. (TB1, 2014)*

Teacher B1 wanted mentoring to help him feel more confident in the classroom so that he performed his role to the best of his abilities. He wanted to be sure that his students were treated fairly. He went on to tell that mentoring should give the structures to be able to competently pursue and assess the necessities of teaching independently.

Teacher B1 noted some salient effects of having mentoring. The first was the "tips and tricks" in the classroom. He gave an example of how he used tips from mentoring to make the beginning of his lessons to be clearer to the students. The second was about reflection. Teacher B1 expressed that mentoring helped him to become more reflective about teaching.

Teacher B1 felt that mentoring was well balanced. With the five percent reduction of teaching in his schedule, it wasn't overbearing. When talking about what he would change about the program, he discussed the observations as follows:

> *Then she could say, "I saw you do that and that...Why did you do that?" and follow up on it. Maybe see a little bit more of the progression during the year or month." specific things you could improve. (TB1, 2014)*

Overall, Teacher B1 felt very confident as a first year teacher and found mentoring to be very useful.

Teacher B2

As previously mentioned, Teacher B2 worked on a 43% contract while she finished her master's degree. However, it is important to note that she was not allotted the five percent mentoring time in her contract as Teacher B1 had. She was simultaneously finishing her master's degree and teaching 43%.

Like Teacher B1, Teacher B2 indicated her teacher education program was too theoretical. As Teacher B2 elaborated:

> *I think both I and most of my fellow students were a bit, at times a bit unhappy with the program. Because it's always been criticized for being so theoretical and not very practice specific. So I felt that I needed to know more about what is was like in real life and not just big learning theories and stuff. (TB2, 2015)*

She left with a desire for more practical experience as the program centered too much on vague theories rather than application. Teacher B2 also desired more subject specific strategies to use in class. There were aspects of the teacher education program that were useful to her as well. Teacher B2 explained that the student teaching period was able to give her the sense of being a teacher. She was placed in a classroom relevant to her studies and age she wanted to teach. It was during this phase she was able to practically apply the theory she learned in her program.

One of Teacher B2's self reported strengths was with student rapport. Teacher B2 was able to build strong relationships with her students in a caring manner. She also cited feedback given to her to justify another strong point. From the feedback she received she was well organized and structured in her lessons. In the classroom, Teacher B2 had difficulties with grading, not just with the grades themselves, but with some of the more philosophical issues surrounding the process.

> I always feel that assessment is challenging. Knowing which grade to give them. And at this school there is always this question about whether or not we should give them grades at all or do we just give them feedback or the grade as well. (TB2, 2015)

Here Teacher B2 was deliberating between the value of grades and feedback, and wondering if there was a superior form to use. Classroom management was another area that Teacher B2 struggled with. These perceived weaknesses echo some of the anecdotes about her teacher education experiences. As the programs lacked in practical experience, she felt unsure of teaching in the classroom.

Although Teacher B2 did not have time written into her work contract for mentoring, she did attend the Enhanced Teacher Education courses from County B. Teacher B2 was a little less enthusiastic about Enhanced Teacher Education than Teacher B1. She claimed it had its ups and downs, ranging from "uninteresting" to "good." In School B's mentoring program, Teacher B2 shared the same subject as Mentor B and found it to be advantageous, as the other new teachers did not share the same subject. There was an open door policy from Mentor B and both of the new teachers mentioned that they felt like they could go to someone if they had a problem at any time.

Teacher B2 found that mentoring gave her useful "tools" that she was able to use, such as in the areas of assessment, classroom management, and how to begin a lesson. Yet she also explained that mentoring also helped to make her feel supported in the school.

> Mentoring is very important I think. Just giving teachers a feeling of not being alone, or not failing. Just let them know that the problems they're facing are normal and give them different solutions with how to deal with those problems. (TB2, 2015)

> I feel that teaching is easier when I have the support of my mentor. (TB2, 2015)

The support Teacher B2 received from Mentor B clearly impacted her experiences of teaching. She felt safe and more able to deal with challenges knowing that she had a support person to whom she could turn.

Mentoring provided a safety net for Teacher B2 with the reassurance of her colleagues. This also reinforces what was previously mentioned about Mentor B not offering just one solution that the new teachers should try, instead there were options that the new teachers were able to discuss and implement themselves.

Teacher B2 also felt that mentoring should help with the teaching strategies. Teacher B2 explained that mentoring should focus on some of the same areas she struggles with, such as assessment and classroom management. Student relations were another area that Teacher B2 mentioned. She expressed a challenge that she had was with dealing with students who were not satisfied with their grades. Teacher B2 also felt that mentoring should offer support for the new teachers.

> *It should have given the new teachers the feeling of not being alone in this situation that show up or the challenges that they face that you know that you have someone else at the school that you can talk to. (TB2, 2015)*

In its ideal form, Teacher B2 would have liked a combination of tips and tricks and emotional support in mentoring.

Teacher B2 faced some challenges in her first year. She was burdened by the workload. Although she only had a 43% work contract, she was still extremely busy. She did not always feel that mentoring took precedence over her other work obligations. Teacher B2 described her perceptions in the following statements:

> *Just a time problem. As I told you I'm studying full time, writing my master's degree and then I'm working 43%, then I sometimes feel that mentoring is just an additional obligation. Just something I have to show up to. (TB2, 2015)*

> *But sometimes it feels like I could have a little less mentoring, because I'm so busy, that's all. Yeah I know that it's not entirely unnecessary but sometimes it feels like it. I want to focus on planning my teaching, my sessions, and writing my feedback. And I always have to run to these different meetings sometimes. (TB2, 2015)*

Teacher B2 did not always prioritize her mentoring responsibilities over her other teaching responsibilities. Time was clearly an issue in this case, but there was also an implication of value in these statements. Teacher B2 expressed her feelings that mentoring was important,

but not perhaps as important as planning, grading, and other work commitments. As Teacher B2 did not have a full-time contract, the time for mentoring was not written into her schedule and she took additional personal time for mentoring.

Since the main form of mentoring took place in the group at School B, Teacher B2 found it difficult to talk about the specific problems that she faced. She explained that she had not been able to discuss the most difficult challenge she encounters at work.

> *Of course since it's in a group we don't always talk about the things that I might find that I need to talk about. For instance I have been given more work here at this school as, like a special teacher to support. I have two different students with special challenges and none of the other new teachers have that. And I have challenges with how to plan the teaching for instance with a boy who doesn't want to speak, doesn't want to write, doesn't want to read. That is probably what I find the most difficult here, but that is something that we haven't discussed at all in the mentoring. And I understand that of course because the other teachers don't do this kind of teaching. I do, but that is something I'm missing. (TB2, 2015)*

Even with the open door policy that the mentor had, Teacher B2 was not able to appropriately talk about one of her biggest challenges. On top of this, Teacher B2 would have liked more observations, but for different reasons that TB1. Teacher B2 related observations to another area of difficulty she faced. Job security.

> *So that's it, I would be very happy if I could be observed more and given more feedback. Because I'm searching a job here because I'm just here for a restricted period of time, so I'm applying for a job here, and I don't know how they are going to decide if they are going to keep me here or not. Because they haven't really seen what I'm like in the classroom. (TB2, 2015)*

Teacher B2 enjoyed teaching and wanted to stay in the profession, but she wasn't able to discuss the future of her job position. Teacher B2 would have liked to continue working at this school, but it was unclear to her how and if she is going to stay. With more feedback from observations she felt the school would have a better image of her performance and therefore would be more likely to rehire her for the following school year

5 Discussion

The goals of this study were to explore the teacher mentoring programs in Counties A and B by examining and comparing nature of the programs, how they were implemented, and understanding the experiences of the new teachers involved. This section asserts that the teacher mentoring programs in the two schools vary, largely by the support of the counties. The experiences of the newly qualified teachers also differed between schools and individuals. The discussion analyzes the data collected from the field in light of the conceptual frameworks of the study combined with the relevant literature on the topics.

5.1 What is the Nature of the Teacher Mentoring Programs?

5.1.1 Program A

Wang and Odell's (2002) conceptions of teacher mentoring programs were used to uncover the nature of the teacher mentoring programs. This was determined by comparing the goals, content, perceived challenges of new teachers, organization, the role of the mentor, methods, and experiences involved within these programs.

The goals of the program were fairly well aligned between the County A, the University, the vice principal, mentor, and newly qualified teachers of School A. The goals of County A sought to induct new teachers into the profession as well as to supply a means of site based professional development within the school. The school owners in County A felt that having confident new teachers by the end of the year of school was an important aspect of mentoring. Teacher induction, retention and confidence are the end goals of humanistic mentoring programs (Wang & Odell, 2002).

School Leadership A felt that new teachers were overwhelmed by the workload of the first year. Thus according to School Leadership A, strategies should be used to encourage workload management and personal development. Beyond School Leadership A's comments on what mentoring should and does accomplish, she explained the challenge of showing the new teachers the importance of mentoring beyond practical skills. These comments of the

new teachers' challenges gives more evidence to support what is important in her eyes. SLA felt that skills such as grading are valuable, but how the teachers develop in their terms is of higher importance. Further supporting this was her view that the program should last over the course of two to three years. A new teacher needs time to develop into a professional and it is not something that can be learned through skills development.

Mentor A felt that reflection should be encouraged as well as the teacher's confidence. She highlighted her own experiences and used observation strategies to show new teachers that everyone has good and bad days, in an attempt to the bolster new teachers' confidence. If Mentor A had different goals of mentoring, she could use observations in another manner which could showcase teaching techniques, or classroom management. The latter example is used to contrast that mentoring at the instructional level is based on a humanistic foundation as opposed to an entirely sociocultural one. Furthermore, Mentor A also explained the challenge of the fine line between giving advice, whilst not judging, and helping to develop the confidence of the new teachers.

The challenges of the novice teachers were seen to be overcoming the hardships of the first year of teaching in County A. Thus, the overall focus of the program emphasized reflection and personal development with themes and topics chosen by the new teachers. This learner-centered focus highlights a humanistic oriented approach to mentoring. The new teachers collaborate with the mentor to decide what their needs are, rather than having pre-chosen and scheduled lectures. As Wang and Odell (2002) explained the teacher centered assumptions of humanistic programs:

> *Thus it is assumed that by placing the learner at the center and paying attention to the development of self-esteem, it is possible to enhance the learning of specific content as well as personal development. (p.493)*

The mentors were selected based on previous experiences with student teachers and how they work with others. Mentor A had interpersonal skills and was in-tune with the newly qualified teachers' needs. She checked up on the new teachers and initiated meetings if necessary. The agreement that the mentors are not to evaluate the NQTs is revealing. It was set up in a way to put minimal pressure on the new teachers so that they do not feel the additional stresses of constantly being evaluated. The role of the mentor in this case was what Feiman-Nemser and Parker (1992) categorized an educational companion. Someone who works with new teachers and utilizes reflection to help the new teachers develop.

More evidence to support this conclusion goes to how the programs were evaluated. The surveys were sent out to the new teachers, and success was determined by the new teachers' satisfaction. The reduced workload time was a priority of both the administration of the school and the county, indicating that the problems new teachers faced were related to their workload. As such the time off of teaching was seen as a buffer to reduce the reality shock of the first year. The new teachers were seen to be burdened by the workload of the first year and needed a means to reduce their stresses.

Based on the evidence from the data collection, and the framework from Wang and Odell, the mentoring program in School A was predominantly humanistic in nature. Although the perspectives of the teacher mentoring programs are not entirely separable, and this program does contain elements of other perspectives, the majority of the data supports a humanistic mentoring program. Further, according to Wang and Odell (2002), humanistic programs such as the one in School A can reach their goals if they are aligned between stakeholders. From County A down to the new teachers, the expectations of mentoring are quite similar. This has implications that the newly qualified teachers will be more likely to remain in the profession in a mentoring program such as this. Confirmation of this came from the experiences of the new teachers. They reported that they felt supported and remarked that one of the benefits for having mentoring included time for reflection. In spite of this, they still sought out more practical skills they could implement.

5.1.2 Program B

The goals of the mentoring curriculum in County B, from the County down to the school level, varied drastically from County A. In County B mentoring appeared to address the issues that the teacher education programs did not. From its title, "Enhanced Teacher Education" to the content of the curriculum, it sought to equip the new teachers with the necessary skills to succeed in the profession. County B's interview revealed that teaching or teaching theory was something that "works." This statement is in line with a philosophy of mentoring that posits that new teachers have certain skills and abilities they need to learn in order to be teachers. The challenges of the new teachers were more concerning acquirable skills than socio-emotional support.

In describing one of the primary motivating factors of the situated apprentice movement in teacher mentoring, Wang and Odell (2002) explain:

> *First, formal teacher education coursework was criticized as having little influence on novice teachers' conceptions and practice of teaching; instead, novices' beliefs, attitudes, and practices were strongly influenced by their apprenticeship of observation. (p. 495)*

Furthermore, one of the reasons CB attributed to the formation of the mentoring programs was the criticism the teacher education programs in Norway. County B viewed mentoring mainly in a situated apprentice perspective, however there was a competing vision of what mentoring should be at the institutional level.

School Leadership B stated that areas such as assessment and classroom leadership are important components of what a new teacher should know, but she also placed an emphasis on support and the reality shock of teaching. The school's privacy policy supported this agenda by keeping what happens between the mentor and the newly qualified teachers anonymous. School Leadership B also stated that new teachers should make their own path into teaching, not follow one already treaded upon. School Leadership B brought up discovery and self-reflection as some of the intended outcomes of mentoring. Since the emotional well being of new teachers is a key component of humanistic perspectives (Wang & Odell, 2002), the majority of School Leadership B's statements on mentoring suggested that mentoring takes a humanistic oriented approach.

Mentor B expressed similar views with School Leadership B in this regard, remarking that she dedicated a large portion of her time to supporting the newly qualified teachers. Mentor B's statements about how mentoring helped her as a professional also allude to her assumptions about learning. Specifically, Mentor B explained that the opportunity to mentor has helped her improve her own professionalism as a teacher. Being a mentor helped Mentor B to focus on methods and afforded her time to consider how she both teaches and mentors. She stated that she perceived there was an equal standing between her and the new teachers.

However, the group mentoring sessions were structured in a way that attempted to address the newly qualified teachers' needs in a more linear fashion. The subjects were predetermined by the mentor according to the perceived challenges the new teachers faced. Enhanced Teacher Education also found its way into the lectures, and had an influence on the discussions in the group.

The group curriculum and Enhanced Teacher Education courses focused mainly on the practices where the teacher mentor, or lecturer, was viewed as an expert. Information presented to the new teachers in this way risks passive acceptance of the new information (Franke & Dahlgren, 1996). Individually however, Mentor B took a very learner centered approach with the new teachers. She described her belief that mentoring should be a safe space for the NQTs to try and develop their confidence so that they will improve as teachers. The discussions were guided by the topics the new teachers wanted to reflect upon and discuss.

Based upon the data presented, the mentoring program in County B was composed of a mixture of situated apprentice and humanistic oriented views. The societal level, or the county involvement, reveals a mentoring program dominated by the situated apprentice perspective. As Wang and Odell (2002) elaborate:

> *The situated apprentice perspective also assumes that the problem of novices' learning to teach is directly related to their lack of practical knowledge, including the contextualized and event-structured knowledge about classroom instruction that marks the important qualitative difference between novice and expert teachers. (p. 495)*

The structure and content of the Enhanced Teacher Education program paralleled this perspective. More humanistic-oriented views emerged from Mentor B and School Leadership B, but the program itself was a combination of structured lectures and personal support. Since the group mentoring was the more formal and scheduled program, the dominant orientation appeared to be the situated apprentice perspective. The implications of this mirror that of other situated apprentice type programs, improvement in the main content areas: classroom management, routines, and assessment (Wang & Odell, 2002) for the new teachers.

Table 6.1: The Nature of Mentoring Program A

The Nature of Mentoring Program A	
Assumptions of Learning	Predominately humanistic, learner centered
Challenges of the Newly Qualified Teachers	Reality shock, workload
Goals of Mentoring	Develop as a professional, teacher retention, managing workload, instill confidence
Role of the Mentor	Position of equal standing, educational companion
Mentor Education Program Focus	Support, reflection, schools routines
Measures of Assessment	NQT surveys to County A, informal feedback/discussions

Table 6.1.1: The Nature of Mentoring Program B

The Nature of Mentoring Program B	
Assumptions of Learning	Situated learning, apprenticeship; Situated learning/humanism
Challenges of the Newly Qualified Teachers	Lack of practical knowledge, classroom instruction, poor teacher education; **Reality shock, confidence, classroom management**
Goals of Mentoring	Learn relevant knowledge, teach policies, share methods, solve immediate problems, pass on skills; **Support, reflection, self improvement, ease into profession**
Role of the Mentor	Expert; **Guide, teacher**
Mentor Education Program Focus	Knowledge, skills, how to use resources and contexts; **Reflection, self-improvement, further education, classroom management, "tips and tricks"**
Measures of Assessment	Survey; **Informal conversational feedback**

Tables 6.1 and 6.1.1 highlight the main similarities and differences between the mentoring programs in each county. Table 6.1.1 shows the similarities and differences between County B's intentions and School B's program. Data from County B and the Enhanced Teacher Education program is on the left, and School B is on the right in bold. As the table shows, there was a strong contrast between the intentions and ideological mentoring curriculum of County B and the operational mentoring program in School B.

It is also interesting to note is that the critical constructivist perspective did not appear strongly in either mentoring program. The programs predominantly consisted of elements of humanistic and situated apprentice perspectives, which highlight personal support and skills that are assumed that new teachers need. Social justice, equity, and transformative reform were not discussed in any of the discussions with the participants. Nor was it in the wording of any of the texts reviewed. Critical constructivist mentoring programs usually take place in highly diverse neighborhoods with the aim of transforming education for equitable purposes (Wang & Odell, 2002). It is probable that due to the small sample size and demographics of the schools, this perspective was not apparent.

5.2 What Role do the Counties, and Other Stakeholders, Play in the Implementation of the Mentoring Programs?

Using Goodlad et al.'s (1979) framework to bind the case study, the implementation of mentoring on different levels (i.e. the societal, institutional, instructional) became visible. This section discusses the implementation processes of mentoring in light of the aforementioned framework.

5.2.1 County A-School A

Overall the influence of the county, or the societal level of decision-making, appeared quite large in terms of the development of mentoring in School A. County A played a key role in the active initiation and participation of the mentoring program. To begin, County A initiated the teacher mentoring program in School A by approaching the school and working out a plan. By rolling out the implementation on a smaller scale, it has the chance to make the change more "manageable" (Fullan, 2007, p. 91). County A also played an important role of utilizing both pressure and support to the school. One example is the mentoring evaluation forms, for which the continuation of mentoring funding is dependent. They also recommended and financed a reduced workload for first year teachers. Another example of support that County A provided is the mentoring networking forums that the mentors attend. These were professional development opportunities that provided a system of consistent support for the mentors. Mentor A's explanations of how her workload felt unchanged underscores the benefits of sharing the responsibility of mentoring amongst others. In this sense the county played a role supporting mentoring, but did not influence the content in School A. From here Goodlad (1979) explained the next step in curriculum implementation: "School personnel must interpret or translate the more general societal decisions into more specific curricular meaning" (p. 34).

At the institutional level, there were two key players in translating these decisions and shaping the mentoring program. SLA helped develop the program by working with the mentors at the school as well as took input from the University. She also selected the mentors. However, there were no evaluations of the mentors, which left little room for feedback for the mentors. In this school the newly qualified teachers are allotted a 10%

reduction time in their workload the first year, which is more than the six percent that the county recommends. This signifies the ownership (Fullan, 2007) that School A took over mentoring. UP also played a large role helping to develop the mentoring program. According to SLA, the mentoring program was developed with the mentors who took the mentor education courses at the University. The teachings from the courses helped to organize the structure of the program, as well as what takes place. Mentor A was open in describing the influence of the mentoring courses on her practice, which signifies the role of the University and formal mentoring curriculum when it comes to the implementation of mentoring. The institutional level played a significant role in terms of the organization of mentoring as well as influencing what mentoring curriculum occurs.

At the next level of implementation, the instructional level, Mentor A was responsible for delivering mentoring to the newly qualified teachers. Apart from helping to design the program, the mentors have organized both group and individual meetings. Mentor A was also proactive in setting up individual meetings with the NQTs, which were not formally scheduled. What is interesting about the data from Mentor A is that she stated she did not feel as if her workload was overbearing, which was a challenge associated with mentoring programs (Simpson et al., 2007). This could be attributed to the support of the school leadership and the support from the county. The responsibility for mentoring was spread out amongst several key implementers, and creating the potential to avoid some of the difficulties associated with taking on the role as a mentor. From the bottom up approach from School A and coordination from County A and UP, the ideological, perceived, formal, operational, and experienced curricula were all relatively consistent.

5.2.2 County B-School B

In terms of the development of mentoring related to School B, County B had the most influence on School B in terms of the Enhanced Teacher Education program. There were no specific guidelines for the schools to implement mentoring in the schools, or in terms of who should be mentors. There was no real pressure or support coming from County B to ensure that mentoring is happening. Thus County B's role of implementing mentoring in School B came mainly from the off site teaching courses. This posed a problem for School B's mentoring program. There were two competing visions of what mentoring should be, and little communication between the school and the county.

Due to these competing visions and a lack of pressure and support, School B had to find other areas and resources to implement their program in the desired manner. School Leadership B found that one of the largest challenges with mentoring is a lack of funding. However, SLB placed a high value on mentoring, which helped to influence the amount of release time for the mentor and newly qualified teachers. SLB bargained within the school to get the funding allocated for mentoring within the school. How active SLB is in initiating and maintaining mentoring in School B was key to its survival.

The University was another resource that School B utilized, and it also played a significant role in Mentoring Program B. Mentor B attended all of the mentor education courses and explained how the University courses have changed her practice of mentoring. Mentor B adapted and translated the University mentoring curriculum into her own practice. For instance, Mentor B has changed her entire perspective on what mentoring should be and how to mentor. Before the University, Mentor B had a narrow perspective on how to mentor in which she felt she wasted their time in regards to the new teachers. In this case she would pass on her skills to the new teachers with little room for developing themselves, acting much like a coach (Garmston, 1987). After the course however, she implemented more reflection and discussion into the curriculum, and through this helped the new teachers find their own path into the profession. This shows an active change in both belief and behavior on Mentor B's end.

At the instructional level, Mentor B played two significant roles in the implementation of mentoring. She was in in charge of organizing the structure of mentoring within the school as well as having the role of the mentor. The content of the sessions was based on the school's objectives of assessment, research on what new teachers should know, Enhanced Teacher Education, and the new teachers' needs. Thus each level from the societal to the personal level had some form of impact on the mentoring curriculum. The societal through the discussions of Enhanced Teacher Education, the institutional based on the school's objectives and through the mentoring program, the instructional based on Mentor B's perspective and instruction, and the personal through feedback and discussion. The degree of influence on the curriculum varies however. Based on the data collected the University seems to have the a large influence in the mentoring structure, while the mentor herself makes the majority of the decisions related to the implementation of mentoring in School B.

Overall the differences between the implementation of the programs in Schools A and B can be related to district related guidelines regarding the organization of mentoring, content, time allotted to mentoring, and professional development structures. These findings are similar to what Grossman, Thompson, and Valencia (2001) found, that school districts were influential on the experiences those involved in mentoring:

> *The tasks they (the districts) assign to new teachers, the resources they provide, the learning environments they create, the assessments they design, and the conversations they provoke have consequences for what these first year teachers come to learn about teaching the language arts, and about teaching more generally. (p. 19)*

In this case the districts did influence the implementation of mentoring, especially in regards to resources, and depending on the district, content. The most active and influential level of implementation seemed to be the institutional level.

The comparison between School A and School B helps to highlight how the support of county, or lack thereof, can significantly influence the structure of mentoring. The future of mentoring was uncertain in School B, which ultimately depended on a bargaining process with the incoming principal. School A had more stability with their mentoring program based on the support of the county and the guidelines followed by the working group. This support influenced the organization, time, amount of mentors, offered professional development, and eased the workload for the new teachers and mentors. "The more factors supporting implementation, the more change in practice will be accomplished" (Fullan, 2007, p. 71).

The amount mentors of in School A divided the workload for the mentors and provided another factor in the implementation of mentoring. Mentoring in School A was a direct product of collaboration, interpretation, and process between County A, the University, School A, the mentors, and new teachers. School B did not have the same support of mentoring from County B, and was forced to take on a more active role at the institutional level to make up for those missing factors of funding and collaborative support that School A had. Although there was still a significant mentoring program in School B, but without other means of support the future of mentoring in School B was uncertain.

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5.3 What are the Experiences of the Newly Qualified Teachers?

This section discusses the experiences of the newly qualified teachers in the mentoring programs using situated learning theory to interpret their experiences.

5.3.1 School A

The experiences of the newly qualified teachers varied to some extent between schools and individuals. In School A, the newly qualified teachers had negative experiences in their student teaching field placement that seemed to influence their desires for the mentoring input. Teacher A1 began in School A after a disappointing student teaching experience. She was not able to actively participate in a school where she felt sidelined by being placed in a kindergarten. Here she was located on the periphery in the community where it acted as a barrier to her learning experience as opposed to enabling her.

Teacher A1's disposition towards learning was very practical. As Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2004) found, disposition, position, and status influenced the learning experiences of teachers in schools. Teacher A1's position as a math and science teacher was clear. What unfolded through the data was her desire for practical experiences. Even in her descriptions of her strengths of teaching, she broke them down into detail, describing each component of a lesson or concept. Her disposition towards learning was very structured. She explained that mentoring should lead to becoming "more professional" (TAl, 2014). Here there is a slight disconnect between the nature of the mentoring program, which is mainly humanistic, and the goals of the teacher, which seemed to be more practical. Teacher A1 has not observed any of the mentors at the time of the interview, nor has she been observed by anyone outside of her department. As mentors are the experts in the community, it would be expected that they take the appropriate steps to help the NQTs, or there may be another barrier imposed on NQT's access to full participation. Yet TA1 did not have an individual mentor with mentor education. Nor did she feel that her previous observations were useful.

Teacher A2 differed in disposition, position, and status from TA1. Her position was that of an English and Norwegian teacher, her status appeared similar, as a newly qualified teacher, but there was a marked difference. She had a sanctioned old-timer, or educated mentor, to guide

her in addition to of the group mentoring sessions. Her disposition towards learning was also different, as she expressed different ideals and methods of learning than TA1. She emphasized that mentoring should be about emotional and social support. TA1 and TA2 value mentoring differently, which perhaps influenced their mentoring experiences. For instance, TA2 and her mentor were active in setting up meetings and observations, which TA2 found very useful. This follows Hodkinson and Hodkinson's (2004) findings that the disposition of teachers shapes their learning experiences in communities of practice. The individual mentoring activities helped ease Teacher A2 into the school community by developing her professional confidence. The individual mentoring thus helped by confirming her practice. TA1 was less supportive of the strategies of the mentoring program and therefore was less actively involved.

Mentoring also helped both teachers to manage some of the smaller peripheral activities that eased them into the school community. The group mentoring covered broad general situations that were helpful, and these helped TA1 and TA2 to reflect on their practice. This suggests that these peripheral activities shaped the knowledge of the new teachers and how they understood the mentoring curriculum at the school. According to TA1 the group mentoring helped her to become more professional, or, in other words, usher her into full participation into the group. Teacher A2 applied the knowledge created in the mentoring group daily in her classroom. Although one aspect of the group mentoring served as a means of legitimate peripheral participation, there is another aspect of it, which affected Teacher A1 negatively. TA1 felt outside of the group since the discussions did not revolve around her subjects. As Lave and Wenger (1991) explained,

> *...legitimate peripherality can be a position at the articulation of related communities. In this sense, it can itself be a source of power or powerlessness, in affording or preventing articulation and interchange among communities of practice. (p. 36)*

As the odd one out in the group, Teacher A1's peripherality, or status in relation to the mentoring group also kept her on the edge. This is in contrast with Teacher A2's experience of the group mentoring, who felt that the general group mentoring provided a safe environment for learning and reflection. This also relates to what Hodkinson and Hodkinson claimed about how status influences learning experiences. As Teacher A1 did not feel 100% included in the group, it lowered her status and involvement in group mentoring. This could be addressed in part by the scheduling of observations by the mentoring groups.

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Other members in School A also had an effect on the new teachers' experiences, showing that situated learning took place in the school community. Teacher A2 stated that there were many levels of support she could go to, such as School Leadership A and other teachers. This exemplifies legitimate peripheral participation. The understanding school staff within a humanistic oriented mentoring program provided a safe zone in which TA2 could learn on many different levels. Her participation was integrated throughout the school community. Teacher A2 intends to stay in the teaching field now and the mentoring program can be considered a major factor in supporting this decision based on her interview statements and past experiences. This is a clear example of how the mentoring program achieved one of its stated goals of keeping a teacher in the profession. This transition has helped her enter her role as a teacher.

Teacher A1 gave her *fadder* as an example as another member in the school community. Through her *fadder* she was able to get immediate and direct feedback, which was more in line with her stated goals. She placed less value on the professionalism of the *fadder* than on the educated mentors, which was probably due to the fact that the *fadder* did not have any formal mentor education. Rather it worked as sort of a more situated apprentice type-mentoring model where TA1 could get immediate and direct feedback.

The findings from this study indicate that the mentoring program in School A helped shape the new teachers' experiences by providing a supportive, safe environment in which they could discuss and pursue their own professional identities. Yet the teachers' individual goals and viewpoints also mediated the effects of situated learning and helped to shape their mentoring experiences.

5.3.2 School B

The new teachers in School B were offered a combination of humanistic and situated apprentice types of mentoring. Although it was found that the situated apprentice enveloped a large portion of the program, Mentor B carried predominantly humanistic views in her goals, purposes, and individual mentoring structures.

Since situated learning take place through social practice, understandings of the workplace and learning are embedded within the historical context in which the participants are located

(Lave & Wenger, 1991). Based on Teacher B1's teacher education experiences and personal disposition, he desired more low intensity peripheral activities from his teacher education, which seemed to have shaped his needs as a first year teacher. For instance, TB1 felt weaker in the areas that could be acquired through practical experience, such as lesson planning student motivation. Teacher B2 started with a lack of confidence, but unlike some of the other new teachers, did student teach in a relevant subject and class. These were related to what they felt was weak about their respective teacher education programs, and in light of the framework it is argued that the context of their teacher education influenced their experiences and needs as first year teachers.

The teacher education experiences also served to frame the new teachers' disposition towards learning. Teacher B1 was very self-motivated and confident. From the explanations of his strengths, ideals, and desires, themes appeared throughout the interviews. He wanted mentoring to help him with the "tips and tricks" of teaching. Teacher B2 desired more emotional support, and appeared to be a little more introverted. She highlighted her strengths with relationships over content. She also wanted to learn helpful strategies like TB1, but emphasized the need of support. This was implied both directly and indirectly. For instance, the Enhanced Teacher Education program was geared to equip new teachers with the skills that the teacher education programs were not able to provide. Teacher B1 found this program to be more helpful than Teacher B2. In the case of Teacher B2, it showed that her style of learning was not in tune with the more rigid structure of the Enhanced Teacher Education program. It was clear that she was burdened by her workload and sought to ease it. The value she assigned to ETE was not necessarily as much as she assigned to free time. Teacher B1 however, desired more strategies and skills he can use and was much more enthusiastic about ETE. The situated apprentice orientation of the program helps with "task knowledge." As Lave and Wenger (1991) explained:

> *Notions like those of "intrinsic rewards" in empirical studies of apprenticeship focus quite narrowly on task knowledge and skill as the activities to be learned. Such knowledge is of course important; but a deeper sense of the value of participation to the community and the learner lies in becoming part of the community. (p. 111)*

Enhanced Teacher Education was seen as useful, but it depended on the teacher attending. It was not a means to advance the new teachers towards full participation, and could actually serve as a barrier to participation as in the case of teacher B2.

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The actual mentoring program in School B gave a combination of staff support and theory. The group lessons were structured in a way that were determined by the mentor, which the newly qualified teachers both found useful, but to different extents. The individual meetings were more directed by the newly qualified teachers, thus inherently more personalized. However, the frequency of the meetings was largely left in the hands of the NQTs. Scheduling was an issue. Teacher B1 was observed multiple times, and observed his mentor. He found the immediate feedback useful and was able to implement some of the strategies he learned. In this sense he was using the task knowledge as a means of participating, but perhaps not entirely in the legitimate sense. However, mentoring also helped Teacher B1 to build his confidence in his professionalism through observing other teachers. In terms of the participation in the school community, Teacher B1's use of other teachers and different departments showed his security in his position in the school. This also highlights that he was learning on various levels in the school environment. He learned through different arenas and felt safe to do so, which showed one way in which he was legitimately participating in the school's community of practice.

Teacher B2 had been observed, but had not found the time to observe other teachers. As the observations and individual group meetings in both schools were informal, this highlights a similarity with School A. Teacher A2 and Teacher B1 both appeared to view mentoring as more valuable than Teachers A1 and B2, and thus were proactive in setting up meetings. This in turn allowed them to reap the benefits of what they saw as valuable with mentoring, as influenced by their motivation.

Teacher B2 indicated that support was one of the main benefits of mentoring the within the school. This support extended into the school community, not just in the mentoring group. In this aspect, mentoring for TB2 paralleled that of TB1 as a means of legitimate peripheral participation within the school community. However, although Teacher B2 had reinforced Mentor B's statements that there was an open door policy if there was something that needed to be discussed, the topics in the group were pre-decided. As such, Teacher B2 did not feel that it was an appropriate venue to bring her concerns to the fore. As the individual mentoring was more informal and less frequent, she has not had the opportunity to discuss her biggest challenges one on one. Teacher B2 had a similar challenge to that of that Teacher A1; there was not a route to bring personalized issues into the group mentoring. Teacher B2 worked with students with special needs and had not discussed it either in the group mentoring or

individually with Mentor B. This hindered her development and casted some doubt about her place in the school.

Teacher B1 had time away from teaching each week so that he could spend the extra time on mentoring. Teacher B2 would have liked more time for planning, grading, and the other aspects of the teaching day. As the program had been determined as mainly situated apprentice, it does not entirely match with her social and support oriented disposition. The release time granted for mentoring eases Teacher B1's membership into the community, but the lack thereof simultaneously puts pressure on Teacher B2. Another explanation beyond sheer workload or incompatible learning styles comes from Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2004) who highlighted the position of a teacher, especially in regards to power relations, as influential in situated learning. Different relations in power lead to different employee experiences. Teacher B1 was a full time employee with access to the full benefits that a teacher receives at the school, including allocated time for mentoring, more time getting to know colleagues and staff, and learning the routines of the school. Teacher B2 was a 43% employee, felt overworked, and had not been able to utilize the resources in the same way. Teacher B2's insecurity about her job position for the following school year highlights this point. Although she would have liked to teach and have more observations, she did not have access to the resources in the same way that a full time employee would.

Overall, the mentoring program in School B offered activities that helped and hindered the newly qualified teachers' legitimate peripheral participation. The evidence from the experiences of the new teachers in School B confirms that the nature of the program is indeed in the category of situated apprentice, and the new teachers' learning experiences are similar to the outcomes discussed within the Wang and Odell's (2002) framework. Mentoring helps the new teachers to reflect and gives them helpful strategies, while providing a safety net, which helps allow them to participate in the community. The time off allocated for mentoring also appeared to helpful for the new teachers in both schools. However, some same strategies can be seen to hinder the experiences of the new teacher if what they see as important is not what mentoring is offering. Thus one should be cautious of large-scale general programs such as Enhanced Teacher Education, or even local mentoring, as they can have significant effects on the new teachers. Overall the teacher mentoring program in School B is seen as a way to help with lower level skills and social support, depending on the position of the new teacher.

6 Conclusion

The purposes of this study were to explore and compare the nature of two teacher mentoring programs, ascertain how key stakeholders influenced them, and understand the experiences of the newly qualified teachers in specific counties in Norway. A qualitative strategy was combined with a comparative case study to collect, compare, and contrast the findings in each county. The experiences of the new teachers were documented through their narratives during semi-structured interviews and interpreted through the lens of situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991), which facilitated the examination the experiences of the newly qualified teachers within the context of the mentoring programs.

The nature of the teacher mentoring programs was explored using Wang and Odell's (2002) teacher mentoring perspectives and guided by curriculum theory to examine the teacher mentoring programs in Counties A and B. These perspectives connected the philosophical foundations of mentoring programs to the goals, roles, and perceived challenges of the new teachers, including how they were assessed. Wang and Odell's teacher mentoring perspectives provided a framework that also helped to highlight the implications of the programs and under what circumstances they were successful. Since mentoring programs can offer a broad range of benefits or limitations (Hobson et al., 2009), comparing the nature of two different mentoring programs in Norway provides valuable insight into what is taking place, why it is taking place, and its implications.

This study revealed that the teacher mentoring programs differed between Schools A and B. Specifically, School A's program was predominantly humanistic in nature and School B was primarily situated-apprentice in its program orientation. Consistent with the limitations from humanistic mentoring programs (Wang & Odell, 2002), this study found that Program A's emphasis on support may not help with the practical skills the new teachers also need. As such, it may limit the new teachers who desire more practical skills due to a perceived gap in their teacher education or professional abilities. Similarly, School B's mentoring program indicated a degree of strength in its emotional support of the new teachers, but placed a bigger emphasis on classroom management and other strategies thought to be of use to the new teachers. The disparity between the goals of the county and the school could be partially explained by the differences between the ideological mentoring curriculum at the county and

the perceived, operational, and experienced curriculum at the school. In this situation, the new teachers expressed support of the program, but it served more to induct the new teachers into the existing school culture rather than to give them the opportunity to find their own way into the profession.

At the societal level, the counties differed in the areas of funding, goals, evaluation, communication, and professional development opportunities. The institutional level worked to organize, support, and develop the mentoring programs. The University Professor also played a significant role in mentoring implementation by utilizing the mentors as ambassadors to form a network within the schools. The comparison between the programs provided a necessary contrast to highlight the similarities and differences of the programs, and revealed how each stakeholder had an influence on the implementation of mentoring. The differences between the mentoring programs and roles of the stakeholders shaped how the programs were implemented, as well as the experiences of those involved.

Ulvik and Smith (2014) recommended that the responsibility for mentoring be shared amongst the policy makers, schools, and teacher education institutions. By contrasting the two schools and counties, the findings of this study support these recommendations. However as the data shows, sharing responsibility among stakeholders is just one step in the right direction. To make a sustainable change, other important factors include having clear communication from the societal level down to the personal and having agreement regarding how, what, and why mentoring should take place.

The new teachers' mentoring experiences were influenced by numerous factors, within and outside of the schools. Having time off for mentoring and reflection, and learning the school basics and lower level routines were some of the positive outcomes of having a mentoring program. Other factors shaped how the new teachers adjusted within the schools, including their position, their status, and their disposition towards teaching, validating similar findings by Youngs (2007). Those teachers with a disposition in line with the nature of the mentoring program were more optimistic and eager about mentoring. They were also more active in scheduling observations and more willing to improve their practice. Those whose dispositions were not aligned with the program's goals had less interaction with the veteran school staff. These findings confirm Hodkinson and Hodkinson's (2004) research on how teachers used their personal characteristics to navigate their way in the school community.

This study underscores that there are a multitude of factors to consider when organizing a mentoring program beyond what or why it is implemented.

In order for new teachers to become legitimate participants in the schools, a deeper meaningful experience is required for them, taking into consideration their individual characteristics. More specifically, this study shows that new teacher input is significant in guiding their experiences, including what they desire to learn, the content of the mentoring curriculum, and the aforementioned contextual factors, all of which have an influence on their perceptions of the program.

This study also highlights the power of grassroots initiatives that local schools and universities have in Norway to create and implement their own programs. Mentoring Program B is a prime example of a bottom up initiative. Although the counties can play a significant role in mediating mentoring content, so do the mentors, university, and school leadership, underscoring the diversity of approaches that are taking place within Norway's schools. As Norwegian policymakers are in the midst of considering teacher mentoring programs and reforms, this study suggests that all key stakeholders involved in mentoring should be active participants in the implementation of any program.

6.1 Further Research

The conclusion of this study leads off for further research into several separate areas. Some meaningful research could be continued based on the limitations of this study. For instance, one of the limitations of the study was a lack of observations. For future research, observations of the new teacher/mentor meetings, both in the groups and individual, would provide concrete insight into the mentoring programs and how the actions compare to the perceptions.

Secondly, this study had a small sample size. Now knowing the significance the roles of the stakeholders can have in enacting a mentoring program, it would be interesting to conduct further research on a larger and longitudinal scale. A further study could include more schools, mentors, new teachers, as well as teachers in their second and third years. Students' perceptions of mentoring could also be meaningful as they are usually the targets of any educational change (Goodlad, 1979). The longitudinal aspect would help to reveal different

experiences over time to provide a more concrete narrative from schools and districts involved. The larger sample size could provide more generalizable evidence as well as examine different methods and strategies used.

Finally, this study revealed that the mentors experiences can be influenced by the county and various other stakeholders. Looking deeper into the roles the county and institutions play in shaping the mentors' experiences would help to strengthen the understanding of the mentor's role and how it is shaped. As mentors are the ones responsible for directly delivering the mentoring curriculum to the newly qualified teachers, this could have significant implications.

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Appendices

Appendix I: Overview of Norwegian Education System
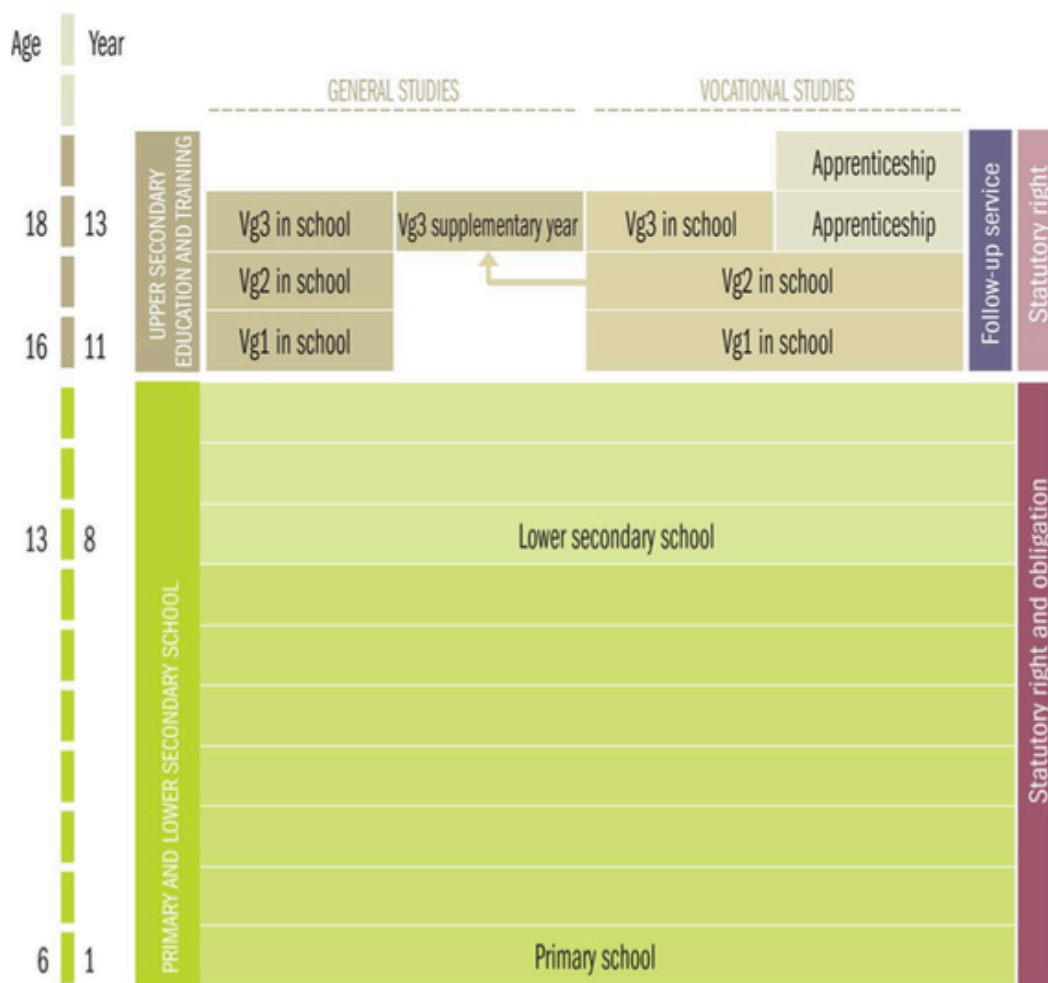
Appendix I: Overview of Norwegian Education System (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, Appendix I, 2011)

Appendix II: Interview Guide for the County Representatives

1. Explanation of the project, introduction, ethics, sign the consent form.

2. Can you tell me a little about yourself and your role working with the program?

3. Can you tell me about the program?
Probe: Where are they taking place? Content? What is the scale of the project? How is it organized? When were they started in county x...? How are they funded?

4. Why the programs started?
Probe: To address what purpose? Were any alternatives considered (I.E. less responsibilities)?

5. How were they designed?
Probe: Who was involved in their development? What information guided it (reports, research)? Decision to bring it to the national level?

6. What instructions were given to you from the Directorate?
Probe: Have you had to adapt or change anything within the county?

7. What mandates do you give to the school leaders?

8. How are the programs evaluated?
Probe: By whom? How do you tell if it is successful? How do you get and send reports?

9. Have there been any difficulties in implementation?
Probe: Communication problems? Issues of clarity? Scale?

10. What are the principal goals of the program?

11. How are the goals addressed?

12. What should mentoring accomplish?

Probe: Is it accomplishing its purpose?

13. What is actually happening on the ground?

Appendix III: Interview Guide for School Leaders

1. Explanation of the project, introduction, ethics, sign the consent form.

2. Can you tell me about yourself and your role as an administrator?

3. Can you tell me about the program?
Probe: Where are they taking place? Content? How is it organized?

4. How does it take place in your school?
Probe: Who is involved? What information guides it?

5. How are mentors selected?
Probe: How are they paired with new teachers?

6. Why were the programs started in your school?
Probe: To address what purpose? Were any alternatives considered (I.E. less responsibilities)?

7. What mandates were you given about teacher mentoring? From whom?
Probe: How do you interpret these to practice? How are these addressed? Was it clear?

8. How are the programs evaluated?
Probe: By whom? How do you tell if it is successful? Who do you report to?

9. Have there been any difficulties in implementation?
Probe: Communication problems? Issues of clarity? Funding?

10. What are the primary challenges a new teacher faces entering the classroom?

11. What should mentoring accomplish?

12. How is it accomplished?
Probe: Demonstration, support, generate new knowledge?

13. What role do you see a mentor has for a new teacher?

Probe: Primarily for support, content, organization?

14. How do mentors get feedback on their practice?

15. In what ways has teacher mentoring been beneficial?

16. What are the primary challenges a mentor faces taking on that role?

Appendix IV: University Coordinator Interview Guide

1. Explanation of the project, introduction, ethics, sign the consent form.

2. Can you tell me a little about yourself and your role working with the program?

3. Can you tell me about the program?
Probe: Where are they taking place? Content? What is the scale of the project? How is it organized? What are the requirements to enter?

4. Why were the programs started?
Probe: To address what purpose? Were any alternatives considered (I.E. less responsibilities)?

5. How was it designed?
Probe: Who was involved in its development? What information guided it (reports, research)?

6. What mandates were you given from the directorate? The ministry?
Probe: How do you interpret these to practice? How are these addressed?

7. How are the programs evaluated?
Probe: By whom? How do you tell if it is successful? Who do you report to?

8. What are the principal goals of the program?
Probe: How were they chosen? Why were they chosen?

9. How are the goals addressed?
Probe: Demonstration, support, generate new knowledge?

10. Have there been any difficulties in implementation?
Probe: Communication problems? Issues of clarity? Scale?

11. What are the primary challenges a new teacher faces entering the classroom?

Probe: How can the mentors help with those challenges?

12. What role do you see as a mentor having for a new teacher?
Probe: Primarily for support, content, organization?

13. How are mentors selected?

14. How are mentors evaluated?
Probe: Why were those methods chosen?

15. What are the primary challenges a mentor faces taking on that role?

16. In the literature there seems to be a problem with mentor retention, how is this an issue in Norway? *Probe: How do you address it?*

Appendix V: Teacher Mentor Interview Guide

1. Explanation of the project, introduction, ethics, sign the consent form, background info (How long have you been a teacher? A teacher mentor? Who do you mentor?)

2. Can you tell me a little about yourself and your role working with teacher mentoring?

3. What made you decide to be a teacher mentor?

4. Can you tell me about the mentoring program?
Probe: *How is it structured? What do they teach? How is it taught? What have you learned?*

5. Why were the programs started?
Probe: To address what purpose?

6. What are the principal goals of the program?

7. How do you apply these principles in the classroom?
Probe: Demonstration, support, generate new knowledge?

8. What role do you see as a mentor having for a new teacher?
Probe: Primarily for support, content, organization?

9. How are the meetings organized with you and the new teacher?
Probe: What is the main focus? Who directs the meetings? How often? How do you give feedback?

10. Can you describe your relationship with the new teachers?
Probe: Are there any problems? Opportunities to change students?

11. What are the primary challenges a new teacher faces entering the classroom?
Probe: How do you address these challenges?

12. How does the principal support you as a mentor?

Probe: Evaluations? Leave time?

13. How do you get feedback to improve your performance? The new teachers?

Probe: Are you in contact with the University? Report to principal?

14. How has the decision to be a mentor changed your daily work schedule? Your mentoring?

15. What do you see as the positive outcomes of being a mentor?

16. What are the challenges you face?

Probe: Time? Workload? Reflection? How do you deal with those challenges?

17. Is being a mentor something you see yourself continuing in the future?

Probe: Why or why not?

18. Are there any questions you would like to ask me?

Appendix VI: Newly Qualified Teacher Interview Guide

1. Explanation of the project, introduction, ethics, sign the consent form.

2. Can you tell me about your teacher education program?
Probe: What would you have liked to focus more on in the program?

3. As a teacher, in what areas do you excel? What parts do you find difficult?

4. Can you tell me about the mentoring program?
Probe: *How is it structured? How often do you meet? What do they teach? How is it taught?*

5. Why did you decide to enter the teacher mentoring program?
Probe: What do you expect to get out of it?

6. How are the meetings organized with you and the mentor?
Probe: What is the main focus? Who directs the meetings? How?

7. How do you get feedback on your practice?

8. Does the administration support you as a new teacher? How?
Probe: Evaluations? Leave time?

9. What should mentoring focus on?
Probe: To address what purpose?

10. What should mentoring achieve?
Probe: Does it?

11. What role do you see a mentor having for a new teacher?
Probe: Primarily for support, content, organization?

12. What do you see as the positive outcomes of being in the mentoring program?

13. How has having a mentor has changed the way you teach (if at all)?

14. What are the challenges of having a mentor?
Probe: Time? Workload? Reflection?

15. Is there anything you would change about the program?

16. Is being a teacher something you see yourself continuing in the future?

17. Is there anything you would like to tell me?