Induction of newly qualified teachers in New Zealand

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In this research, commissioned by the New Zealand Teachers Council, the quality of induction of provisionally registered teachers (PRT) (newly qualified) was examined utilising qualitative ‘success case studies’ within early childhood, primary, secondary, and indigenous Māori medium settings. The establishment of criteria for effective induction (from the literature and previous research) guided the identification of 20 ‘success’ sites across the sectors. In-depth data collection of each case was conducted via focus groups, one-to-one interviews and documentary analysis. The findings of the research highlighted exemplary induction practices across the sectors, with the most important associated with PRTs having access to a community, or ‘family’, of support during their induction. An interesting finding, which contrasted with previous research, was that PRTs in the secondary sector had levels of satisfaction with their role that were as high as those in other sectors. The key limitation to effectiveness was linked to lack of time for discussions and observations of the PRT’s practice.

Keywords: induction; New Zealand; teachers

Introduction

The ‘success case studies’ (Brinkerhoff, 2005) on New Zealand (NZ) induction reported upon in this paper clarify a wide range of factors associated with effectiveness, including: good systems of support for induction; appropriate allocation, support and training of mentors; sufficient time for induction; quality feedback and Provisionally Registered Teachers’ (PRT) openness to feedback; participation in professional development for PRTs and mentors; effective observation; good ratios of PRTs to mentors; resolving time constraint issues constructively via sharing of expertise and resources, as well as allocating sufficient time for induction meetings and reducing responsibilities for PRTs; reassurance of security for PRTs in limited contractual employment arrangements; shared understandings (locally and nationally) about good teaching and learning; ensuring good accountability processes (reviewing, checking and reporting); and having clear criteria for performance. The overwhelming feature of effectiveness, however, was linked to PRTs having a wide support network – a ‘family’ of support. This finding is of considerable importance to societies, such as that of the indigenous NZ Māori community, where connectedness and support of whānau (extensive family unit that often refers all individuals associated with a person) are highly valued.

The paper begins by describing the approach to induction in NZ and the rationale and research questions guiding the research. Background literature (particularly that from the NZ context) associated with the development of criteria for effective induction then follows. The criteria guided the identification of 20 ‘success’ sites across the sectors that were considered to demonstrate effectiveness. The methods/tools for in-depth data collection of each case are described in the methodology section. In the results and discussion section, findings are reported thematically based on the three key questions that guided the research.

Induction of teachers in New Zealand, rationale and research questions

Upon graduation from an approved initial teacher education programme, and subsequent granting of provisional registration status by the New Zealand Teachers Council (NZTC), a NZ teacher undergoes a 2–5-year period of advice and guidance before applying for fully registered teacher (FRT) status. In the advice and guidance (induction) period, a PRT is entitled to a structured programme of mentoring, professional development, observation, targeted feedback on their teaching, and regular assessments based on the standards for full registration (i.e. the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions established by NZTC). At the end of this induction period, the professional leader uses information gathered to attest whether or not the teacher meets the council’s Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions. On the basis of this attestation, and satisfied that the teacher has met all conditions, the NZTC grants full registration to the teacher.

From informal/anecdotal feedback in the education community, the NZTC had identified the following key concerns about induction of newly qualified teachers: the quality of advice and guidance being accessed by PRTs was seen to be variable; there were perceived barriers to establishing good advice and guidance programmes (e.g. isolation in some settings and inadequate mentoring and structural support); those providing support for PRTs (especially mentor teachers (MT)) were not themselves trained or qualified as adult educators; and there were policy issues to work through for assessments and moderation of assessments of PRTs. The
NZTC noted that these issues both related to internal processes in each school or learning centre and external processes of the NZTC. They wished to establish an accurate analysis of the current situation with induction in order to determine the accuracy of the assumptions linked to the former concerns.

The NZTC considered that supporting the professional learning of PRTs and clarifying responsibilities for their formative and final assessment were priority areas in which the council could strengthen the profession. They were aware of the need to establish a broader and more in-depth evidence base on which to formulate future policy and advice to the profession, and each of these factors mentioned when combined led to the decision to engage in the Learning to Teach induction research programme. The overall research was guided by the following three key questions:

1. What examples are there, in a range of settings in New Zealand, of exemplary practices and of ways of dealing with problematic situations when supporting PRTs through effective advice and guidance programmes?
2. What contextual supports are needed when supporting PRTs through effective advice and guidance programmes?
3. What are effective practices and systems for the assessment and moderation of assessments of PRTs as they move towards full registration?

The case studies reported upon in this paper constituted the third stage of the overall Learning to Teach research programme. The first two stages commissioned by the NZTC involved a literature review (Cameron, 2007), then a national survey and focus groups with PRTs who had recently finished their induction programme (Cameron, Dingle & Brooking, 2007). The literature review highlighted best practice for effective induction and indicated where gaps existed in NZ. The survey and focus groups confirmed the areas in which more support was needed and showed inconsistencies in the NZ system. In the third stage of the study reported upon in this paper, the quality of induction of PRTs was examined in more depth via a series of qualitative ‘success case studies’ (Brinkerhoff, 2003).

Although the three aforementioned key questions guided the success case studies, the specific focus was on:

1. Exemplary practices demonstrated in induction
2. Contextual supports
3. Effective assessment practices and systems, and assessment moderation.

Background literature

The importance of induction is now well established. Previous research (Bubb & Earley, 2006; Bubb, Earley & Totterdell, 2005; Cameron, Baker & Lovett, 2006; Education Review Office, 2004, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Heilbronn et al., 2002; Ingersoll, 2001; Kane & Russell, 2003; McCormack, Gore & Thomas, 2004; OECD, 2005; Renwick, 2001; Wong & Wong, 1998) indicates that the nature of induction plays a significant role in the future success and retention of newly qualified teachers. There is also indication of the features associated with effectiveness. For example, Wong, Britton and Ganser’s (2005) report on the review of induction in five countries (i.e. Switzerland, Japan, France, China and New Zealand) concluded that each country provided well-funded support that involved multiple activities as part of the induction. Three key features were common to the programmes in these countries – the programmes were highly structured, focused on professionalised learning and emphasised collaboration.

A key requirement of the success case study research approach adopted in this third stage of the Learning to Teach research was the distillation of the literature associated with induction of teachers. A matrix (Table 1) that summarised the key factors emerging from the research was developed based on the previous research noted plus that of Aitken (2005, 2006); Cameron (2007); Cameron, Baker and Lovett (2006); Cameron, Dingle and Brookings (2007); Cameron et al., (2007); Darling-Hammond (2003); Education Review Office (2004, 2005); Kane (2005); Kane and Mallon (2006); OECD (2005); Renwick (2001); and Stucki et al. (2006).

Methodology

A predominantly qualitative set of success case studies (Brinkerhoff, 2003) was utilised to gather empirical data on effective induction. ‘Success’ did not preclude identification of ‘unsuccessful’ induction strategies or contexts. On the contrary, the research showed that indicators of ineffective practice were readily identified. The
Success case study method allowed the researchers to explore participant experiences and understandings as an experiential whole rather than the component parts (Hannabuss, 2000).

Success case studies are a subset of the more traditional case study method in which a single unit analysis is based upon depth that is both holistic and exhaustive (Bassey, 2007), but which also retains the meaningful characteristics of realistic events. A case study investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context (Wetherell, 2003) and is especially powerful when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (Yin, 1994), as is the situation within the teacher induction context.

In keeping with the success case method, as described by Brinkerhoff (2003), this research began with the identification of criteria for success (as shown in Table 1). Figure 1 summarises the success case method, showing the connections between results, data, outcomes, applications and goals.

Figure 1. Summary of success case method.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assigned mentor</th>
<th>Evidence of stability of staff.</th>
<th>Supportive and systemic induction practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Availability of suitable mentors to guide and support PRT.</td>
<td>Advice and guidance programme is built around the identified needs and interests of the PRT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Willingness of more experienced teacher(s) to support PRT.</td>
<td>The nature of advice and guidance is planned together by PRT and mentor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consideration of a suitable ‘match’ between PRT and mentor.</td>
<td>Guidance contains structure for particular ‘events’ (e.g. liaison with/reporting to parents).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mentor has time to fulfil the responsibility of advice, guidance and support.</td>
<td>Mentor has the mix of personal and pedagogical skills to provide balance of support and challenge for PRT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Availability of ongoing professional development and support for mentor.</td>
<td>Feedback from mentor to PRT is formative and grounded in evidence/observation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clear understanding by mentor and PRT of expectations of advice and guidance.</td>
<td>Mentor assists with documenting professional growth of PRT over time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mentor demonstrates commitment to developing and studying their own practice. Well-trained administration staff. Knowledge of Māori customs and language.</td>
<td>PRT is aware of the entitlements and requirements of teacher registration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support networks and resources</td>
<td>PRT is welcomed and valued into the school/centre. School/centre provides a strong induction and support programme. Evidence of leadership, experience, capability in other staff (appropriate role models). Evidence of ongoing contact and communication with initial teacher education provider. Induction programme builds on the knowledge and skills of PRT developed in initial teacher education provider. PRT demonstrates knowledge and involvement in wider sector networks and/or organisations.</td>
<td>There is evidence of effective leadership in the setting (school or centre). The school principal/centre manager shows interest in the progress of PRT. Support is wider than the allocation of a mentor or supervisor. Support tailors the matching of resources to the needs of the PRT. The learning culture already established in the schools/centre is reinforced through the induction process. PRT is encouraged to participate in professional learning and networks outside the school/centre. Technology is used as a networking tool. Formal and informal support processes are used.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PRT/mentor has access to, and knowledge and use of, technology. There are incentives for greater mobility and removal of barriers particular to setting/sector. Evidence of transparency and understanding by PRT/mentor of how entitlements/funding is spent (e.g. release, funding, professional development, support, feedback).

**Time and space**
Teacher registration is regarded as a support process rather than a compliance exercise.
Allocation, frequency and duration of teacher release time is planned for.
Contact and time between mentor and PRT is prioritised.
Close location/proximity of PRT and mentor within setting.
Availability of relief teachers to release PRT and/or mentor.
Availability of teacher aides to assist PRT/mentor.
Frequency of opportunities for PRT to observe other teachers.
Māori PRT (in mainstream school/centre) has support that is reflective of Māori customs and Māori aspirations/domains of knowledge.
PRTs (secondary) are teaching subjects for which they are trained/qualified.

Opportunities are created for PRT and other experienced teachers to develop collective understandings of effective teaching. There is strong emphasis given to teacher evaluation for improvement.

**Relief staff** provide release for PRT and/or mentor to allow induction support.
Proximity of PRT to others encourages opportunities for sharing ideas and resources, for frequent informal feedback on their work, and for them to observe the teaching of their colleagues.
Māori PRT encouraged to draw upon support networks, such as whānau (extensive family unit), hapū (tribe), iwi (nation), wider than school/centre.
Attention is paid to class composition, timetable and mix of subjects for PRT (secondary sector).
School/centre leadership protects the PRT from additional responsibilities/roles.

Notes: The term mentor has been used to represent the person assigned to support the provisionally registered teacher. Alternative terms used in the literature include supervisor, support teacher, tutor teacher, associate teacher.
Definitions of Māori words/phrases have been compiled from Reed and Kāretu (1988), Reed (1998), and the online version *Te Aka Māori-English, English-Māori, Dictionary and Index* (www.maoridictionary.co.nz).
PRT, provisionally registered teachers; MT, mentor teachers.
**Sampling**

Decisions about sampling in educational research are contingent upon various factors, including ‘time, resources and access — but, most importantly, it depends on the purpose of the research’ (Wellington, 2000, p. 61). In the success case study research there was limited time (eight months), as well as known access problems. With the latter, in recent previous research, two of the authors had experienced considerable resistance by several educational organisations to release teachers to participate in research due to work overload and complaints that respondents would not be reimbursed for their time required for involvement. Although it was not possible to reimburse participants, it was anticipated that the positive, ‘success’ labelling of sites would provide an incentive for involvement. This anticipation proved to be accurate because all but one secondary school approached accepted an invitation to participate.

A purposive (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) approach to sampling was employed for the intensive success case study approach. Sample selection was based on indications from stages 1 and 2 of the research, and recommendations from a key reference group, as well as local advisors working with educational organisations. A relatively small number of cases were sampled because, as Denzin and Lincoln (2000) argue, qualitative researchers may feel confident that they will ‘learn some important things from almost any case’ and that it is appropriate to ‘choose one or a small number of exemplars’ (p. 446). Five sites for each of the following sectors were chosen: early childhood education (ECE); primary school; secondary school; and Māori medium (those in which the NZ indigenous language is utilised as the medium of instruction, as well as a Māori philosophy underpinning the setting’s processes). Within each sector, sites of variable size, location (urban, rural), type, and decile were selected.

**Data collection**

Multiple, triangulated (Denzin, 1997) perspectives of induction were gathered about the range of successful skills, knowledge and abilities employed by the participants in ‘success’ sites. Organisations identified as ‘success’ sites were initially contacted by telephone, with a follow-up email. Standard full ethics approval was obtained prior to conducting the case studies from the organisation’s ethics committee and formal consent was obtained from all participants. An outline of the nature of the project, the contribution that the individual and organisation might make to the research, and the nature and extent of their involvement were provided, as well as assurance of anonymity. It is acknowledged that totally anonymity was not possible in the research because, as noted in the purposive sample selection process outlined earlier, the sites were identified by members of the wider education community. However, all attempts were made to reduce identification. For example, respondents were coded in reporting. Opportunity for participant checking of responses and quotations was outlined in the informed consent process.

The success case study methodology used four main data collection tools.

1. Focus groups were held with key stakeholders (PRTs, organisation managers, mentors, heads of department and FRMs). As part of the focus groups, a list of relevant attributes of successful induction was presented to the group for ranking to ascertain the attributes of successful induction that were exhibited in their organisation.

2. One-to-one, semi-structured interviews were conducted to probe in depth the attributes of successful induction. The semi-structured format involved the use of primarily open-ended questions to encourage participants to discuss their experiences (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000), as opposed to a more structured interview format that might have constrained responses (Opie, 2003).

3. Analysis of a raft of existing induction documentation was examined, including: PRT and mentor plans for induction; induction policies and documents; minutes from induction meetings; action plans; schemes for teaching; teaching materials; observation notes/feedback; plans and reports on professional development; reflections on practice; departmental/team reports; external review reports; and records of achievement.

4. Observations of PRT and mentor interactions/meetings were also planned, but not achieved. Despite multiple efforts to arrange times to coincide researcher visits with meetings, the combination of frantic schedules and the ‘on the hoof’ nature of many meetings made it difficult to plan concrete times for
such observations in advance. Observations would have provided not only triangulation of data from focus group, interview self-reporting and documentary analysis, but also a deeper insight into interactions to explore such areas as the quality of feedback from mentors.

**Analysis**

Data analysis is a process requiring active comprehension, synthesising, theorising and recontextualising (Irvine & Gaffikin, 2006). In order for this to occur, all focus groups and interviews were taped, transcribed and thematically coded in a way that derived increasingly specific categories within and across each sector. All transcriptions were returned to participants for accuracy checking and to ensure correct interpretation of location of material under subheadings.

**Results and discussion**

A number of key factors emerged from the analysis of the 20 case studies and these findings are considered in relation to existing literature and research. The findings of the success case studies are discussed under headings noted in the previous rationale section, which were derived from the three main research questions; that is:

1. Exemplary practices demonstrated in induction
2. Contextual supports
3. Effective assessment practices and systems, and assessment moderation.

**Exemplary practices**

The findings linked to the exemplary practices that affected PRTs’ experiences confirmed a number of features already described across the induction literature, which are distilled in Table 1, including: systems and culture of support; appropriate allocation, matching and support from the mentor; time provided for induction; professional development (PD) opportunities provided; feedback received on the PRT’s progress and teaching; effective observation; and the existence of good ratios of FRTs (and mentors) to PRTs in the setting. Each of these enabling conditions is described briefly alongside supporting literature.

**Systems and culture of support**

One of the most significant and universal features of the success case studies was the overall culture of support (derived both from systems and personnel) within the organisation. Larger sites were more likely to have developed formalised systems of support (e.g. appointment of designated coordination staff for induction and extensive written information) than smaller sites. A dedicated induction programme, as a feature of a ‘system’ was a feature of many sites, regardless of size, as described by one mentor:

> We had a day’s input for PRTs before the teacher-only day, including a ‘walkabout’ where you went and found out information and met people; regular meetings with your ‘buddy’ and the DP Induction . . . [They have] a very organised and structured induction process with a ‘book’ that lays out everything clearly. The programme is structured but not forced . . . [other PRTs elsewhere describe a more regimented system but] we don’t have that here and which is the better programme? But it is nice. It works well in a small school.

Provision of support by personnel (particularly mentors) was strong in the case studies, and in several sites it was apparent that such support was stronger at the beginning of the induction period and lessened as the PRT gained confidence. A mentor commented that:

> In their first term it’s a difficult time; we spoon-feed them, we check in with them every day, and later every two days, telling them what they need to do. We gradually build up their independence.

Support and challenge extended beyond the mentors within all settings to include other personnel, such as principals, tumuaki (head/leader), managers, head teachers, induction coordinators and colleagues. This was noted by one primary sector PRT when discussing their principal:

> He (the Principal) is challenging us the whole time . . . he makes us look at different situations and create solutions to problems . . .
The wider support was underscored in the comment from one PRT in an ECE setting, who stated that their colleagues were ‘a kind of a family’ [whānau]. One PRT in a primary school encapsulated this sentiment in the comment:

They are great. Fostering – that is what I would say. They look after us really, really well. Just so supportive and nurturing. It’s a nice place to be.

In the Māori medium settings, this wide support was most extensive and reflected the commitment to a shared Māori philosophy and cultural ethos, as expressed in values such as manaakitanga (hospitality) and whanaunatanga (connecting). Awhi (embracing, cherishing) for the PRT was described often as a collective, whānau process rather than the responsibility of a single person. In keeping with the concept of whanaunatanga and awhi approaches, the PRTs were given extended time for completion of registration by not limiting support to two years. On successful completion of registration there was also a whole-school celebration in order to acknowledge the achievements of the teacher and their new status.

These findings on effective support provided via systems and personnel are in keeping with previous research (Aitken, 2005; Cameron, 2007; Cameron, Baker & Lovett, 2006; Cameron, Dingle & Brooking, 2007; Cameron et al., 2007; Doerger, 2003; Education Review Office, 2004; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Huling-Austin, 1992; New Zealand Teachers Council & Ministry of Education, 2006; Wilson et al., 2006; Wong, Britton & Ganser, 2005). Feiman-Nemser (2001) describes support as ‘the dominant orientation and focus in most orientation programmes. . . . materials, advice, and hand-holding . . .’ (p. 1031). Feiman-Nemser (2001) notes that a key factor in new teachers moving beyond coping and survival is associated with the culture of support that they encounter. Also in keeping with the work of Cameron et al. (2007), and Cameron, Dingle and Brooking (2007), these findings confirm that such collegial support is a significant enabler for PRTs.

The appropriate allocation and support of mentors

As well as the wider support described previously, each of the PRTs within the 20 case studies examined had a mentor for one-to-one supervision or support. The case study findings revealed that decisions associated with allocation of mentors was important. Such allocation was based on effecting a good match, both in terms of teaching area and of personality; mentor experience in the sector, context and/or teaching area of the PRT; and proximity to the PRT. In some cases, the PRT’s wishes were considered prior to appointment of the mentor.

In the ECE sector (as Cameron (2007) had previously observed) the demand for qualified teachers and the shortage of FRTs in some settings meant that the onus of finding a mentor often rested on the PRT, as shown in the following quote from a centre manager:

It’s up to them to choose a mentor teacher. We have given them the agreement to sign . . . after that it really is their responsibility to drive it.

Thus, some PRTs in ECE settings elected to have a mentor external to the setting in which they worked. Nevertheless, the ECE case studies revealed that PRTs received support and advice from their colleagues and employers to help to find a suitable mentor. The level of experience and expertise evident in the mentors in the ECE success case studies was also high but may not have been representative of the wider ECE sector, in which an historical lack of veteran teachers has been evident, resulting in an emphasis currently on ‘growing’ capacity of FRTs, as reported by Aitken (2005) and Cameron (2007).

The primary, secondary, and Māori medium case studies had sufficient numbers of experienced veteran teachers, and Kāumātua (older people in the Māori medium sector) as mentors, and this experience was widely appreciated by PRTs, as shown in the following quote:

I have a brilliant mentor (he’s the Deputy Principal as well). The school leaves it up to the MT autonomously to create the relationship with the PRT. Every release day, he books an hour to an hour and a half to spend with me. We talk about my goals for the term, week by week, we have a plan and we stick to it. He’s taught lessons in my room and I’ve taught in his . . . it’s reciprocal. It’s so supportive, it’s the best thing that this school does for PRTs.

Concern was expressed by one non-Māori mentor in the primary sector that she was supporting a Māori PRT and lacked the background; however, her PRT did not see this as problematic.
The findings in the success case studies confirm the potential and significance of a mentor, and which is widely discussed in the induction literature (Achinstein & Villar, 2002; Cameron, 2007; Doerger, 2003; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Gless, 2007; Heilbronn et al., 2002; Renwick, 2001; Wilson et al., 2006). Also, previous research (Cameron, 2007; Cameron, Dingle & Brookings, 2007; Cameron et al., 2007; Education Review Office, 2004) reiterates that the appropriate allocation of mentors is important.

Ensuring time for induction

The ‘success’ of induction in the case studies was largely determined by the collective willingness to minimise, overcome or lessen the impact of time-associated constraints (e.g. lack of time, limited release time, poor availability of relievers to cover release and high workloads). Time constraints were a perennially quoted issue, as one mentor in a primary school noted: ‘It would be great to have a little more time out so I can watch my PRT and give her feedback.’ Recognition of the importance of having time and making time to spend with the PRT was a central theme across all four sectors and the 20 case studies. The methods of overcoming this constraint were reasonably consistent across all sectors, with some varying emphasis in each. For example, the Māori medium cases often described having the PRT and mentor working directly alongside so that response could be immediate to a situation that arose, and they also cited employment of an additional staff member to enable release. Findings in the primary sector emphasised methods such as collaborative planning of teaching units, team teaching with the PRT, sharing resources within syndicates/teams, as well as coordinating release time. Release time was systematically organised between the release teacher, the mentor and the PRT in one instance, as a mentor explained:

We had meetings with his 0.2 teacher as well (release time teacher) so we could then decide how that 0.2 was going to be used. There were times when the PRT would be out of the classroom completely; other times he could teach alongside; other times he could get resources to support his teaching, work on his reports; observe me teaching.

For the secondary sector, additional strategies were employed, such as adjusting the timetables of the mentor and PRT to allow shared release time, and also locating both in close proximity, in terms of both teaching space and shared office space.

Time constraint as a limitation on effectiveness has been explored in previous literature on induction (Doerger, 2003; Heilbronn et al., 2002) with the issues of lack of time and limited release time mentioned most frequently. The strategies identified in the success case studies offers suggestions for overcoming such constraints.

Professional development opportunities for provisionally registered teachers (both internal and external)

In the case studies, professional learning and PD opportunities were valued widely by school and centre staff. Professional development occurred internally at the whole-site level (this was mentioned more often in schools), as well as externally via courses and workshops typically run at teacher education centres. Often this PD was deliberately integrated with that for other development contracts within the organisation plan, as the following quote from a mentor shows:

As we’ve taken on wider professional development through Literacy contracts, Numeracy contracts, we’ve certainly upped our game in supporting beginning teachers. It’s bucked the ideas up, woken us up, and, as a result, we are in a very supportive environment.’

Mixed feedback was received about the effectiveness of PRT day-release type courses, although PRTs valued the opportunity to meet together.

External PD was a challenge for teachers generally in the Māori medium sector because it was seen to be targeted at mainstream settings with limited kaupapa Māori (Māori -centred philosophy) support materials and/or facilitators. This resulted in support and PD being managed largely ‘in house’ or via cluster support networks with other kura (schools). Only a small minority of PRTs across all four sectors mentioned external support networks or memberships as a component of development.
Previous research on PD for PRTs is not extensive, with most authors focusing almost exclusively on the provision of PD for mentors. As discussed in a later section of the results, the research conducted on PD for both the provision and receipt of feedback and mentor skills (Achinstein, 2006; Feirman-Nemser, 2001; Heilbronn et al., 2002), however, has implications for complimentary skill requirements (and PD) for PRTs.

The success case study finding that PD for PRTs was often deliberately integrated with that of other development planned within the organisation is a strategy that Bubb and Early (2006) suggest as important for effective induction.

**Feedback is received about progress and teaching**

It is clear from the findings in this research that mentors understood that providing feedback was a significant part of their role. What was less apparent from the findings is how this happened in all sectors. (Note that evidence for this may have been more apparent if the planned research observations had been feasible.) In recalling a typical meeting or providing descriptions of feedback given, most examples were overwhelmingly general, but the majority of mentors described a two-way dialogue during which they initially encouraged the PRT to reflect on the practice, experience or lesson. One PRT in an ECE setting described her interaction in the following way:

She [mentor] had some set reflective questions [that] really prompted me to go a little deeper, and to explore my practice and the thinking behind it.

Subsequent to the PRT reflections in almost all success case study sites, the mentor usually provided positive feedback (in relation to the task, dimensions or goals), offered ideas or alternative strategies, assisted with goal setting, reviewed evidence and gave feedback about teaching practice and progress towards meeting the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions (NZ Teachers Council & Ministry of Education, 2006).

Specific detail of the content of meetings and discussion was least apparent in the Māori medium case studies, although meeting together and regular communication was constantly referred to.

Provision of feedback and making time for engaging in discussion is commonly referred to as a characteristic of systematic and supportive induction (Anthony, Bell, Haigh & Kane, 2007; Cameron, Dingle & Brooking, 2007; Cameron et al., 2006; Carter & Francis, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Heilbronn et al., 2002). The exceptionally difficult skills associated with providing feedback in the complex, high tension, dual support and assessment role associated with induction is addressed less frequently in this previous research. Little reference also is made to how such feedback can generate open, high trust relationships (Piggot-Irvine & Cardno, 2005) based on productive, non-defensive, dialogue-based interactions that often are linked to ‘organisational learning’ (Argyris, 2003; Cardno, 2001; Dick & Dalmau, 1999; Piggot-Irvine, 2005; Robinson & Lai, 2006; Senge et al., 2000). Such interactions are exceptionally complex and difficult, and often require intensive development – a point that will be referred to later in this paper.

**Effective observation**

An important component of induction that was mentioned by a number of mentors and PRTs in the success case studies was the need to observe the PRT’s teaching practice. One of the key constraints faced by PRTs and mentors also was that of organising synchronised time to enable such observation to occur. Observation was most likely to have occurred when there was close proximity between the PRT and mentor. This was particularly evident in ECE settings because of the difficulties in releasing qualified teachers ‘off the floor’, and synchronising release time for PRTs with external mentors. The majority of PRTs and mentors in the ECE case studies described the importance of having to formalise scheduled meetings (because many had external MTs) with predetermined areas of focus for observation (often based on goals relating to specific dimensions or criteria).

A number of PRTs mentioned the value of observing other teachers within the school. Where and when this did happen in the case studies, it was considered to be highly useful. This practice seemed to be employed most in the primary school cases.
Although not labelled as observation, ‘popping in’ by mentors to PRTs’ rooms as a form of ongoing, informal, evidence-gathering support was evident in both primary and secondary schools, and largely taken as the norm, particularly in the primary sector. Few PRTs seemed to feel threatened by this mentor presence, instead taking it as a form of support while recognising its ‘surveillance’ function also. In the primary sector also it was not unusual for the principal to take a substantial role in observation. One principal said:

“I go and observe all the PRTs, do a formal observation, write it up, and meet with them after to have a chat. When you’ve got a dozen or so, it takes a bit of time, but it’s worth doing that. So it’s about that communication, giving them support.”

Heilbronn and colleagues (2002) report that observation was the activity rated most highly by newly qualified teachers in England, emphasising the importance of the professional dialogue associated with observation and that mentors have the expertise for this role. Their study also highlights that time to conduct observations (for both PRTs and mentors) is a concern.

In New Zealand, research by Cameron, Baker and Lovett (2006) claimed that opportunity for such observation was identified as the induction activity that most helped their professional learning – a feature confirmed in the success case studies. The issue of observing other teachers being a practice utilised most in the primary school success cases was a point also mentioned previously by Cameron, Baker and Lovett (2006).

Good ratios of fully registered teachers (and mentors) to provisionally registered teachers

Higher numbers of FRTs existed in the primary and secondary school case studies compared to those in ECE. However, the case study findings revealed a range of effective practices when there were few FRTs, including: the establishment of group support processes (in addition to one-to-one support); providing flexible options (and assistance) to PRTs in finding a suitable mentor; and the allocation of roles and responsibilities within the organisation to monitor and support PRTs.

Where there was a group of newly qualified teachers present, this often resulted in the PRTs sharing ideas and resources, and engaging in professional discussion about the registration process and about teaching in general. In two primary schools involved in the success case studies, principals consciously sought significant numbers of PRTs, recognising the benefits of this sharing. One large ECE organisation had developed PRT support meetings in regional areas in order to provide additional support. Having a higher number of PRTs in a setting often meant that people were at different stages in the registration process and more experienced PRTs frequently provided assistance to those who were newer. The larger organisations had adopted flexible systems for PRT support, including the use of external mentors, and often they had a designated staffing role to oversee the growing number of PRTs.

The issue of higher numbers of FRTs in the primary and secondary school case studies compared to those in ECE was noted in previous research by Cameron (2007). The feature of PRTs, when present in a group, sharing ideas and resources, and engaging in professional discussion was also confirmed by the Education Review Office (2004). Additionally, Huling-Austin (1992) has emphasised the importance of cohort support to reduce isolation and foster professional growth.

Contextual supports

The following section discusses the findings related to the research question: ‘What contextual supports are needed when supporting PRTs through effective advice and guidance programmes?’ The findings of the 20 case studies revealed a range of contextual supports including: effective support and training of mentors; utilising external mentors; limiting extra roles and responsibilities of PRTs; and reassurance for PRTs in limited contractual employment arrangements.

Support and training for mentors

The allocation and competence of a mentor was a central feature of exemplary support for PRTs in the case studies, although as described previously, support was not limited to this. Although the success cases revealed that mentors had considerable experience and qualifications relevant to their sector, very little formal or targeted PD had occurred in relation to their role as mentors. Across all sectors mentors described their development to
be that of collegial support coupled with using published written guidelines, curriculum documents, school appraisal documents and policies, academic readings or literature, and literature about reflection or reflective practice. Also they stated that their years in the profession and prior experience of being associate teachers (for student teachers on practicum) informed their current practice. Some skills and practices, such as encouraging reflection, giving feedback and guiding practice, were seen to be transferable to the mentor role. There was an overwhelming need expressed by mentors across the 20 case studies for more support, development, and more release time to allow them to do an effective job in supporting PRTs.

Competence of a mentor has been identified widely in previous research as an important feature of effective induction (Achinstein & Villar, 2002; Cameron, 2007; Cameron, Dingle & Brooking, 2007; Carter & Francis, 2000; Education Review Office, 2004; Gauthern 2001; Heilbronn et al., 2002; New Zealand Teachers Council & Ministry of Education, 2006; Wilson et al., 2006). The need for support, development and release time expressed by mentors in the success case studies aligns with Cameron’s (2007, p. 20) statement that there ‘is a need to attend to the learning and conditions of mentors as well as beginning teachers if mentoring is to achieve its intended purposes of impacting on teacher practices and children’s and students’ learning’. Heilbronn and colleagues (2002) and Feiman-Nemser (2001) note also the central and demanding nature of the mentor role and the need for time and training, and that sufficient status and importance to be accorded to the task.

Heilbronn and colleagues (2002) describe the mentoring role as that of dual support and assessment that requires specific ‘. . . personal qualities and professional skills, as well as the pedagogic knowledge and experience . . .’ (p. 379). The complexity associated with the dual role is not without challenge, as both Achinstein (2006) and Feiman-Nemser (2001) indicate. Both roles require the type of non-defensive, or productive, ‘organisational learning’ approaches to feedback that are noted earlier as complex and difficult, requiring sensitive development.

In addition to the aforementioned skills, Achinstein (2006) pointed out that mentors need political literacy (knowledge and socialisation for the complexity of school and district contexts) in order to enhance PRT development. In Achinstein’s study, three critical domains of mentors’ knowledge of political contexts were identified: ‘reading, navigating and advocating . . . In each domain respondents reported that mentors need knowledge, skills and commitment themselves and the ability to foster these in new teachers’ (Achinstein, 2006, p. 126).

External mentors

External mentoring existed mainly in the ECE case studies and it was regarded positively by the PRTs. They perceived benefits of having an external mentor as including: the ability to gain an unbiased or ‘fresh’ outsider’s view of the PRT or centre practice; the reduced likelihood of a clash with an existing colleague (although not experienced by the participants); the ability to have a one-to-one professional relationship with a more experienced teacher when one was unavailable in the centre; and having a mentor who was familiar with the PRT role and/or responsibilities, particularly when in a position of leadership. The main constraint noted in having an external mentor was the additional strain it placed on release time for the mentor and PRT to meet. It was considered that the absence of day-to-day contact (normally provided in internal mentoring) meant that support meetings and discussions needed to be arranged in advance, and yet still be responsive to unanticipated circumstances.

Support for external mentors associated with the success case studies was often incidental or as a result of personal relationships rather than systemic support systems. In all cases, the external mentors were already known to the PRT (rather than contracted by the organisation or employer) and this may have been a catalyst for a strong professional relationship. In one of the larger ECE organisations, from which several PRTs had external mentors, the mentors received a copy of the company’s registration manual containing an employment contract with guidelines and also received support from the teacher registration coordinator. Again, informal communication and inclusive practices from within the centre helped mentors to support the PRT more effectively, and to feel supported in their own role.

No previous research could be sourced on the employment of external mentors for induction in the education sectors examined.
Limiting extra roles and responsibilities of provisionally registered teachers

Little evidence of excessive overload and/or stress associated with extra roles and responsibilities was apparent in the 20 success case studies, except through the PRTs’ references to colleagues elsewhere who were struggling. Largely, PRTs expressed enthusiasm for their role as teachers and in working with children or students. There was some evidence of PRTs in the primary and secondary case studies feeling unprepared for the realities of classroom life, as well as some curriculum areas, although this was not extensive. A lower level of satisfaction from PRTs in the secondary sector was not reflected compared to their primary counterparts. Although secondary schools experienced some issues particular to their sector (such as timetabling and knowledge of subject area), the five secondary success case studies revealed that a range of processes were adopted by schools to try and allocate and make time for induction processes.

Some PRTs in the primary and secondary case studies were involved in non-teaching activities and roles; however, principals and colleagues largely protected them from taking on too much responsibility. There was no evidence of premature promotion of PRTs, so this type of recognition, and sheltering, from leaders and others in the setting, was an important feature in overcoming contextual constraints for PRTs. Provisionally registered teachers holding formal positions of responsibility while undergoing induction was not so evident in the success case studies in the primary, secondary or most of the Māori-medium sector sites. The ECE sector provided the only exception, with PRTs often holding additional roles due to the increasing pressure on newly qualified teachers to assume responsibilities even if these are not formalised.

References in previous research (Cameron, 2007; Carter & Francis, 2000; Lang, 2002) relating to PRT struggle and ‘survival’ was not apparent in the 20 success case studies. In the success case studies, the evidence suggests confirmation for Howey and Zimpher’s (1989) suggestion that limiting workloads and responsibilities is important for effective induction. A point of contrast with previous recent research was in the area of levels of satisfaction between primary and secondary sector PRTs. There was no indication in the success cases of the lower satisfaction rate amongst secondary PRTs, as reported by Cameron, Dingle and Brooking (2007) and the Education Review Office (2004, 2005). Additionally the pinpointing of concerns of premature promotion of PRTs in a range of sectors by Aitken (2005, 2006), Cameron (2007) and Cameron et al. (2007) was not identified in the case studies other than in the ECE sector. The latter incidence supports the findings of Aitken (2005, 2006).

Reassurance for provisionally registered teachers with limited contractual employment arrangements

In the success cases, the majority of PRTs were in permanent tenure positions. In at least one large secondary school success case, ongoing tenure of some PRTs was linked to enrolment of overseas students and, consequently, somewhat outside the school’s control. This was noted by the principal as regretted, but was a feature of the competitive international student market for secondary schools. Where positions were not permanent in the success cases, there were specific approaches adopted for support, including a high level of reassurance that principals and mentors provided to PRTs about their potential employment and the desire to have them permanently in the school. It was not apparent from these success case studies that PRTs in limited tenure positions received less support (genuine commitment to them was more often the case), thus the quality of their induction experience was not considered to be affected. However, participants did refer to this being a reality in other schools based on their observation of other mentoring relationships. The majority of PRTs in the ECE success case studies were in full-time permanent positions, with some preferring to work part-time.

The findings in the success cases did not substantially support recent research (Cameron, 2007; Cameron, Dingle & Brooking, 2007; Cameron et al., 2007; Education Review Office, 2004, 2005) that has suggested that the contractual employment arrangements of PRTs (and their mentors) can have an effect on their induction, the quality of mentoring they experience, and the relative stress and workload placed on both themselves and those supporting them. Cameron, Baker and Lovett (2006) have reported that more than half of primary sector PRTs gained their first position of employment on a limited term basis but, again, this high proportion was not reflected in the success case studies. A tentative conclusion that could be drawn is that the sites demonstrating effective induction were less likely to offer limited term employment.
Effective assessment practices and systems, and assessment moderation

The following discussion covers the findings related to the research question: ‘What are effective practices and systems for the assessment and moderation of assessments of PRTs as they move towards full registration?’ The 20 success case studies revealed a precursor to assessment as that of shared understandings about good teaching and learning, and this is addressed under the first subheading. Further findings are discussed under the subheadings of ‘Guidelines for induction assessment’ and ‘General practices for gathering, reviewing and checking progress in induction’.

Shared understandings of good teaching and learning

Despite the contextual differences and the diversity of the four education sectors in the success case studies, there was a theme of common agreement amongst the teachers regarding their understandings about teaching and learning. The PRTs and mentors noted almost universally that discussions about effectiveness associated with the latter occurred continuously at their site.

A feature of the workplace cultural norm in the success case sites could be described as ‘learning enriched’ (Little, 1999, p. 253) – a learner-centred environment in which professional conversations were part of the cultural norm (Piggot-Irvine, 2006). In keeping with previous research findings linked to features of effective professional development in schools, it was observed in the case studies that staff conformed with the description of being ‘. . . passionate, optimistic and hopeful about their role, and that of teaching and learning . . .’ (Piggot-Irvine, 2006, p. 480). They were ‘. . . avid seekers of research and best practices that will help themselves and others . . .’ (Lewis, 2003, p. 2). Feiman-Nemser (2001) stresses that induction should be framed around ‘. . . a vision of good teaching . . .’ (p.1031). In the success case study sites teachers had taken time to create this vision.

Guidelines for induction assessment

In an earlier phase of the Learning to Teach induction research, Cameron, Baker and Lovett (2006) called for larger-scale research on how settings were using the national teaching guidelines (‘Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions’) in the Towards Full Registration: A Support Kit (New Zealand Teachers Council & Ministry of Education, 2006) – often referred to as the ‘toolkit folder’. Although the success case studies do not present a large-scale examination, the findings do provide a small window into different practices adopted by the sectors with regard to use of the guidelines.

Mentors across the four sectors commonly referred to the ‘toolkit folder’ as a general point of reference for induction. In the primary and secondary sectors, the Dimensions were used widely as the guidelines for assessment. In some cases, PRT assessments also were linked to other professional accountability standards, such as the professional standards associated with appraisal. This was more likely to occur in the primary, secondary and Māori medium settings than in the ECE sector. The following quotes from both the principal and a mentor in one of the primary schools illustrate the perceptions of connections between induction and appraisal:

Principal: Appraisal is about learning rather than being solely achievement based . . . it works as a continuum as well.

Mentor: Our current appraisal supports beginning teachers, too, because you have to make the time to visit all of the people that you appraise.

The findings revealed that where these connections existed, they helped the PRT to see the inter-relationship between the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions and appraisal guidelines. In turn, the interconnections also helped principals and mentors to give regular feedback about PRT’s progress in relation to expectations within the school.

For a number of mentors in the ECE sector case studies, the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions and ‘toolkit’ publication (which was revised to include ECE in 2006) had come too late, and they described their initial stress and uncertainty in supporting their PRTs when there was a lack of published material and guidelines applicable to the sector. Mentors in the ECE home-based care organisation site noted that they found difficulty in
interpreting the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions in their setting and to the complex and varied role of the PRT. The findings in the ECE success case studies also suggested that the ‘toolkit folder’ was used more commonly as a point of reference by mentors than it was by the PRTs. This may be due to there being limited copies at each site for teachers to refer to. Thus PRTs typically said that they relied on written information and booklets about registration provided to them by the setting (or by external PD providers).

Provisionally registered teachers and mentors in the Māori medium case studies described being guided by the principles of Te Aho Matua (the foundation document for Māori medium schools) in interpreting the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions, but some remarked that they were challenged to see how some of the Dimensions could be related to their setting. Their comments suggested that they resented having to ‘fit’ into the mainstream model, rather than the expectations being truly responsive to Māori kaupapa (Māori-centred philosophy) and Māori aspirations.

Limited previous research is available to compare and contrast with these case study findings on guidelines for assessment in induction. However, in the primary and secondary sectors, it would seem that the use of the original or interpreted Dimensions as a set of criteria for assessment in NZ might overcome a limitation referred to by Bubb, Earley and Totterdell (2005) in the induction context in England, where the guidelines were not always well disseminated or understood. The findings in the success case studies in the ECE and Māori contexts in NZ, however, would appear to support their research findings in England.

General practices for gathering evidence, reviewing and checking progress in induction

Provisionally registered teachers in each sector gathered, reviewed and presented evidence of progress towards meeting the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions in varied and disparate ways. Two key characteristic processes employed by mentors in the success case studies included being responsive to the individual needs and progress of the PRT and breaking down the requirements for assessment into smaller goals, steps or actions.

The style of evidence gathering and record keeping in the ECE case studies consistently reflected a portfolio approach to documenting or recording progress, which was in keeping with suggestions in an earlier Teacher Registration Assessment Booklet (Early Childhood Council, 2004), which outlined formative and summative record keeping. The latter was particularly evident amongst PRTs who had begun their provisional registration prior to the release of the revised guidelines in the ‘toolkit’. Extensive evidence was sighted in this sector and a distinctive feature was that evidence collection was driven by the PRTs themselves. Some PRTs produced a very large amount of evidence and, in the opinion of the researchers, ‘over-documented’. For example, one PRT had compiled two large spiral-bound folders with an estimated 100 entries.

Overall, PRTs in the primary and secondary sectors placed less emphasis on documenting evidence than the ECE sector. Possible reasons for this disparity between the sectors may relate to: the higher incidence of observation as a tool for checking evidence and the practice of a PRT in the school sectors; avoidance of introducing the stronger summative assessment role alongside support; the existence of external mentors in the ECE sector (creating a greater need for documentary evidence due to reduced opportunities to observe practice); sector preferences for specific methods for documenting evidence; or the influence of auditing by the NZTC in the ECE sector.

The findings of the success case studies also revealed a range of practices by mentors in reviewing the evidence of the PRTs, and checking and endorsing progress. The findings suggested that although there was no singular ‘best practice’ approach with regard to monitoring PRTs’ progress, the reading and checking of PRTs’ folders or evidence against the dimensions at various points in induction was common. A ‘checklist’ approach to this review, however, was generally avoided. For external mentors in the ECE sector there was a greater reliance on written records and evidence due to the fact that they could not directly attest or observe the PRT competence in all areas relating to the dimensions.

In making links back to previous literature, approaches to reviewing and checking progress are often considered to fall under the traditional ‘formative’ (e.g. ongoing, PRT self-review, which is developmentally orientated) and ‘summative’ (e.g. compiling checklists, more formal auditing, end-point review, which is accountability oriented) typologies defined by Stake (1967) and Scriven (1991). In induction, the ‘assistance’ (formative) and ‘assessment’ (summative) functions have been described as incompatible and creating role conflict (Huling-Austin, 1992). However, the assumption that there is a formative– summative distinction has been
challenged by Piggot-Irvine and Cardno (2005) as an oversimplification that has led, in some cases, to defensive avoidance of adopting the challenge of confronting difficult decisions. As Feiman-Nemser (2001, p. 1032) suggests, ‘... [T]he sharp dichotomy between assistance and assessment seems shortsighted if we think of induction in terms of the broad continuum of learning opportunities for teachers.’ Piggot-Irvine and Cardno (2005) would argue that, rather than a dichotomy, there are more commonly overlapping, blurred boundaries between assistance and assessment due to the incidence of formative assessment almost always containing summative components.

It is the belief of the authors that the overlapping formative and summative role is a comfortable one for mentors with students, as daily they both assist and assess. With the introduction of PD designed to overcome any defensive avoidance (see reference to this earlier) linked to separation of the formative and summative roles, mentors and PRTs, both, might be able to adopt a similar level of comfort with the overlapping roles they hold in induction.

Conclusion

Overall, the success case studies illustrated multiple examples of exemplary practice across all of the four sectors. The findings are largely in keeping with earlier research (Bubb & Earley, 2006; Bubb, Earley & Totterdell, 2005; Ganser, 2002; McCormack, Gore & Thomas, 2004; Wong, Britton & Ganser, 2005) that suggests that a range of strategies, or components of induction, should be implemented for PRTs over time. During the induction period in the NZ success case study sites, varied activities occurred associated with mentoring, observation, PD, professional conversations about teaching and learning, and data gathering for assessment, reviewing and monitoring.

A distinctive finding overall was the provision of strong evidence of wider support and collaboration than just that of the mentor alone – a ‘family’ or ‘whānau’ of support was provided by multiple members of the sector site. In the Māori medium settings, the on-site support was further extended to Māori elders in the community. The findings support the emphasis on collaboration in induction in NZ that was reported earlier by Wong, Britton and Ganser (2005). Collaboration and support in induction are generally noted as important features also by Doerger (2003), who highlighted the need for extended support in the statement that: ‘All school community members ... have a profound effect on beginning teachers . . .’ (p. 8 of 11). Furthermore, as early as 1992 Huling-Austin noted the need for cohort and professional support for beginning teachers.

Mentor effectiveness was a feature of the success case studies and, once again, this is supported by previous research (Achinstein & Villar, 2002; Cameron, 2007; Cameron, Dingle & Brooking, 2007; Carter & Francis, 2000; Education Review Office, 2004; Gauthern 2001; Heilbronn et al., 2002; New Zealand Teachers Council & Ministry of Education, 2006; Wilson et al., 2006) and also is linked to development and training of mentors.

Time was allocated for the PRT and mentor to meet in almost all success case study sites (both informally, through ongoing collegial support, and formally, in the registration process). In all sites the perennial issue of lack of time for mentoring, a concern that is internationally recognised (Doerger, 2003; Heilbronn et al., 2002), was acknowledged but also constructively attended to via approaches involving collaboration and sharing of resources, expertise and support; group induction sessions (most common in the secondary sector); having close proximity of mentors and PRTs; reduction in extracurricula commitments; and increasing the ‘family of support’ when problems arose. Good ratios of FRTs to PRTs existed in each setting and, often, particular care was taken to ensure appropriate allocation of the mentor to ensure a good ‘match’ with the PRT. Limiting the extra roles and responsibilities placed on PRTs, and reassurance of security for PRTs in limited contractual employment arrangements was also a feature of these sites.

Participation in internal and external PD for both mentors and PRTs was a strong feature of induction in all schools in the success case studies – a feature highlighted to be important in previous research for mentors (Achinstein, 2006; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Heilbronn et al., 2002). Good observation skills, openness by PRTs to receiving feedback, and time to conduct observations were also highlighted in the success case studies and, once again, these have been confirmed in previous research on good observation (Cameron, Baker & Lovett, 2006; Heilbronn et al., 2002) and effective feedback provision (noted generally by Anthony, Bell, Haigh & Kane, 2007; Cameron, Baker & Lovett, 2006; Cameron, Dingle & Brooking, 2007; Carter & Francis, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Heilbronn et al., 2002).
A distinctive outcome associated with the features of effectiveness described above in the success case studies that was not found in previous research, was the enthusiasm that PRTs across all sectors expressed for their role as teachers and in working with children or students. Minor evidence of PRTs in the primary and secondary case studies feeling unprepared for the realities of classroom life was apparent but this was not extensive. Contrary to the findings of Cameron, Dingle and Brooking (2007) and the Education Review Office (2004, 2005), lower levels of satisfaction from PRTs in the secondary sector were not reflected compared to their primary counterparts. A comparison of primary and secondary findings is the focus of another paper.

An additional distinguishing feature in the success case studies that was in keeping with previous findings from the first author (Piggot-Irvine, 2006) on effective PD generally, was that of shared understandings among staff about good teaching and learning. These shared understandings were derived from ongoing conversations that were part of the cultural norm in the site.

Significantly, in almost all sites, there was appreciation of the need for the reviewing, checking and reporting associated with induction – accountability was perceived to be an attendant component of the process. Gathering of ‘everyday’ evidence often was linked to the nationally stipulated Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions in the primary and secondary sectors, and links often were made in all sectors to other documents/processes, such as teacher appraisal.

The five Māori-medium case studies showed that there were several overlaps in the features of effective induction in these settings with that of non-Māori. Overlaps included support for and valuing the PRT; having PRTs and mentors in close proximity to one another in terms of office space and teaching rooms; the provision of constructive feedback to PRTs; and the regular checking of documentation. There were also induction features that were emphasised more highly in the Māori settings compared with other sectors, including the deliberate reinforcement of the kura or setting’s learning culture via the induction process. Another distinction was associated with the definition and practice of mentoring itself. In the Māori settings, ‘mentoring’ does not centre on individuals or a dual relationship between mentor and PRT, but on the much wider concept of whānau.

A summary of the overall main features linked to effective induction that were shown in the case studies is outlined in Figure 2.

In summary, the success case studies provide multiple indicators for organisations wishing to provide effective induction for PRTs. There were no signs, in any of these cases, that this was ‘the profession that eats its young’ (Halford, 1998, as cited in Schuck, 2003, p. 51). On the contrary, each site studied ‘nourished its young’ in deeply supportive ways. The schools were living examples of the type of environments that Bubb and Earley (2006) described as creating respectful, supportive learning communities in which new teachers receive equitable treatment. In turn, such environments should provide pupils with a better education and a chance for a more fulfilling future.
Figure 2. Features associated with effective induction.
References


