

i) Title Page

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**An exploration into the induction needs of new teachers through the lens of
Rousseau and Émilian Autodidacticism.**

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of Nottingham Trent University for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy.

2024

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ii) Acknowledgments

For my girls Aria, Brio, and Allegra. So that they will always know what a busy woman can achieve, and that they will know the value of persistence, even in times of hardship.

With thanks to my husband Dan, for the generosity, kindness, and encouragement that made this possible. You held this family together during the times when I could not.

With thanks to my supervisors Chris and Andy, for the support that made this possible.

With thanks to my parents, for the childcare that made this possible.

iii) Abstract

Title: An exploration into the induction needs of new teachers through the lens of Rousseau and Émilian Autodidacticism.

This thesis aims to fuse Rousseauian philosophy with educational praxis by evaluating teacher induction needs against the landscape of the autodidactic learning approach presented in Rousseau's *Émile*. Although this presents largely as a quantitative study, a mixed methods approach was used with a convergent design; reflexive thematic analysis and SPSS were used to analyse the data. Data included: a survey of both qualitative and quantitative design (n=159), and 7 interviews with 4 participants. *Émile*, forms the basis of the theoretical framework and is used to enhance the discussion pertaining to NQT needs, particularly from the perspective of mentorship.

The main themes were identified as: Performativity, Resources and Mentoring. The results showed that there were several issues identified in relation to the teachers' evidence portfolio. These were: lack of value, fatigue, repetition, and the notion that evidence collection was merely perfunctory. A one-way analysis of variance concluded that the higher the Ofsted rating, the more satisfied teachers are with the usefulness of lesson observations as part of their training programme. A regression correlation found that the older the teacher, the less likely they will be to see the value in observations. Teachers valued observing others, but this was a resource that was largely unavailable to them. Other resources such as pay, time, and lack of support were voiced as areas of concern and despite its protected status, most teachers were not receiving a reduced timetable. Finally, it was discovered that a good mentor was seen as being vitally important. Teachers suggested that the mentor should be available, should allow teachers autonomy and control of their learning, and that they should be given adequate time to mentor. Teachers were overwhelmingly in favour of an autodidactic induction approach. Émilian autodidactic philosophy was found to parallel the viewpoints of teachers in multifarious aspects such as: self-directed learning, observation, trust, autonomy, and mentoring style. A dichotomy was

observed regarding the overall induction programme- teachers wanted to complete their training by themselves, but they did not want to complete their training alone.

More than half of the respondents had considered leaving the profession, suggesting that listening to the voices of new teachers is vital, particularly in view of the current teacher recruitment and retention crisis.

iv) Researcher Biography

I have 20 years' experience teaching, teacher training, and lecturing in education which include three and a half years at an international university in Thailand as a full-time lecturer and BA programme leader, and four years part time as a sessional lecturer at Nottingham Trent University. Throughout my teaching career, I have been actively engaged with curriculum and policy development and have had a hand in shaping whole school policy and strategy. I have worked in various teaching roles: teaching English, teaching English as an Additional Language, as a Special Educational Needs Coordinator, and as Head of Inclusive Education. By far my most interesting role was in the development and training of new teachers, and my work leading initial teacher training for a large school centred initial teacher training organisation. Teacher education is a passion of mine, and this passion fuelled my interest in studying this area further. I have recently joined Nottingham Trent University as a full-time permanent member of lecturing staff. This role has allowed me to continue my research but has also brought me back to the classroom. I am happiest when I am teaching, learning, and supporting others.

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vi) Notes

Some small notes on language and acronyms:

During the period of my research, the term Early Career Teacher (ECT) replaced the term Newly Qualified Teacher (NQT). In this thesis, where the term NQT was used in its original format, I have kept it, equally, where the term ECT has been used, I have kept it. Please note that the terms ECT, NQT, and 'new teacher' or 'beginning teacher' can be used interchangeably; they all refer to new teachers on an induction course.

For the purposes of this study, I have chosen Bloom's translation of *Émile, or on Education* (1979) as I believe that it is closest to the original. Bloom, a linguist and talented translator, was also a well-known academic and philosopher, and therefore his vast experience and his background placed him well to understand and interpret Rousseau's words with accuracy and thoughtful consideration.

A glossary of terms and acronyms can be found in Appendices.

In the same way that data is interpreted, these are my own personal interpretations of *Émile*.

Chapter 1 – Introduction

“Our education begins with us.” (Rousseau, 1979, p. 92)

This thesis brings 18th century literature to 21st century teaching pedagogy and explores the needs of newly qualified teachers. Perhaps most importantly, it provides new teachers with a voice, and asks them what they want from their induction experience. Newly qualified teacher voices have been marginalised in the landscape of education reform. Since 2000, newly qualified teachers were encouraged to participate in an annual government led survey. The survey which contacted thousands of new teachers allowed teachers to voice their opinions on their induction experience. However, the last survey was published in 2017, and no reasons have been provided for the cessation of these surveys. This thesis will capture those lost voices and explore their needs in a changing political landscape of policy development and reform.

Newly qualified teacher voices are important. This thesis aims to listen to them, understand them, and champion them.

The introduction will be divided into 6 parts.

1. Overview
2. Rationale
3. Policy
4. Aims
5. Émile
6. Structure

1.1 Overview

Research Title: **An exploration into the induction needs of new teachers through the lens of Rousseau and Émilian Autodidacticism.**

At first glance, the research title looks deliberately complicated. This was unintentional. The word choice for the title evolved from a new term that was created during this study: 'Émilian Autodidacticism'. The emergence of this title is explored in more detail in the literature chapter (3.2). I am tentatively introducing this new term to describe a specific type of autodidacticism as detailed in, Rousseau's 'Émile, or on Education' (1979). This lens will be used as a theoretical framework to guide the study and the research questions, and therefore Émile cannot be separated from this study, in the same way that the voices of newly qualified teachers cannot be removed. They both form an integral part of the foundations and ontology of this work.

This thesis therefore aims to fuse Rousseauian philosophy with educational praxis by evaluating teacher induction needs against the landscape of the autodidactic learning approach presented in Rousseau's Émile. Two key research questions will guide the study:

1. What do newly qualified teachers need to support them in their induction?
2. Would an Émilian autodidactic approach be of interest to newly qualified teachers.

In this study Émile is used as a metaphor for newly qualified teachers, where the name 'Émile' or the word 'the child' is used it can therefore be directly substituted for the word 'newly qualified teacher', or in the context of mentoring, 'mentee'. The lessons learned in Émile will be assessed against the needs of the newly qualified teachers in this project. I will be focusing on the first three chapters of Émile which follow Émile from birth to late adolescence. I argue that Rousseau's educational philosophy has something to offer for all those interested in the practice of training newly qualified teachers and for teacher training and beyond; and that basing newly qualified teacher needs upon an 'Émilian' framework is personalised, autodidactic, and most importantly, it is a programme centred around the newly qualified teacher who is empowered to take control of their own learning.

1.2 Rationale

As the government continues to seek different routes into teacher recruitment (Mathou et al., 2023) and continues to change statutory guidance concerning teachers, we have an ever-changing cohort of new teachers, with ever changing needs. Spencer et al. (2018) suggest that these changes are not only down to guidance and routes into teaching but are part of wider “large-scale structural changes... that threaten the provision of professional development for teachers.” (Spencer, 2018, p.1).

England continues to have a long-standing problem with recruiting and retaining teachers (Perryman and Calvert, 2020). Wood (2019, p.1) suggests that the recruitment and retention problem is currently seeing a resurgence in England, and that it has a high-stake impact on the entire school mechanism: “Teacher workload is once again a political issue in England. It has become a major problem in the recruitment and retention of teachers – part of a wider teacher supply crisis which is having a negative impact on the school system.” Despite recent emphasis on reform and high-profile policy discourses such as those in the 2022 Initial Teacher Education Market Review pledging to make ‘England the best place in the world to become a great teacher’ (DfE, 2022a, np) this problem remains.

Attrition rates for Teachers in England are on the increase (Colognesi et al., 2020) and to further exacerbate this, we currently cannot recruit enough teachers; and we are also losing too many across the workforce. The latest figures from the School Workforce Survey (DfE, 2021a) purport that there was a rise of 4,400 more teachers overall in the profession in 2021. However, this statistic is misleading as it does not show us the accurate picture in context. It does not take into consideration a growing population that is due to grow even faster over the upcoming years (Office for National Statistics, 2021), and that we welcomed 88,000 more children into our education system than we did the previous year (Schools, pupils and their characteristics, DfE, 2022b). From an international perspective, pupil to teacher ratios in England are amongst the highest in the OECD (2023) and these are also on the rise in England.

Another concern is that data from the same survey (DfE, 2022b) shows that the overwhelming majority of teachers leaving the profession are not retirees, but ‘out of service teachers’. This may suggest that qualified teachers are leaving the profession because they are unsatisfied in their roles.

Figure 1: Teachers leaving the profession (2020/2021)

Group	Number
Deceased	18
Retired	4,217
Out of Service Teachers	32,026
Total	36,262

The Education Policy Institute’s study (Sibieta, 2020) confirms that these teachers are a growing cohort that are leaving to pursue other careers away from teaching and that new teachers form part of this growing cohort.

The teacher retention and recruitment problem is not only limited to England but is also notably present across the world. See et al., (2020) tell us that this issue has ‘plagued’ many countries for decades. Furthermore, Caspersen and Raaen (2014) discuss how the initial period of induction is a vulnerable one for teachers across the globe, with many leaving early on as they struggle to cope with the demands of the job. This is often referred to as ‘practice shock’ in the profession (Ballanytyne and Retell, 2020; Voss and Kunter, 2020) and is not only related to the UK context but observed globally for beginning teachers. Ballantyne and Retell (2020) conclude that a focus on well-being and teacher self-efficacy is important in managing practice shock. See et al., (2020, p.2) suggest that shortages in teaching globally are linked to “people leaving the profession prematurely” they also go further to suggest that although some turnover is expected in all professions, there is a higher degree of turnover specifically in teaching, particularly for new teachers starting their careers.

The government's school workforce survey (DfE, 2021a) shows that newly qualified teachers are leaving teaching early on in their careers.

Figure 2: Percentage of teachers still in service after the first two years of qualifying.

	Percentage of teachers still in service 1 year after qualifying	Percentage of teachers still in service 2 years after qualifying
2016	84.9	77.6
2017	85.1	78.3
2018	85.4	80.9
2019	88.3	82.7
2020	87.6	80.1
2021	87.2	x

Source: School workforce census (2021), Database of Teacher Records, Database of Qualified Teachers

In 2020, 12.4% leave within the first year of teaching with this rising to almost 20% within their second year of teaching, this further rises with each consecutive year. The School Workforce Census (2021) also shows that the number of newly qualified entrants has decreased from 50% to 45%, the remaining percentages are attributed to returners to the profession and deferred newly qualified entrants.

The recruitment and retention of newly qualified teachers is by no means a novel problem, Worth et al (2017) suggest that the issue has been ongoing for the last fifteen years and that it shows no signs of abating. Losing teachers so early on in their careers is particularly concerning because training new teachers and recruiting them to the profession is expensive. Sorensen and Ladd (2020 p.1) tell us that:

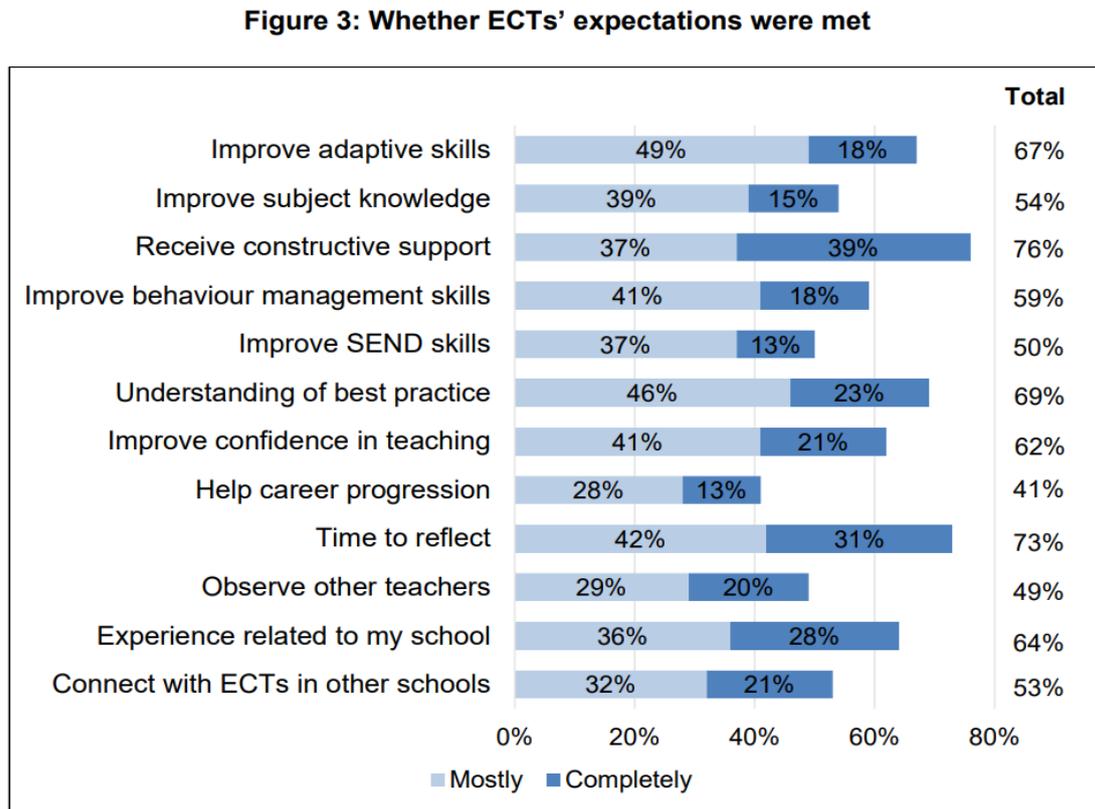
“High teacher turnover imposes numerous burdens on the schools and districts from which teachers depart. Some of these burdens are explicit and take the form of recruiting, hiring, and training costs. Others are more hidden and take the form of changes to the composition and quality of the teaching staff.”

We are losing new teachers quickly, and this is a costly and poor use of resources. The Department for Education (DfE) (DfE, 2019a) have now acknowledged attrition rates as problematic and there was an attempt to address the issue in their policy paper: Teacher recruitment and retention strategy. This paper consequently fed into the newly reformed Early Career Framework (DfE, 2019b) which implemented changes to the training and development of newly qualified teachers (NQTs) - now referred to as early career teachers (ECTs). Significantly, since the enactment of the new policy, ECTs would now have access to a two-year induction programme, and the creation of a new mentor role has emerged. This role is in addition to the previous role of induction tutor which incorporated assessor and mentor into one. The NFER are at time of writing undertaking research on the early roll out of the new two-year induction programme, but the findings are unlikely to be published until at least 2024, with research still ongoing in 2023 (NFER, 2023, np). The Department for Education (DfE, 2023a) have published an evaluation of the early roll out of the new induction programme, but data was only collected during the first two terms of the roll out. In this interim report the two key challenges identified were related to the criticism of the provider led training with trainees claiming that the previous induction was better than the new one offered. The paper claimed that expectations had been met in terms of satisfaction of the new early career teachers, particularly in the area of mentoring:

“The area with the highest proportion of ECTs reporting their expectations were met relates to mentoring – having non-judgemental guidance and constructive support – which was also considered the most important expectation for the induction programme among ECTs. For this aspect, by the end of the first year, 37% reported their expectations had been mostly met, and 39% reported they had been completely

met. This was followed by having time to reflect on learning and experiences (42% mostly and 31% completely met) and gaining a deeper understanding of evidence-based good and best practice (46% mostly and 23% completely met).” (DfE, 2023a, p19)

Figure 3: Whether ECTs’ expectations were met.



Source: The Department for Education (DfE, 2023a)

The report suggested that 76% of expectations had been met regarding mentoring. It is not clear however what the feelings were of the other 24% ECTs leaving an area open for further research and discussion. Only 49% of new teachers had their expectations met regarding observing other teachers. It is worth highlighting here that this is an interim report which does not therefore provide a full picture of the two-year programme. My body of research will offer some early recommendations for the shaping of this new role and insights into the voices of teachers regarding the changes; both areas of ‘mentoring’ and ‘observing others’ will be discussed in detail in the findings.

In international literature, Courtney et al's., (2023) large-scale systematic review of international perspectives of teacher induction tells us that the following measures are suggested as good practice:

1. Inductions programmes of at least one year
2. Support and training for mentors
3. Observing others
4. Reducing teaching contact time
5. Observations with feedback
6. Helping teachers connect learning to their practice.

The European Commission alongside the EACEA and Eurydice (2021) published a large-scale report on lower secondary Teachers in Europe, and their careers, development and well-being. This report focused on 43 education systems in 37 countries. Chapter 2 focused solely on Initial teacher education and new teacher induction. They tell us that:

“Induction for newly-qualified teachers is understood here as a structured support phase that lasts at least several months. During this phase, teachers carry out wholly or partially the tasks incumbent on experienced teachers, and are remunerated for their work. Induction has important formative and supportive components; it usually includes additional training as well as personalised help and advice.” (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2021, p.74).

The report found that the UK had the largest proportion of newly qualified teachers who took part in formal induction training (72%) in comparison to all other European countries. It also reported that the majority of European countries, including England, have a formal appraisal process at the end of the induction period, apart from: Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Finland, Sweden, Switzerland, Norway and Turkey.

Czerniawski's (2007, 2011) earlier work looked at the values of newly qualified teachers, both in England and abroad, and explored how these values shape the identities of teachers. Czerniawski's work is significant as it listened to the voices of 32 new teachers and explored their views; it also looked at "what part is played by national pedagogic traditions, national policy contexts and institutional settings in the changing values of newly qualified teachers" (2007, p.17). My own study will explore the influence of national policies and traditions on the needs of teachers – these include the Early Career Framework (DfE, 2019b), The Induction for Early Career Teachers (DfE, 2021b) and the sphere of influence that the tradition of observation, and Ofsted have on new teachers. A further example of newly qualified teacher research is Hobson's (2009) study on beginner teacher's perceptions and experiences of support, which focuses on the power of mentorship. The importance of mentoring was a theme that also came through strongly in my own research.

Other more recent examples of literature that focus on new teachers include: Spencer et al. (2018) who investigated the professional development needs of newly qualified teachers; and Colognesi et al. (2020) who explored the role of informal learning in the development of new teachers. Spencer et al. (2018) found that although the needs of newly qualified teachers in their study had been addressed to some extent, they were not fully met and that ongoing historic issues continue to cause problems "well documented problems faced by early career teachers have not disappeared; they feel overworked, overloaded, and stressed." (Spencer et al., 2018, p.43). Gorard (2017) suggests that further research is needed in this area of newly qualified teacher needs as NQT satisfaction rates show some unexplained variations and these variations remain largely unexplored.

Gaps exist in the study of teacher induction needs and changes to the frameworks that aim to support new teachers are ongoing and in a constant state of flux. The new Early Career Framework (DfE, 2019b) is not without fault and has already received some criticism from academic groups (see UCET, 2022). Couple this with the recent withdrawal of the newly qualified teacher survey, which silenced the voices of many, my study represents a unique and timely contribution to the research of new teachers and the reform of induction policy.

Furthermore, this study's lens of Émilian Autodidacticism has not been attempted before and offers an unusual approach to the teaching and learning of new teachers.

Wainwright, Aldridge et al., (2020, p.2) write about the importance of new and flexible perspectives in educational research:

“The history of education and this presumption of interdisciplinarity, at some level and in some ways, sets it apart from and at an advantage to many other subject areas. Its boundaries must then, self-evidently, be porous and malleable, and the field open to collaborations, new perspectives, and directions.”

I believe that my philosophical framework offers the new perspective that is needed for research to provide a unique outlook, as well as provide a unique lens from which to view the induction needs of newly qualified teachers.

1.3 Policy

These reviews aim to summarise the previous (NQT) and current (ECT) teacher guidance. Many of the areas mentioned in these reviews relate directly to areas of interest in the data that this study uncovers. It is important to have an understanding of the guidance for new teachers in order to engage with the findings of this study and also to understand the implications of this study. Rolph (2023 p.7) discusses the complex nature of policy enactment and implementation in education. He tells us that:

“The richness and diversity of educational settings makes for particularly multifaceted policy implementation which may change over time and from one specific context to another.”

This is an important point since the diverse context of individual school settings affect how policies are implemented. The added complication to this is that policy relating to newly qualified teachers has been through a period of intense reform recently which suggests that how policy is interpreted and implemented in schools is complex, fluctuating, and unique to the individual school. Therefore, although these reviews are needed to both contextualise and examine the fast-changing educational landscape for new teachers, it is worth noting that variations in educational establishments do exist and that these will be heterogenous.

Some notes:

There was an overlap in collecting survey data with regards to the implementation of changes resulting from the Early Career Framework. The vast majority of survey participants in this study were receiving induction programmes based on the previous 2018 NQT induction model, but some survey participants were noted to be part of the early roll out group of the new 2021 early career teacher model, which launched in the autumn of 2020.

The focus of the policy discussion undernoted is on the new framework and how it *differs* from the previous framework. This is relevant as it feeds into the recommendations of this study and the future of teachers on induction programmes. Consequently, it provides the most recent information on the topic of teacher induction in England.

1.3(i) The Early Career Framework (2019)

The Early Career Framework (DfE, 2019b) was created by the Department for Education (DfE) with the help of the Education Endowment Foundation (EEF). It looked to reform the framework for Early Career Teachers (ECTs) in England and hoped to provide guidelines for a more consistent approach to the induction process for ECTs. The framework came into force in September 2021 and included some major changes. The development of the framework was designed by the DfE with collaboration from an Expert Advisory Group that consisted of “teachers, school leaders, academics, and experts” (p.4). Although the government sets out a new set of standards for the Early Career Framework, they make it clear that these standards should not be used as an assessment focus and that new teachers should not be expected to collect evidence against these new standards. However, there is also a supporting document explaining the framework for school inspections of the ECF which possibly could prompt the need for further evidence collecting for Ofsted. The content of the ECF standards is similar to the Teachers’ Standards and follows the 8 standards of part one.

The Standards are divided into 8 areas:

1. High Expectations
2. How Pupils Learn
3. Subject and Curriculum
4. Classroom Practice
5. Adaptive Teaching
6. Assessment
7. Managing Behaviour
8. Professional Standards

The document explains that the ECF covers five main areas that feed into the Teachers’ Standards (DfE, 2019b, p.4). They are:

1. Behaviour management (S1 and S7)
2. Pedagogy (S2, S4, S5)

3. Curriculum (S3)
4. Assessment (S6)
5. Professional behaviours (S8)

One of the main changes that appeared in this document was the move from a one-year induction period to a two-year induction period for new teachers, the promise of support from a mentor, reduced timetable to enable learning, and regular review and assessment periods. Funding is also available for the ECF, and three different options of programmes are available for schools to choose from:

1. A provider-led induction programme which would essentially be free and funded in its entirety by the DfE. Schools must choose a provider from a set list.
2. School based programme which draws upon materials provided for free by the DfE.
3. School's own.

The providers that schools can choose from are as follows: The Ambition Institute, Best Practice Network, Capita, Education Development Trust, Teach First, and UCL.

NFER has been commissioned by the Education Endowment Foundation (EEF) to evaluate the impact of the ECF with a focus on whether it helps to lower the attrition rates of new teachers. Other aims include the impact on workload, teaching, and teacher self-efficacy. The study will aim to collect the viewpoints of teachers, mentors, and senior leaders, and the data will be collected over a period of three years, from July 2020 to December 2023 with the results thought to be ready for publishing in 2024. The EFF also asked UCL to carry out a pilot evaluation. However, it is worth noting that as UCL are a provider of the new programme, we cannot refer to them as independent researchers in this context. UCL (Researchers evaluate the impact of the Early Career Framework in schools, 2020) found the following: Teachers enjoyed the research-based resources provided, and that the new programme has the potential to focus on teacher development which could lead to better teaching and potentially an increase in job satisfaction and job retention rates. UCL also found that workload could increase if these programmes ran in addition to existing programmes at the school. The research also discovered that the framework needs to link

to the school and the specific needs of the teacher in order to be successful. Some mentors were able to do this, but this could present as a time-consuming challenge.

Despite its relative novelty, the ECF has already been analysed by various focus groups and academics. UCET (2022) in their analysis of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for Teachers, looked at the ECF and made some informed comments. The group thought that whilst there were positives to the guidance, namely, acknowledgement of the importance of mentoring, a focus on well-being, and a structured programme; they suggested that there were limitations to the new ECF, and potential problems associated with it. These concerns included a similarity to the content of the Initial Teacher Training, meaning that new teachers are likely to repeat material and that this material is likely to be generic and not at all personalised to the school or the teacher. There are problems associated with learning material that is delivered solely from an external provider. Spencer et al, (2018) suggests that this approach means that the material is 'decontextualised' and therefore lacks the personal element needed to facilitate the unique learning needs of new teachers. Cronin (2023) agrees and states that there is no understanding in the early career framework of the importance of contextualising and personalising resources to suit the school of the early career teacher and the mentor:

"There is no explicit acknowledgement in the ECF of the need to adapt the content to take account of the schools' context in which the mentor and early career teacher are working." (2023, p.3)

Other concerns are centred around the ECF's claims of being deeply guided by the best possible research. UCET considered that the ECF had a 'limited research base.'" (UCET, 2022, p.4). There were further issues associated with the new framework - a report commissioned by the Gatsby Foundation found that: "Just 2% of mentors and 4% of ECTs say that the self-study material they have used has been specialised to their subject or phase." (Ford et al., 2023, p.2). This large-scale study also intimated that the new framework added to the already overburdened workload of early career teachers, and that much of the programme is a repeat of Initial Teacher Training. Cronin (2023) agrees that the new early career framework adds to the workload of teachers and goes even

further to suggest that the framework is performative and will increase levels of accountability (Cronin, 2023). This will therefore have a direct impact on not only the workload of early career teachers, but their mentors and tutors also.

1.3 (ii) The Induction for Early Career Teachers (2021)

This review aims to summarise the new induction guidance for Early Career Teachers and make reference to what has changed from the previous guidance related to Newly Qualified Teachers.

As a means of supporting new teachers, reforms were made to the induction of new teachers that were based on the new Early Career Framework (DfE, 2019b). The Induction for Early Career Teachers (DfE, 2021b) extended the induction period for new teachers from one year to two years, with this coming into force in September 2021. The guidance is statutory meaning that it is required by law. Although, teacher induction is only a legal requirement for teachers in Local Authority schools, this guidance is also largely followed by all types of schools in England, including Academies and the Independent Sector.

This guidance was reformed during my research and there were a number of significant changes to the induction guidance. The term Newly Qualified Teacher (NQT) was replaced by Early Career Teacher (ECT). Another significant change (as mentioned previously) was the move from a one-year induction to a two-year induction. This change also impacts the protected time that new teachers gain in order to complete their induction learning. Teachers will receive the usual 10% reduction in timetabled teaching in Year 1 and additionally a further 5% in year two. The third change relates to the new Early Career Framework which the induction programme should follow – this came into force in September 2019. There were also some changes in relation to the roles that support the new teacher. A new mentoring role was introduced – this was in addition to the induction tutor role. The guidance states that regular progress reviews should take place and there will be two formal assessment points, one mid-way through the programme and one at the

end. Adjustments have been also made for ad hoc absences and for those teachers working part time to reflect the longer induction period.

The requirement to pass the induction period first time, or face being struck off the Teachers' register still exists. The induction document states that no repetitions of the induction can take place. A quick scan of induction programmes in other sectors (see the UK Police force for example) shows this to be an unusual choice, particularly for a profession that is currently undergoing a recruitment and retention crisis.

The Induction document emphasizes the importance of a reduced timetable and the rationale behind the repeated use of the modal verb 'must'; emphasizes the importance of this obligation. This guidance is not new and the requirement for a reduced timetable was also emphasised in the previous induction model. The updated version includes a further, smaller reduction for the new year two of the programme:

"In the first year (terms 1-3) of induction an ECT must not teach more than 90% of the timetable of the school's existing teachers on the main pay range and in the second year (terms 4-6) of induction must not teach more than 95%. This time off timetable should be used to specifically enable ECTs to undertake activities in their induction programme. This is in addition to the timetable reduction in respect of planning, preparation and assessment time (PPA) that all teachers receive. ECTs in independent schools, academies and free schools, BSOs, independent nursery schools and FE colleges must also have a reduced timetable on a comparable basis."
(DfE, 2021b, p.15)

The guidance also sets out that all teachers regardless of the type of school must be awarded a reduced timetable on this basis.

The support and assessment offered to teachers is summarised as follows (p.19):

- Regular one to one mentoring sessions from a designated mentor
- Support and guidance from a designated induction tutor
- Observation of the ECT's teaching with written feedback provided
- Reviews of progress conducted by the induction tutor to set and review development targets against the Teachers' Standards
- ECT's given the opportunity to observe experienced teachers

The roles of the mentor and induction tutor are different. Previously, the tutor would perform both roles. The role of the induction tutor is now to simply assess the teacher against the teaching standards at the relevant points – this includes regular observations and the two formal progress review points. The mentor should offer a full package of mentoring support. The guidance recognises that this is a role, vital to the success of the mentee and emphasises that the mentor needs to be “given adequate time to carry out the role effectively and to meet the needs of the early career teacher. This includes “...attending regular mentoring sessions and mentor training where appropriate.” (DfE, 2021b, p.20).

The advice for evidence collecting in this induction guidance could be interpreted as contradictory. The guidance states that evidence will need to be collected for a successful assessment and that the teacher will need to draw on existing and working documents. This contradicts the advice by the same guidance that suggests that evidence gathering should not be burdensome and that there should not be a need for teachers to create something new. The very definition of a working document suggests that it is a document that is being added to on an ongoing process. The documentation further explains that the assessment will be based on the Teachers' Standards, which in turn encourages teachers to collect and create evidence based on all 9 sections of the Teachers Standards. These 9 sections are then divided into separate bullet points that amount to 42 separate aspects and therefore 42 separate pieces of evidence.

Page 34 of the document details what the Early Career Teacher is expected to do. The list is exhaustive. It very clearly states that evidence needs to be collected against the Teachers' Standards. The teachers' main obligations are summarised here:

- Provide evidence that they have QTS.
- Meet with their induction tutor to discuss and agree priorities for their induction programme and keep these under review.
- Agree with their induction tutor how best to use their reduced timetable allowance.
- Provide evidence of their progress against the Teachers' Standards.
- Participate fully in the agreed monitoring and development programme.
- Keep track of and participate effectively in the scheduled classroom observations, progress reviews and formal assessment meetings. (DfE, 2021b, p.34)

Again, a call for evidence of progress is noted and a system of tracking observations and assessments. This could be interpreted as burdensome and adding to workload.

To conclude, some key points to take away that will feed directly into my findings:

- The Induction period has been extended to two years.
- Reduced timetable is a statutory requirement.
- Mentors should be given ample time to fulfil their duties.
- ECTs should have the opportunity to observe others.
- There should be no burdensome evidence collection.

At time of writing, a further reform was made regarding the Induction for Early Career Teachers, an updated induction document was published April 2023 (DfE, 2023b). This new guidance will come into effect from September 2023. The changes do not address the workload or time issues that early career teachers face but focus instead on the appropriate bodies and further paperwork accountability. The main changes are as follows:

- Only schools and organisations that have been approved by the government will be able to act as appropriate bodies. Local authorities will have a limited capacity to act as appropriate bodies.
- Schools need to provide the appropriate bodies with all the paperwork associated with the induction process.

1.4 Aims

Maxwell (2013) refers to aims as goals: personal, intellectual and practical. I believe that these aims are all heavily intertwined and can work symbiotically to give purpose and drive to the research. Maxwell (2013) also tells us that research questions add specificity to the project and tell the readers more specifically what the research aims to find out.

The research questions for this project are:

1. What do newly qualified teachers need to support them in their induction?
2. Would an Émilian autodidactic approach be of interest to newly qualified teachers?

General Aims

From a personal perspective, the overarching aim of this study represents my personal hopes and dreams for the future of new teachers – a hope for a kinder induction approach that supports new teachers in the way that they want to be supported. Glesne and Peshkin (1992) believe that personal goals are deeply rooted in the researchers' own identity and values and therefore have the power to catalyse research projects. My identity as a teacher, and my values as an empath have certainly influenced this study, right from its embryonic beginnings.

From an intellectual perspective. I would hope that this study will inform, by listening, exploring, and championing the views of newly qualified teachers. Exploring in this way is useful as it helps with understanding the meaning of the situation and experiences of the participants in a study (Maxwell, 2013). From an epistemological perspective, this study

aims to provide knowledge in an area where gaps exist and add to the educational bank of theoretical research.

This knowledge will come from the analysis of the personal perspectives of newly qualified teachers. The personal perspectives of newly qualified teachers are valuable new data and can therefore be used to inform policy and practice. Consequently, from a practical perspective I hope that these perspectives will provide a platform of discussion for the further reform needed to satisfy new teachers' induction needs – reform that is also guided by the voices of the newly qualified teachers, and not only by the policy makers.

These will be explored through a mixed methods large-scale survey of 159 participants, and 7 interviews with 4 participants.

To gain an overview of newly qualified teacher needs and what they perceive the value of the support that they currently receive, I will be looking at the support structures of mentorship, lesson observations, teacher training and workshops, subject specific training, reduced timetable, observing other teachers, team teaching, mastership (further studies), common planning time and union support. These will be assessed using quantitative data from the survey.

The survey is mainly a quantitative study, but two key qualitative questions were asked with unlimited space for free text answers:

1. [How do you rate your NQT experience?] Why?
2. What would make your NQT experience better?

Four newly qualified teachers were invited to explore their needs further through an interview where deeper questioning was deployed. 3 of the 4 were interviewed twice to gain further insights into their needs.

1.5 Émile- A Precis

Whilst it is not vital for those reading this thesis to have read *Émile*; as *Émile* is such an integral part of this study and acts as both theory and data, it is important that I devote some time to it by introducing the work and discussing some of the more important aspects of *Émile* that feature in my study. I do however, wholeheartedly recommend reading *Émile* – it is in my view, an unusual literary treat.

Rousseau (1712-1778) was a Genevan philosopher of the Enlightenment era. He wrote *Émile, or on Education* in 1766 and although it is often referred to as a seminal work, little is known of it in wider society. This is a real pity as Rousseau considered that *Émile* was his best work (Bloom, 1979). More is known about his other discourses such as the *Social Contract*, *The confessions of Jean-Jacques Rousseau*, and *A Discourse on Inequality*. If you ask an educator, if they have heard of *Émile*, many will answer yes. But if you ask an educator, if they have read *Émile*, the answer is more often no. *Émile* is known, yet unknown; highly regarded, yet not regarded at all – and in a sense this is befitting, as Rousseau himself is a self-confessed man of many paradoxes.

Perhaps his most famous paradox is the opening line of the *Social Contract*: “Man is born free, and everywhere he is in chains”. This quote arguably encapsulates Rousseau’s overall philosophical outlook and can also be applied to *Émile*, where formal education can be seen to enchain. “One enchains, pushes, and restrains”. (Rousseau, 1979, p.92)

In *Émile*, Rousseau writes that truth can be found in paradoxes, and this truth-seeking forms the start of the journey that we are taken on when we read *Émile*. *Émile* follows the story of a fictional boy (*Émile*) and his mentor (Rousseau) from birth to adulthood, through an ontogenesis of learning stages. Although the work is meant as a treatise, it very much reads like a novel, and at times, it can read like the real-life philosophical musings of a Rousseauian journal. It feels so authentic that Scott (2012) suggests that the role of author and mentor in the book become blurred. There is a personal quality to the writing, and we can easily imagine that Rousseau is talking directly to us, but it is not often clear in what capacity.

Lindsay (2016 p.1) states that “Émile tells a story and, in so doing, does not explicitly tell us how to guide a child’s education; it leads by example”. This citation introduces to us Rousseau’s pedagogy of autodidacticism. Rousseau championed a form of autodidacticism that could be viewed as extreme. It places the emphasis on learning entirely on the learner who is encouraged to learn from his natural surroundings with very little input from his mentor. Rousseau’s mentoring style was so focused on learning only from the environment that he did not even allow Émile to read books until he reached adolescence, believing that they would act as a corrupting influence on the child. And even then, the first book Émile was given to read was Defoe’s classic, *Robinson Crusoe* – possibly the ultimate survival book that places autodidacticism at the centre of its values.

The book was hugely controversial for the time, so much so that it distressed The Church and The French Government to the point where a warrant was issued for his arrest; this resulted in him seeking asylum in Switzerland (Dunn, 2002).

1.5 (i) Émile – Book 1

“Our Education begins with us.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.42)

The book begins with the birth of Émile and Émile’s very early life, and a discussion about the neglect and restraint of babies in society. Rousseau explains to us that whilst born free, we are in fact, not free. One of the very first experiences we have in life, is to have our freedoms removed; to be swaddled; to be enchained: “Hardly has the baby emerged from the mother’s womb, and hardly has he enjoyed the freedom to move and stretch his limbs before he is given new bonds.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.43). Rousseau paints a rather grotesque picture of babies practically abandoned, thrown into corners, swaddled to a stifling degree, or practically crucified and hanging on coat hooks from walls (p.44): “At the slightest trouble that arises he is hung from a nail like a sack of clothes”. Rousseau explains to us that a child’s first ideas are of ‘domination and servitude’ (p.48) and that these are cast upon him by society. These striking images already hint to us at lost freedoms and forced restrictions.

Rousseau suggests that mothers are largely absent, and rather controversially for the time, that they ought to breast feed their babies and relinquish the need for wet nurses. He talks

of fathers passing their children onto boarding schools rather than caring for them themselves. The scene is therefore already set for a provocative discourse - one which advocates care, freedom, and autodidacticism above all else.

The first book focuses on Émile's early childhood and proposes a truly natural and autodidactic learning process: "Observe nature and follow the path it maps out for you." (p. 47). Rousseau tells us that children should learn from nature and their surroundings. Here they will learn to run free and will choose their own futures. This autodidactic process starts from the outset and proposes that children should be left to their own devices as they already have the intrinsic capability to learn. Rousseau sees the world as Émile's teacher and play book. Émile is encouraged to learn through play and through his natural environment. Anything else is seen as a corruptive influence. Rousseau here also begins to hint at specific aspects of his autodidactic approach, namely that his student should not be mollycoddled or over protected. Émile is encouraged to make mistakes, and even to put himself in potentially dangerous situations, as all of this will allow him to learn from his own experiences.

It is in this first book that Rousseau also begins to lay out some aspects of his mentoring methodology. He explains that a mentor should be there for the child for however long the child needs and that the mentor should act as a companion, sharing the enjoyments of the child – above all there should be commonality. It is here that we are also introduced to Rousseau's Maxims, summarised here:

1. Encourage the child's strengths.
2. Supplement the child's weaknesses.
3. Only give the child what is useful (what it needs, not what it wants).
4. Study the child.

These maxims will be explored later in the Resources chapter and revisited in the Conclusion.

1.5 (ii) *Émile - Book 2*

“Let him know it learn it feel it.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.91)

Book 2 moves away from infancy and towards the childhood of *Émile* and *Émile* is further encouraged to continue to learn from his environment and to learn for himself. Autodidacticism is promoted from the very first steps:

“...is there anything more foolish than the effort made to teach them (babies) to walk, as if anyone were ever seen who, due to his nurse’s negligence, did not when grown know how to walk.” (Rousseau, 1979 p.78).

Rousseau elaborates that society is too focused on protecting the child, hovering around them whilst they take their first steps. If children fall, they will get up and learn from it- and this metaphor is a strong thread running throughout *Émile*: allow the child to make mistakes and allow them to learn from them: “Let him fall a hundred times a day. So much the better. That way he will learn how to get up sooner.” (p.78)

In this book, Rousseau first discusses the formal classroom, and argues to reject formal schooling and suggests that children learn best from studying nature and their environment. This in turn will produce a generation of self-starters and independent learners, who will fully understand how the universe works by being properly engaged and immersed in it. Rousseau believes that the best classroom is not one where children sit quietly with books behind desks, but the outdoors, where they can be free and make the most of their physical strengths and satiate their curiosity of the world. He does not believe in a didactic classroom, far from it, he says: “Do not give your pupil any kind of verbal lesson; he ought to receive them only from experience.” (p. 92). Rousseau’s strength of feeling is made clear here when he compares the life of a child in formal education as to that of a ‘galley slave’. Care and humanism are again mentioned here as important in mentoring and above all promoting a love of learning. Rousseau tells us to ‘live until our last hour’ as time is not to be wasted, we can learn a great deal from the busy enthusiasm of a child.

Rousseau is often painted as cold (Rousseau famously abandoned his five illegitimate children), but little is said about Rousseau's love and care towards his mentee. I argue that love, care and attention is a strong theme that struck me as profound throughout the treatise. It is best summed up in book two: "If you do not also open your heart, others' hearts will always remain closed to you. It is your time, your care, your affection, it is yourself that must be given." (p.94).

The love of the mentee and the love of the subject is relatable to Aldridge's (2019) concept of "Education's Love Triangle". This love triangle is described as a deeply complicated (and sometimes dark) triangulation of separate parts where the love of the mentor, mentee, and subject can come together to create a higher form of love. It is this obsessive, paradoxical all-encompassing love that I believe is not too dissimilar to the driving force behind Rousseau's relationship between Emile, education, and his own intrapersonal philosophies.

In book two we are also introduced to Rousseau's quiet, non-judgemental observation.

1.5 (iii) Émile - Book 3

"To feed his curiosity, never hurry to satisfy it. Put the questions within his reach and leave them to him to resolve." (Rousseau, 1979, p.168)

In this section, Émile is reaching towards adulthood and Rousseau encourages him to choose a specialism and for the specialism to be something that Émile loves. This stage of learning is dedicated to intellectualism and playing on the mentee's strengths. The curriculum that Rousseau believes in should be personalised and built around the student and their interests – this is the only way that you can satiate the student's curiosity and encourage their love of learning. By learning about something that you are passionate about, you encourage curiosity, and this develops the desire for knowledge and deeper learning. Rousseau argues that curiosity is the catalyst for learning and without this, there is no education.

1.5 (iv) Émile- Epilogue

It can be somewhat difficult for the modern reader to see that most of Rousseau's philosophies and pedagogies were controversial and shocking for the time they went to print (1762). This is perhaps testament to the fact that many of Rousseau's ideas are still prevalent today and exist under various guises. To name a few: learning through play, a love of learning, self-directed learning, situated learning, and informal learning. This is what makes Émile relevant even hundreds of years on, and this is what makes this thesis relevant. There is much to be learned from Émile and its timeless lessons. There is no research published that relates these teachings to the learning of new teachers, and therefore this study offers a unique opportunity to investigate Émilian autodidacticism against the backdrop of the learning of early career teachers. I argue that Rousseau still has a lot to offer us today and that his philosophies are useful to the learning and teaching of new teachers. Rousseau's work is often politically charged, but this too ties in with modern education in England, where politics and education often cannot be separated. He is both teacher, politician, and philosopher. This sentiment is best summarised and encapsulated by the words of Riley (2011, p.1):

“Jean-Jacques Rousseau is widely, and correctly, viewed as the greatest political philosopher of the French Enlightenment. He is also widely, and correctly, viewed as the most important philosopher of education in the 18th century.”

Although Émile has had a huge influence on education systems and pedagogy (Masters, 2015), Rousseau himself did not view Émile as a pedagogical teaching, but rather as a philosophical one: “It is a rather philosophic work on the principle, advanced by the author in other writings, that man is naturally good.” (Rousseau, Letter to Cramer, 1764, p.339 cited in: Masters, 2015).

Rousseau believed that Émile was the manifestation of his philosophical ideological dream and that the book is there for those of us who are awake to learn from it:

“I will be told that I too dream. I agree; but I give my dreams as dreams, which others are not careful to do, leaving it to the reader to find out whether they contain something useful for people who are awake.” (cited in: Schaeffer, 2014, p.179)

I would argue that new policies can begin with someone’s dream. Whether it is the dream of the researcher, the participants, or the readers. Dreams are important in catalysing change. This thesis hopes to catalyse that change needed for fulfilling the needs of newly qualified teachers and making their experience better in the future.

1.5 (v) The missing parts of Émile – Books 4 and 5

The informed reader may notice the absence of Books 4 and 5 from this precis and this thesis. This was a deliberate choice due to the irrelevance and potential offence of some of the books’ core themes in modern society.

Book 4 is a section that has theology at its core, a topic which is not directly relevant to the training of newly qualified teachers in this study. Perhaps its main peculiarity is that the focus of the treatise here shifts from Émile, onto The Savoyard Priest, and Rousseau’s own theological observations and upbringing. Dent (2008 p.28) writes that: “It is said that the figure of the priest, and some of the thoughts he expresses, are based in part on two people Rousseau encountered earlier in his life.” It is mainly because of this shift in focus, that it was not included in this study. In a similar way, Book 5 shifts away from Émile and meanders towards another character. In Book 5 we are introduced to Sophie, Émile’s love interest. It is here that we are also introduced to Rousseau’s views on the education of women, which can be described at best as misogynistic. His views were heavily criticised by arguably one of the greatest early feminists of our time, Mary Wollstonecraft. Although Mary Wollstonecraft was influenced by Rousseau (Reuter, 2017) she abhorred his views on the education of women and wrote a scathing review of Rousseau’s education of Sophie (Émile, Book 5) in her paper, *a Vindication of the Rights of Woman* (2014). This book was not included in the study partly because of its irrelevant and extreme views, but also, as with book 4, because of the shift in focus from Émile, towards another character.

1.7 Structure

The thesis is divided into seven chapters: Introduction, Methods, Literature, Performativity, Mentoring, Resources, and Conclusion.

Methods – Chapter 2

This chapter aims to tell the methodological story right from its wistful beginnings to its final execution. It aims to rationalise the decisions that led to the creation of the research question, the conceptual framework, and the research design. It also discusses my own philosophical outlook and the interests and values that initiated my research; this also includes a discussion on the contested theme of Identity. The central themes of performativity, mentoring, and resources are introduced; and I discuss the details of how Émile emerged as a central philosophical framework. The story of the methods will be told via a chronological research narrative that concludes with a timeline of the research.

Literature – Chapter 3

The third Chapter is the Literature Review, this contains five sub sections: Autodidacticism and Émilian Autodidacticism, The Philosophy of Needs, Performativity, Mentoring, and an overview of Teacher Induction. The Literature introduces some of the ideas that shaped the research, and also provides a backdrop for the conversation in the discussion of the findings.

Findings – Chapters 4,5 and 6

This section has been divided into the themes that were created by the research: Performativity, Mentoring, and Resources. Findings are presented, analysed, and discussed simultaneously and summarised by a tabulated triangulation of results (interviews, qualitative data from surveys, and quantitative data from surveys).

Conclusion – Chapter 7

Finally, the conclusion aims to bring the three main sections together, summarising the findings and suggesting recommendations for future research and practice. This will be followed by a reflection on the challenges of the PhD and an overview of lessons learned. Although reflections are not always included in doctoral work, I believe these to be of value

here. This thesis not only explored the learning experiences of newly qualified teachers, but also explored and exposed my own learning experiences.

Chapter 2- Methods

This chapter aims to describe the methodological story. It is divided into the following sub sections.

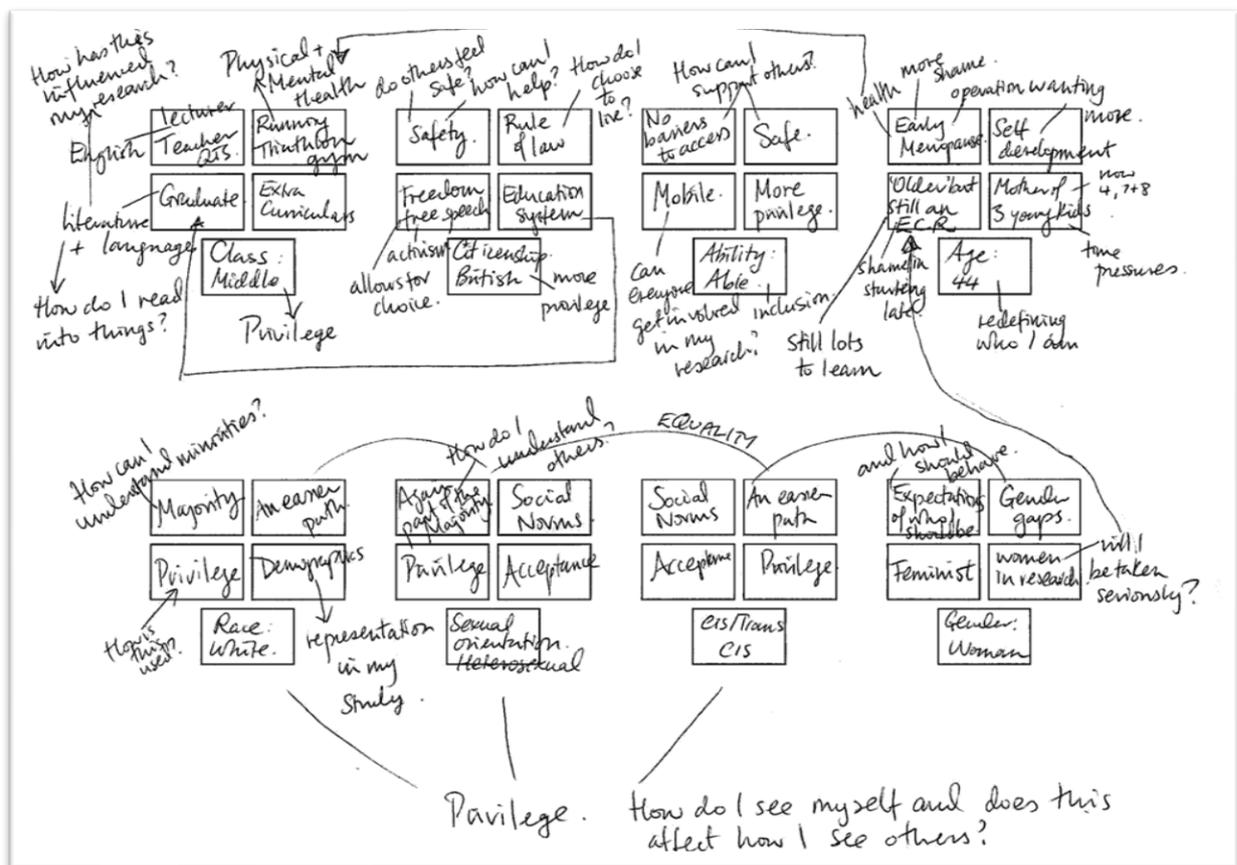
1. The Theory
2. Design Overview
3. Ethics
4. Literature
5. Sampling
6. Survey
7. Interviews
8. Émile
9. Limitations
10. Demographic
11. Timeline

This is not just an ordinary research story. It is my story, shaped by my beliefs, interests and understanding. Ravitch and Riggan (2016) and Glesne and Peshkin (1992) write that the shaping of theoretical concepts begins with the researchers' own interests and identity.

Researcher identity and positionality is an important concern since both can affect the course of the research (Day, 2012). Jacobson & Mustafa (2019) agree and tell us that our positionality and the world from which we come from strongly impacts how we research. Ravitch & Riggan (2016) suggest that practitioners are also likely to be interested in issues that they are aware of in practice and that this too has a strong influence on the research. Our identities, and our roles in the world are therefore inescapable and form part of our research, as researchers we are not just the dreamers, but the instigators, and the catalysts of research. We are an integral part of the complex and varied methodological tools that combine to produce results. So, it is here that I fully acknowledge that Identity forms the foundation of my research. It is where the research story began, and it is driven by my own interests and my identity as a teacher.

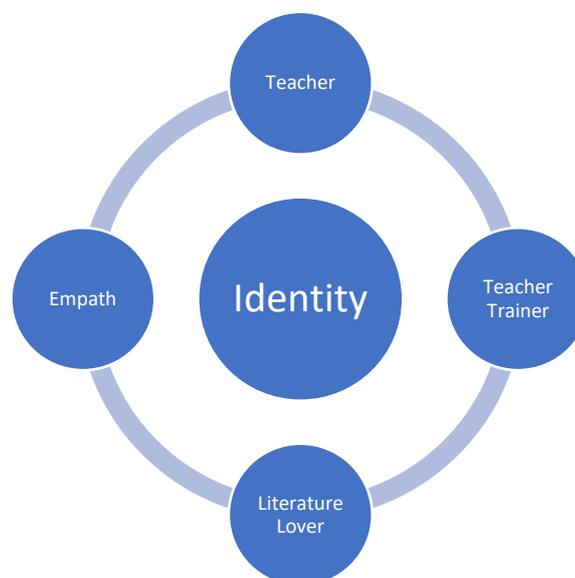
Cousins (2010, p.10) writes that: “The self is not some kind of virus which contaminates the research. On the contrary, the self is the research tool, and thus intimately connected to the methods we deploy.” Whilst my identity mothered the beginnings of the research process, and used its guiding hand throughout, the process was completed in acknowledgment of these influences, with the understanding that my positionality would affect the research to a certain extent. Day (2012) proposes that there is nothing wrong with this as such, but it is crucial that this positionality is acknowledged, and that we must be honest and critical about how this influences our research. Jacobson & Mustafa (2019) argue that this presents difficulties, particularly for early career researchers. With this in mind, Jacobson & Mustafa (2019 p.4) proposed a ‘Social Identity Map’ designed to explore the complexities of social identity in order to create clarity of researchers’ identity for those reading the research, and to raise awareness for the researcher of the power that their own identity brings to the research process. My social identity map is presented below:

Figure 4 Social Identity Map:



Leading on from this. my identity as a teacher is strongly interlinked with one of my interests, newly qualified teachers (whom I had an opportunity to train and work closely with when I worked in secondary schools in England). Another interest of mine is literature, often foreign, and often centuries old. From these interests, the research question was created and with further reading, two theoretical frameworks were born, both deeply seated in text. The first framework is Rousseau's Treatise, *Émile*; and the second is my literature review. Marshall and Rossman (2014) argue that the conceptual framework should be able to address gaps in the literature and therefore be able to make an original contribution to research. The unique elements of this study are not just the gaps in newly qualified teacher literature (as discussed in the previous chapter), but also the use of *Émile* as a theoretical framework. I have chosen to focus on the first three books of *Émile* as these are the most relevant to my thesis and these are the books that appeal to my ontology. A more detailed rationale as to why Books 4 and 5 were not used can be found in section 1.5(v).

Figure 5: A visual representation of my ontological positioning



2.1 The Theory

The concept of 'theory' is one that presents many arguments (Ravitch and Riggan, 2016). Academics will even argue about what theory is and if it actually exists. Whilst theory is often seen as a prerequisite to educational research, Thomas (1997) believes that theory only restrains and stifles researchers and encourages 'conservatism'. This view is shared by a new wave of antitheorists (Di Leo, 2020) who prefer the autonomy and freedom of a flexible approach towards theory.

With this in mind, theory was used to guide and inform, but not to dictate or force the pathway of the study. Dressman (2008) states that researchers can often try to manipulate their data into one theory. Admittedly, this was a temptation at the start of my studies. However, the process of trying to do so, coupled up with further reading of research literature, compelled me to change my rigid thinking and as such, eventually my theory evolved and grew alongside my research. Therefore, this chapter, much like any other chapter of a thesis, has been updated and edited to reflect the evolution of my research.

Maxwell (2013) suggests that theory is built from many parts and that it is in itself a conceptual framework. This idea revolutionised and broadened my methodological thinking and shaped the approach. It is why therefore, I finally opted for an inductive, fluid, responsive approach, using a blend of frameworks, and a flexible method of analysis (Reflexive Thematic Analysis). Ravitch and Carl (2016) refer to this as 'informal theory' (effectively an integration of theories), but I refer to this as my ontology: an interconnected web of relationships between design, literature, and philosophical beliefs and frameworks.

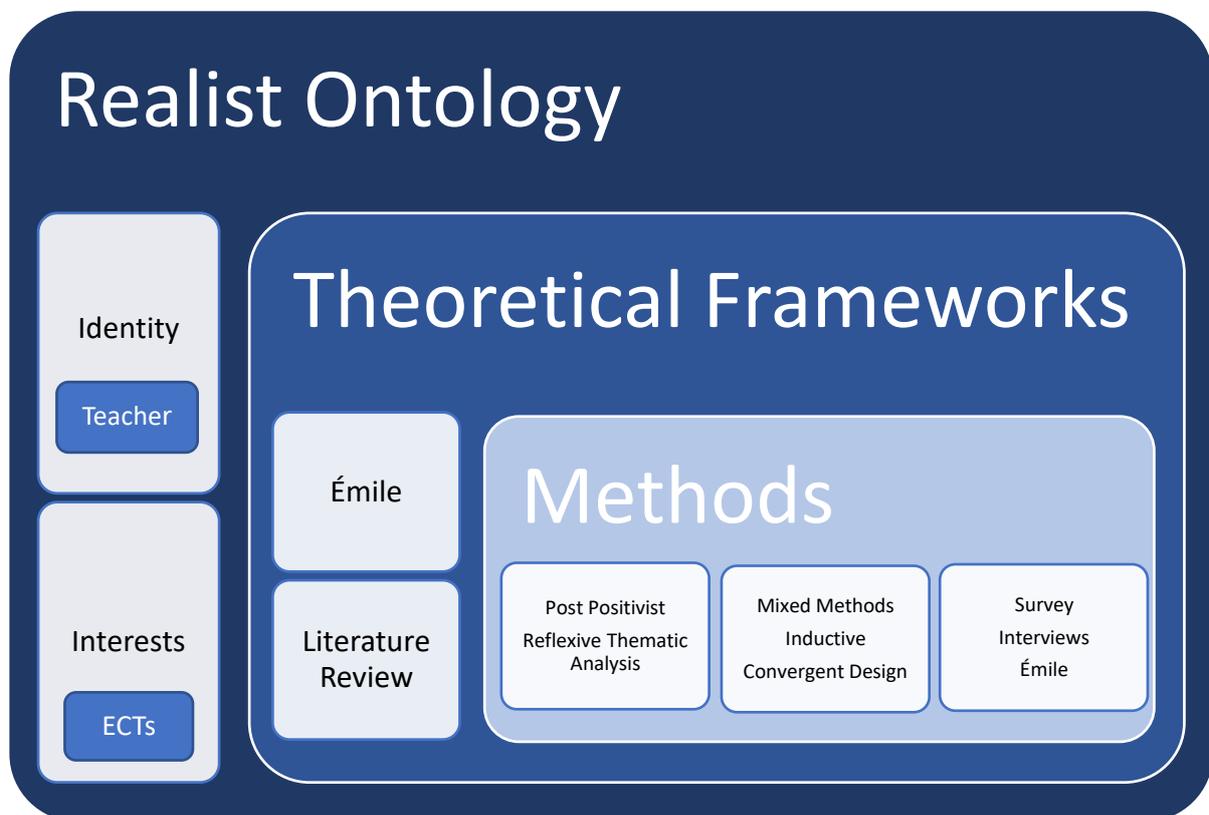
Within this ontology, sits my epistemology which aims to explain and justify and connect these relationships. In many ways my study is informed by a heterogeneous mix of approaches, conceptualised initially by my ontology, which informed my research title and questions, which in turn informed my theoretical frameworks, which further informed my methods and methodology. It constitutes a scaffolding of thought with each aspect contributing to the next.

Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2014) suggest that:

“A conceptual framework explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied — the key factors, variables, or constructs — and the presumed relationships among them. Frameworks can be simple or elaborate, commonsensical or theory driven, descriptive or causal.” (Miles, Huberman and Saldana, 2014, p. 20)

With this in mind, my conceptual framework is detailed graphically, and is guided by the foundations of theory. It forms a layering of ideas that start with my own personal ontology that acts as a catalyst for reading, frameworks, methods and methodology:

Figure 6: Conceptual Framework Design



I was drawn towards Reflexive Thematic Analysis via Braun and Clarke’s (2022) work. Reflexive Thematic Analysis is a form of Thematic Analysis that appealed because it allows for flexibility in its approach and also flexibility as an interpretative tool. It didn’t force a code book upon me, rather it allowed for me to construct my own. Most importantly, the approach didn’t demand that I decided at the onset of data collection as to which version of RTA I needed to use (Braun and Clarke, 2022). Braun and Clarke (2022) suggest that an

analytical tool can also be chosen if it feels 'familiar' or 'comfortable' to the researcher. Furthermore, Willig (2013) states that it should be the right fit for the researcher's project. I chose RTA partly on the basis of it being fit for purpose and also because it felt comfortable, doable, and cogent.

Reflexive Thematic Analysis differs from Thematic Analysis since it fully acknowledges that the process is subjective and that the coding is interpreted by the researcher and steered by their prior knowledge. It is a tool for reflection, not one that strives for scientific and mathematical accuracy. Braun and Clarke (2019, p.594) write that this form of Thematic Analysis is to do with "the researcher's reflective and thoughtful engagement with their data and their reflexive and thoughtful engagements with the analytic process." Additionally, Reflexive Thematic Analysis had appeal over Thematic Analysis as it allowed for codes to inform the themes, with the themes being created at the end of the process, as opposed to the beginning. Byrne (2022) refers to this as a 'data driven' approach. Although I had an idea of which themes were appealing to me, i.e. those which resonated in *Émile*, I did not want to force my data through the lens that I had chosen. Instead, I wanted the process to be handled inductively, nascent of the newly qualified teacher voices. These codes should come from the participants first and should be then compared to those found in *Émile* to see if there was an overlap or commonality. Where commonality was found, these areas could be further explored together, and where there was no commonality, these areas would still be explored as part of the reflexive process. Byrne (2022, p.1393) suggests that "Braun and Clarke (2019) encourage the researcher to embrace reflexivity, subjectivity and creativity as assets in knowledge production." This had real appeal since I place great value on creative research, particularly in the methodological process.

Initially, the research was planned under a constructionist approach, but it became apparent early on that this approach was not suitable for the reflexive thinking and objectivism required for Reflexive Thematic Analysis (RTA) and that realist post positivism would be a more suitable fit for the research. It is possible that I initially reached towards constructionism as my own personal philosophies related better to idealist relativism and the two seemed interconnected. Realism according to the Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy is (cited in: Jenkins, 2010, p.883):

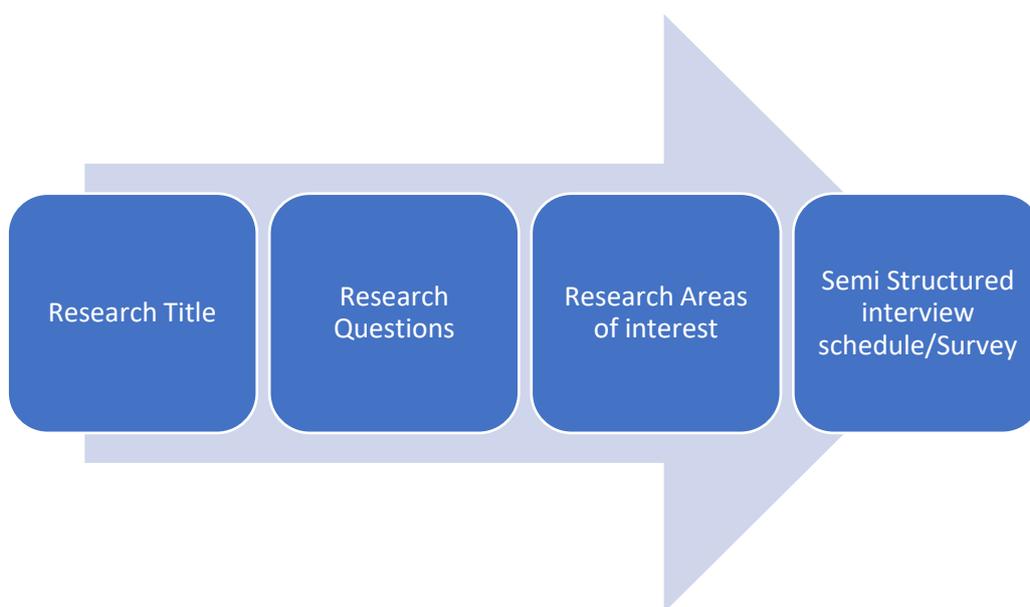
“... the world is as it is independently of how humans take it to be. The objects the world contains, together with their properties and the relations they enter into, fix the world’s nature and these objects exist independently of our ability to discover they do. Unless this is so, realists argue, none of our beliefs about our world could be objectively true since true beliefs tell us how things are and beliefs are objective when true or false independently of what anyone might think.”

Realism and post positivism marry well due to their shared belief in a scientific objective approach (Bryman, 2016) and their shared aim in capturing the ‘truth’ that already exists and is just waiting to be discovered (Braun and Clarke, 2022). The post positivist approach does not believe in one absolute truth but instead, a version of the ‘truth’ that can and will be exposed to influences (Phillips and Burbules, 2000). Walliman (2018) states that post positivism “challenges key thinking such as meaning, knowledge, and truth.” (p.23) and that this is done in a way that aims to be as neutral and objective as possible, whilst trying to minimise researcher bias.

2.2 Design Overview

The design started with the research title and the reading of literature.

Figure 7: Design Overview



The research title for this study was designed to be deliberately wide-ranging. This is cohesive with the RTA approach in that “Having a clear but still broad research question is beneficial for keeping the scope of your TA open in the early phases” (Braun and Clarke, 2022, p.42). The research title was:

An exploration into the induction needs of new teachers through the lens of Rousseau and Émilian Autodidacticism.

After deciding on a main research title and researching around the topic, I created two research questions and a short list of research areas that were of interest. These were designed to guide the process. I wanted my research to be as data driven as possible and to maintain an exploratory spirit.

A reminder of the research questions:

1. What do newly qualified teachers need to support them in their induction?
2. Would an Émilian autodidactic approach be of interest to newly qualified teachers?

The initial research areas of interest were:

Autodidacticism, Mentoring, Governance, Workload, Training, and the Philosophy of Needs.

The research areas of interest were used to create guidance for the semi structured interviews. Semi structured interviews offer flexibility (Kallio et al., 2016) which appealed to the spirit of exploration that I wanted to pursue. Galletta (2013, p.24) tells us that:

“The semi-structured interview provides a repertoire of possibilities. It is sufficiently structured to address specific topics related to the phenomenon of study, while leaving space for participants to offer new meanings to the study.”

Therefore, the semi structured interview schedule created from these areas of interest was as follows:

1. Tell me about your mentoring/mentor.
2. Tell me about your workload.
3. Tell me about your observations.

4. Tell me about the training that you receive.
5. Tell me about your needs/induction needs.
6. If you were to run an induction programme, what would you change?
7. Would an autodidactic induction programme be of interest to you?

A mixed methods approach was used with a convergent data collection design which meant that both quantitative and qualitative data could be collected simultaneously. As participants were recruited via the survey, interviews naturally took place after those respondents had completed the survey. However, full analysis only took place once all data was collected. Interviews took place whilst the survey data collection was ongoing, and the interview process was used as a means to gain further data and not as a tool to build on prior data.

Collecting the data simultaneously also allowed for less influenced outcomes and supported the flexibility of both deductive and inductive reasoning during the analytical process to reveal (Braun and Clarke, 2022) rather than create data sets. A mixed methods approach plays on the strengths that both qualitative and quantitative research can offer with strengths and weaknesses in both research methods equiposed, offering a more rigorous and well-rounded study (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). Kumar (2018, p.14) tells us that it “aims to select the best methods, regardless of the qualitative and quantitative divide, to find answers to the research questions. Vitally, it also offers “a more complete understanding of a research problem” (Creswell, 2014, p.17). This has appeal as it offers a more holistic and reflexive method that relates to the methodological approach of RTA that has been chosen for the study.

The data included a medium scale survey of both qualitative and quantitative design consisting of 159 surveys and 7 interviews using the same 4 participants from the survey. Three interviewees were then invited back for a further interview to consolidate their thoughts and experiences towards the end of their induction experience. Although the intention was to interview all 4 participants at the start of their induction year and again towards the end (a total of 8 interviews), I was not able to get back in contact with one of the interviewees. This particular interviewee had previously intimated that they were

considering leaving teaching, and this could suggest that they had, and were therefore not contactable at their school email address. Further information on the interview participants can be found in 2.7.

The outcomes of this medium sample size were used to generalise the feelings of the overall teaching population (Fowler, 2019). This is common, particularly in inferential data analysis (Connolly, 2007).

2.3 Ethics

Ethical considerations were of vital importance in the planning of data collection. The research was guided by the British Educational Research Association, BERA (2018) and an application for ethical approval was sent to The Nottingham Trent University Ethics Committee. The application was approved following one minor adjustment. Particular care and attention were given to the following ethical areas as outlined by Coe et al. (2021):

1. Minimising Harm
2. Protecting Privacy
3. Respecting Autonomy

Although there were no obvious threats that could contribute to participants experiencing harm, it is worth noting that participants undergoing interview or answering survey questions may experience stress or pressure and care must be given to ensure that this is minimised. It was explained to participants that they could stop, pause, or pull out of the interview at any time. BERA (2018, p.12) guidelines were kept in mind here: "...educational researchers should operate within an ethic of respect for any persons – including themselves – involved in or touched by the research they are undertaking. Individuals should be treated fairly, sensitively, and with dignity and freedom from prejudice, in recognition of both their rights and of differences arising from age, gender, sexuality, ethnicity, class, nationality, cultural identity, partnership status, faith, disability, political belief or any other significant characteristic." By keeping this at the forefront of every data collection point and every conversation, I believe that potential harm was minimised.

In order to maintain participants' privacy throughout the project, Participants' real names have not been used, instead, names have been replaced with pseudonyms. Both interview data and survey data have been treated as equal partners in this project. This I felt was in keeping with Braun and Clarke's (2022) guidance that all data holds equal value. It is vitally important that anonymity is protected and that participants were aware of this. This was important since participants should be able to safely criticise their school or employer, should they wish to, in the knowledge that this could be done in a way that protects their identity. If participants are easily identifiable, this could create potential problems for them in the workplace and cause potential harm (Coe et al., 2021). In the United Kingdom we are protected by the Data Protection Act (Government UK, 2018). This act sets out the obligation of researchers and organisations that are in possession of data pertaining to people. It states that data should be:

1. Fairly and lawfully processed.
2. Processed for limited purposes.
3. Adequate, relevant and not excessive.
4. Accurate and up to date.
5. Not kept for longer than is necessary.
6. Processed in line with your rights.
7. Secure
8. Not transferred to other countries without adequate protection.

(Bryman, 2016, p.128)

This checklist was referred to and adhered to at all times.

As the data was collected and stored electronically, BERA (2018) guidelines were followed and all information was kept in a secure password protected external hard drive, with copies downloaded to a password protected Cloud. Interviewees were all asked to read and sign an information sheet and informed consent electronically (See Appendix).

There are also ethical considerations in relation to the researcher: "In social and educational research the researcher is always the key 'instrument'. His or her background and experience, such as age, gender, ethnicity, social class, sexual orientation, and religion etc.

all play a key role and affect the researched.” (Zhang and Liu, 2018, p.507). These aspects could potentially affect the research process and those taking part in the research. It was therefore important that conversations were participants own. In this sense, participants’ autonomy was respected, and care was given to try not to lead the questioning to allow for participants to take control of their own ideas and verbalise them without interruption.

Another ethical consideration was avoiding deliberate bias. From a post positivist perspective, I fully acknowledge that completely eliminating all bias is impossible, but care was taken to try and avoid it. Bias, when applied deliberately, is unethical (Kumar, 2018), but subjectivity can influence outcomes, and this is worth considering when undertaking research. Braun and Clarke (2022, p.214) state that:

“Interpretation is never neutral and objective, it always happens from a position and therefore the power structures in the wider society always contextualise our interpretative practice.”

This suggests that objectivity in research is chimerical, and I therefore accept that sometimes subjectivity can influence the interpretation of data, and this was kept in mind, when analysing and coding text, in a hope to at least minimise it.

Honesty is a vital component of research (Walliman, 2018) and this can be related to several different areas, such as ensuring that other people’s work is acknowledged appropriately. Much care has been taken in this thesis to ensure that plagiarism is avoided and that all citations are acknowledged correctly to both celebrate and recognise the work of other academics. Honesty also relates to the representation of data and how the researcher uses the data. Kumar (2018) states that reporting your data and misrepresenting it in ways which serve your own purpose, is unethical. This is called ‘fraudulent practice’ (Creswell, 2015) and is completely unacceptable.

In a similar vein but perhaps a more subtle one, there is the issue of misinterpretation during the transcription process.

“There is always a danger of simplifying transcripts when writing up data from interviews and open questions. When you clean up and organise the data, you can

start to impose your own interpretation, ignoring vocal inflections, repetitions, asides, and subtleties of humour, thereby losing some of the meanings.” (Walliman, 2018, p.48)

This was a concern for me as after listening to my interviews for the first time, I opted to transcribe text and leave out any hesitations, fillers, and for example, superfluous uses of the word ‘like’. However, during the write up process, I returned to the recordings and sought the sections that I used. I listened again and, in some cases, added anything that may likely result in a subtle misinterpretation if removed. More often this was a reference in parenthesis such as [laughter] or a [pause] for example, but these subtleties are neither the less important.

All of these lessons were kept at the forefront of the research and care and attention was given to try and exercise as much neutrality and objectivity as possible, whilst understanding that this is not wholly and perfectly achievable.

2.4 Literature

Although there is ongoing debate surrounding the necessity of literature reviews for theses, Ravitch and Riggan (2016) argue that the literature review is an “iterative process of meaning and decision making, that is guided by, as it informs, one’s conceptual framework.” (p.47). Without reading and compiling a literature review, the ideas for my theoretical framework would not have been formed. Reading challenged my assumptions and led me towards Rousseau and resulted in me using a more stimulating philosophical lens. Maxwell (2013) refers to literature reviews as pieces of a puzzle that are borrowed from other academics and pieced together to build and create something new. Ravitch and Riggan (2016, p.27) discuss how a literature review can “shape and refine your research questions, sharpen your focus.” As it was seen as a vital part of my study, a thorough literature review was carried out. I include in this, the reading of Research Literature that helped to inform this Methods chapter. Creswell’s (2017) seven steps for conducting a literature review were used, summarised here as:

1. Identifying key words and an initial research title

2. Searching for literature
3. Identifying key literature from a larger body of texts
4. Skimming and scanning the literature
5. Creating a literature map
6. Reading in depth and summarising key literature into themes
7. Writing of the literature review

The aim at the outset was to explore the needs of new teachers entering the profession. Although the key words and main exploratory theme of newly qualified teacher needs did not change throughout the study, the title was allowed to develop over time (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992) which meant that it evolved and gathered specificity.

Initially, the reading area was wide and focused on rates of attrition, and a search for why new teachers were choosing to leave the profession so soon after qualifying; this was then whittled down into areas of need or where gaps in the literature were identified (Marshall and Rossman, 2014). Refworks was used to manage the reference list and a separate folder was created for the literature review reference list, and the methods and methodology reference list. This helped organise and eventually narrow down areas of interest and keep the large reading list in order.

The mapping of the literature was an important part of the thinking process as it helped organise thoughts and provided a rough template for the literature review. The literature review mapping was created using simple post it notes and a cork board. Literature was then grouped into topic areas and colour coding was used to cross reference areas that overlapped or connected (see figure 4).

Figure 4 – initial literature mapping



Soon patterns formed; and they were centred largely around workload, time, performativity and mentoring (Ingersoll and Strong, 2011). In particular, the vital and transformative role a mentor could play in supporting new teachers was a repetitive feature that appeared in vast bodies of studies (Hobson et al., 2009; Shanks et al., 2022).

Researching further into mentoring, I came across Rousseau's lesser-known work, *Émile or on Education* (Rousseau, 1979). It told the story of Émile's learning through an ontogenesis of stages from birth to adulthood; all observed through the eyes of his Mentor, Jean Jacques. The themes that pervaded throughout the novel were striking; most notably those of autonomy, performativity, authority, freedom and constraint, informal mentoring and self-directed learning. Although these were concepts that had been repeatedly explored in research, they had never been combined in one source before and nestled so neatly under the framework of autodidacticism. At this point, I decided to examine Rousseau's theories further and use the metaphor of these lessons to explore their value in the learning experiences of new teachers.

Leading on from this, the literature was narrowed to focus on the areas of Autodidacticism, Mentoring, Governance, Workload, Training, and the Philosophy of Needs. These were areas of interest in the study of newly qualified teachers. Some of these areas would then eventually feed into the final themes that were uncovered in the data of: 1. Performativity, 2. Mentoring, and 3. Resources; all under the umbrella of Autodidacticism. Some adjustments were made to the literature review post data analysis, in particular, the previous area of interest 'Governance', evolved into 'Performativity'. Braun and Clarke (2022) suggest that this is to be expected as the codes and themes that are uncovered may not necessarily be those that the researcher predicted.

Having now completed the research using reflexive thematic analysis, I would suggest that there is an argument to writing the literature review towards the end of the process, after the data analysis has taken place. This would allow for truly data driven outcomes. Although the literature should form an integral part of the epistemological framework, the purpose of the reading initially should be to gain knowledge of the broader academic landscape of the chosen research area, not to guide or influence the data collection process. Post data

analysis, the literature review could be written guided entirely by the themes created during the analytic process. This would feed into the discussion and ensure that the focus on data was absolute.

2.5 Data Collection

Creswell (2017) states that capturing a sample that is representative of the overall population of who you are trying to study is difficult, but this is a key element of successful sampling. This study used convenience sampling and snowball sampling (Parker et al., 2019) to encourage the completion of as many surveys as possible. The surveys were used to identify participants who were interested in further contributing to the research via interview. No incentives were offered to participants. Initial access was gained via longstanding contacts. These were third party contacts.

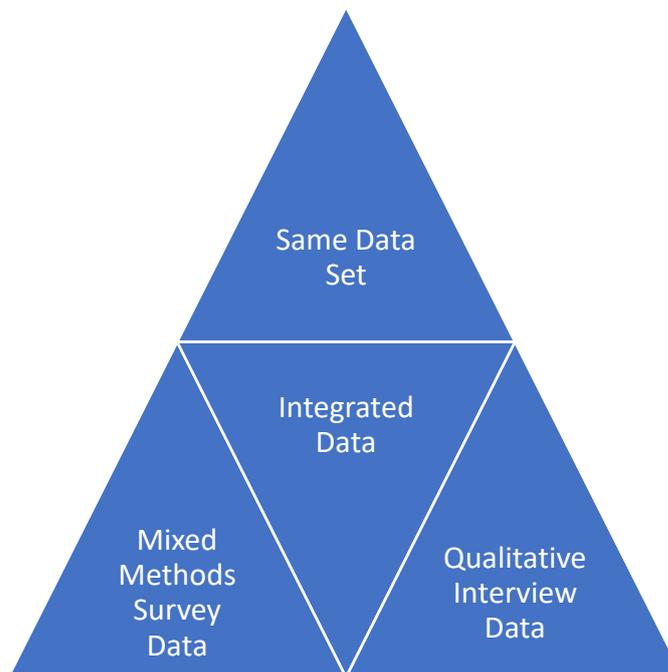
These included:

1. Two large SCITT companies based in England.
2. Contacts of previous secondary schools worked in.
3. Contacts of teacher friends currently working in schools – both primary and secondary.
4. Dissemination via an education union.
5. Nottingham Trent University teaching alumni.

Targeting institutions that directly work with teachers and particularly cohorts that have just graduated in teaching meant that it was more likely (and more reliable) that the participants that took part in this study would be from this target group.

Creswell (2014) tells us that mixed methods sampling under a convergent design should come from the same database – this was the case in this study. Undernoted is an adaptation of Creswell's (2014) convergent design used to illustrate the sampling process undertaken during this study:

Figure 8 – Data Set Design



2.6 Survey

The quantitative element of the study comprised of a largely quantitative online electronic survey (see Appendix). Of 22 questions, 20 were numeric and 2 were open ended qualitative questions with unlimited free text.

The first step in this process involved the creation of the online electronic survey. Jisc (formerly BOS surveys) was used due to its advanced options and diversity of question design. A variety of questions were used and included: Likert type responses, open ended questions, and dichotomous questions.

Likert questions were chosen because of their ability to allow for a certain degree of “sensitivity and differentiation” (Cohen et al., 2017, p.386) and designed using a five-point scale so should participants wish to answer neutrally, they would have the freedom to do so. In this study, I used Likert scales to assess the usefulness of training tools that area available to new teachers. Likert scales are ordinal values which can be grouped into categories that describe feelings or behaviours or traits (Connolly, 2007). Scaled questions provide rich numeric data that can be analysed using statistical analysis such as ANOVAs

(Creswell, 2017). Wu and Leung (2017, p.527) write that “there is a long standing and controversial question about whether it can perform arithmetic operations... strictly speaking, this violates the basic assumptions of ordinal level measure.” I argue that Likert scales can also be presented as continuous scaled variables. Using a numbered scale, allows for the scales to have notional equal spacing and thus give way to an opportunity to analyse them as if they were intervals. Norman (2010) believes that Likert scales can be used and treated as continuous interval scales and further states that there is a large body of research, dating back to the 1930s, (the time that the Likert scale was devised) to suggest that Likert scales provide robust data, even in the face of these parametric challenges. All that said, I have taken the decision to treat Likert scales in this study as interval scales. I have therefore reported central tendency as a mean value in order to compare with other mean values of different variables – in this case, various training tools available to new teachers.

Cohen’s et al’s (2017) guide to survey construction was followed, notably to ensure that correct decisions were made regarding the necessity and usefulness of the content, specificity and clarity of questioning, and the sequencing. Basic demographic and context setting data was gathered to allow for potential exploration of different independent variables, such as age, sex and school type. The demographic data was also useful in understanding the makeup of the cohort and comparing it to the overall national teaching cohort. A short paragraph with a waiver for informed consent, briefly explaining the project and the protection of participants’ data was drawn up. The survey was piloted to 10 volunteers, 9 from the education sector and 1 who currently works as a proof-reader for a large marketing research company. Piloting is essential to identify any problem areas with the survey (Morin, 2013). Some minor adjustments were made following extensive feedback and test analysis of the pilot data. These included a typographical error and a change to the sequencing of one of the questions. Participants of the pilot were also asked to time themselves completing the survey and the average time recorded was 9 minutes and 34 seconds. This time may have been skewed due to the fact that participants of the pilot were also reading to proof the survey and were taking notes during the process. Time to fill in a survey is an important factor as shorter surveys usually have a higher completion

rate (Coe et al., 2021). The intention was to keep the survey to a 10-minute average time cap.

After analysing the pilot, making the necessary changes, and deleting the completed pilot responses — the survey was launched electronically nationwide (England) via a combination of probability and convenience sampling (Creswell, 2015) followed by snowball sampling (Creswell, 2015). The initial strata used were the previous year's cohort from two teacher training agencies offering SCITT programmes (this ensured that they would now be qualified and working as newly qualified teachers in their induction year), sampling from members of a national teacher's union, and previous workplaces and contacts of the researcher; Nottingham Trent University teaching alumni were also invited to complete the survey. 159 surveys were gathered, one was removed due to it being overtly obvious that the participant was not a newly qualified teacher.

The survey was left open for two academic years. This allowed time for participants to complete the survey at their leisure and time for them to recruit others to do so. It was felt that due to the demands of the academic school year that participants' mood may vary at different points in the term and could therefore influence the outcomes of their responses. Collecting data at every point in the year therefore minimises this validity threat. This decision was largely an intuitive one. Post completion, further research could be undertaken using this survey to determine whether different point of the academic year elicit more positive or negative responses.

Once the survey had closed, the data was first exported into Excel and 'cleaned' before finally being exported into a statistical software package. Cleaning or preparing the data involved removing any invalid answers or blanks and assigning names/key words to columns in preparation for the data analysis stage. (Field, 2017).

Surveys were entirely anonymous with participants being referred to by survey number only throughout the project. Cohen et al (2017) suggest that it is not possible to ascertain for certain who the respondents are and if they are not exacerbating their views. However, part of this validity threat (relating to respondent identity) was minimised due to the stratification process being directed solely at teaching programmes/establishments.

Firstly, a demographic overview was explored, and this was compared to the overall national teaching cohort using data from the Department for Education (DfE) to check to see how accurate (or not) a representation the survey data was of the general teaching population.

Quantitative Data was analysed using the package: IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). The analyses used to explore the data were a combination of descriptive statistics, ANOVAs, regression analyses, frequency distributions, and the mean of Likert scales. Various analyses were repeated using different variables to check if correlations or differences were present.

Initially the amount of quantitative data collected seemed overwhelming and insurmountable. It became obvious early on that a structure for the analysis was needed and this was created using the research questions and emerging themes from qualitative data. Using this method ensured that the research questions would be answered and that the themes would be explored fully using a mixed method process.

Qualitative Data from the online survey was analysed using Braun and Clarke's (p.202, 2013) 7-point method:

1. Transcription (in the case of the survey – preparing data)
2. Reading and Familiarisation
3. Coding
4. Searching for themes
5. Reviewing themes
6. Defining and naming themes
7. Writing and final analysis

There were two open ended questions that were analysed:

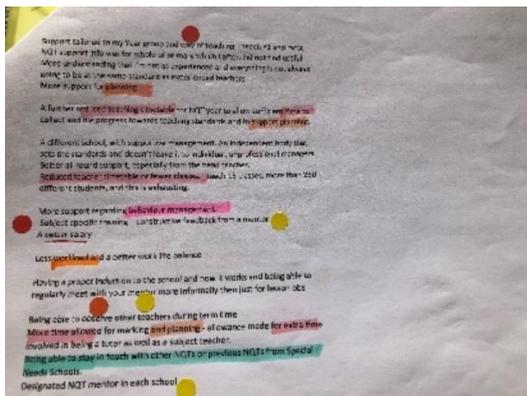
- a) Q11a (*How do you rate your NQT experience so far?*) Why?
- b) Q22 What would make your NQT experience better?

Stage 1: The first stage involved removing the responses and further 'cleaning' the data in excel to remove any anomalies and blank answers.

Stage 2: The reading and familiarisation stage was a process of repetitive immersion in the data and involved reading and reading again; and taking notes when anything of interest came to light. Braun and Clarke (2013, 2022) refer to these initial notes as ‘noticings’. This process was vital in terms of thinking about the data and trying to understand it as a whole. The noticings at this stage took the form of provisional codes and there was already a general sense of overarching sub themes and themes that married with some of those (but not all) interpreted in *Émile*.

Stage 3: The coding stage was more structured and systematic and involved colour coding any instances of note. The spreadsheet was printed out and highlighters were used to colour code codes. See figure 6 below.

Figure 6 - Sample of coding process



Complete coding was used, and these were labelled using semantic coding. For example: one participant wrote: “I would like to feel as though I am fully qualified and that I can be trusted.”, this feeling was coded under ‘lack of trust’. In the first instance, 152 initial codes were uncovered. These were revised and merged together where possible. There were so many codes found and although they all contributed to the inductive approach of creating sub themes and finally themes, it was not possible to comment on all of them, only a handful were explored in the final results section.

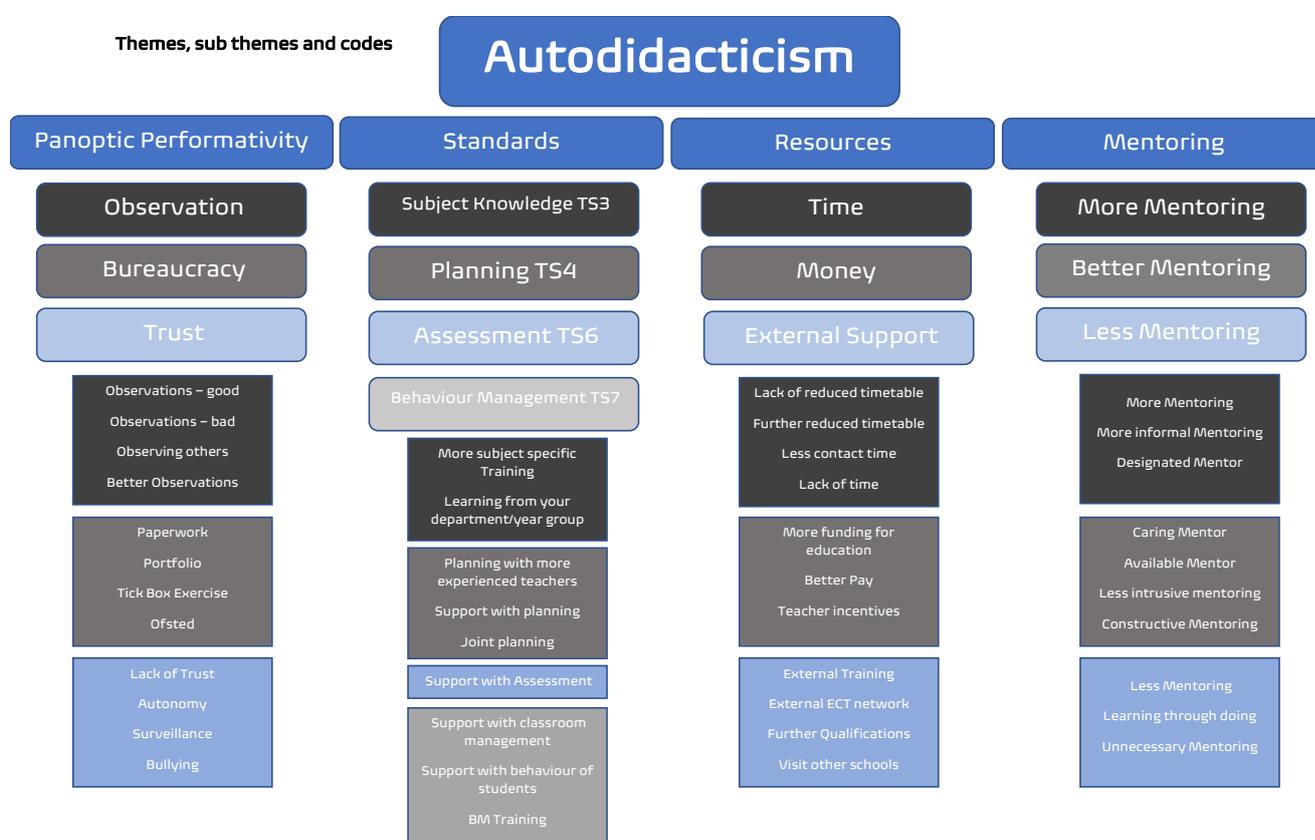
Stage 4: In the next stage, codes were grouped according to commonalities. This created sub themes, that were finally funnelled into themes. For example:

Participant response: “Less paperwork and requests for evidence.”

Code	Paperwork
Sub theme	Bureaucracy
Theme	Performativity

At this stage, the data was funnelled into 4 themes using a largely inductive process of thought: Performativity, Teaching Standards, Resources, and Mentoring. The original mapping is shown below in figure 9:

Figure 9 – original mapping of themes



Stages 5 and 6: Themes were then reviewed in stage 5 and it was decided to merge the themes of Teaching Standards and Resources as it was felt that the Teaching Standards, as a training measure, constituted a resource. The final three themes decided upon were:

1. Performativity
2. Mentoring
3. Resources

2.7 The Interviews

As the surveys were gathered, potential interviewees were chosen using purposeful maximal variation sampling to support the views of diverse perspectives. (Creswell, 2015 p.77). The final participants came from diverse teaching practices and included teachers with experiences in: Key Stages 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5; academy and local authority; and primary, secondary and middle school. Here is a brief introduction to them:

1. Kat is primary school teacher at a local authority school. She has experience in both KS1 and KS2 and currently sits at the upper end of KS2.
2. Lee is a middle school teacher at a faith school. He teaches humanities across KS2 and KS3.
3. Tammy is a secondary school performing arts teacher at an independent school. She teaches across KS3, KS4, & KS5. She also has some boarding responsibilities.
4. Liana is a secondary school art and media teacher at an academy trust. She mainly teaches KS4 & KS5.

It was decided that the interviews would be semi structured and that the interviews would be strongly “participant led”. This allowed for flexibility in the Thematic Analysis process used to analyse the qualitative data (Braun and Clarke, 2013 p. 78). Bryman (2016 p.201) suggests that unstructured interviews should only have a “list of topics and issues” and these were borrowed from the research questions and areas of interest from the literature review. Topics included, mentoring, workload, and autodidacticism. Questions posed were entirely open, for example: “Tell me about the mentoring you have received.” Here is a list of the interview schedule that was used to guide the process:

1. Tell me about your mentoring/mentor.
2. Tell me about your workload.
3. Tell me about your observations.
4. Tell me about the training that you receive.
5. Tell me about your needs/induction needs.
6. If you were to run an induction programme, what would you change?

7. Would an autodidactic induction programme be of interest to you?

Due to the Pandemic of 2020 and to cater for all geographical positions, all interviews took place online. Interviewees were all interviewed via Teams, Zoom or Skype – whichever the participant felt most comfortable with. Participants were also allowed to choose their own time and day for the interview. Face to face interviews are a good way to use visual cues and to gain better responses (Walliman, 2018). Although I would have preferred to meet the participants in the flesh, this was the next best option. It still allowed for seeing people's faces and reading them, making rapport, and for better responses. In many ways it sped up the process as no travel was involved and there was no need to limit the participants to a small geographical catchment area.

At the start of the interview, I attempted to establish rapport with participants by making 'small talk' in a bid to put them at ease and encourage an open dialogue (Bryman 2016; Braun and Clarke 2013). Kitwood (1977) goes further to suggest that valid information can only be obtained if participants are feeling comfortable. The first five minutes of the interview and meeting my participants felt vital in establishing trust and rapport, and despite the eagerness to collect data, I was careful not to rush this part of the process. I was also genuinely interested in them and keen to make them feel appreciated, valued, and heard.

Participants were all asked one structured identical question only. This took place at the end of the interview relating to the potential benefits of an Émilien Autodidactic learning programme for new teachers. Émilien autodidacticism was explained and the question asked was: "Would an autodidactic induction approach would be of interest to you."

The participant led discussion minimised the potential to lead questions, but researcher neutrality was still a concern so much care was taken to try to respond and elicit responses as neutrally as possible.

Once the interview process had been completed the transcription stage began. Before transcription took place, the recordings were listened to a few times and initial noticings

were written down – this helped to familiarise with the data. The transcription process was not straight forward, and mistakes were made. To begin with multiple transcription software was tried out (Otter, Happy Scribe and Trint). None were suitable or remotely accurate, in hindsight, this wasted time as it involved researching software, downloading software, learning how to use it and applying it. It also required proof reading of largely mystifying and indecipherable transcripts. This process was therefore aborted halfway through, and the final transcripts were transcribed personally by the researcher in Word; using Express Scribe to provide stop/start streaming technology. Doing the transcription in this way was time consuming but became a further part of the familiarisation process and was therefore extremely valuable. Edited transcription was used and rapport building small talk was removed from the final transcripts so that only the data pertaining to the study was analysed.

Once transcriptions were ready, the remaining 6 steps of Thematic Analysis were applied to this data using the same process that was applied to the qualitative data extracted from the survey.

2.8 Émile as a lens

Grant and Osanloo (2014) tell us that:

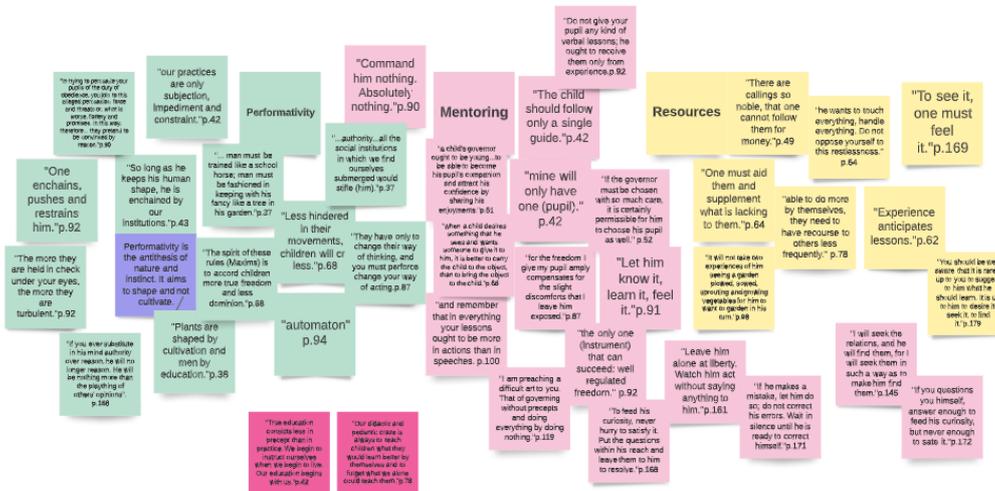
“The theoretical framework is the “blueprint” for the entire dissertation inquiry. It serves as the guide on which to build and support your study, and also provides the structure to define how you will philosophically, epistemologically, methodologically, and analytically approach the dissertation as a whole.”

The foundational groundwork of Émile was used in a multifaceted sense. It breathed life into the research title and steered the research questions. It influenced my style of writing, echoing the personal approach that Rousseau used in Émile, and helped make connections during the analytical process.

During the process of data analysis, it became obvious that some of the themes that I had seen in Émile, correlated to those that were uncovered by the survey and interview data.

Émile was read again with a fresh outlook. As I read through the treatise once more, I underlined any quotes that were of interest. These quotes were then organised and grouped into themes using the Lucid spark application. An example of the early beginnings of this process is shown below:

• *Figure 10 – Émile Quotations and Themes*



What was particularly interesting in this process of revisiting the original source of inspiration for the lens of the research was that new discoveries were made, new connections were made, and new areas of interest were found that had been missed before.

The write up was divided into three chapters, Performativity, Mentoring and Resources – these were divided further into sub themes. To begin with there were dozens of sub themes as the data that I had was plentiful. A decision was made at this stage to focus on three sub themes for each chapter and any codes that were attached to these. Dunleavy (2003) writes that there is always a difficulty associated with deciding what to include and what to remove at this stage, but this is an important part of the process in formulating a coherent thesis. Quotes from Émile that aligned with the view of the newly qualified teachers were also explored in the findings.

Within these sub themes it was finally decided that the write up of the results section would be by code and that this would echo the inductive approach that pervaded throughout the study. Although mapping using Lucid sparks was used, this was finally decided by trial and error and through the process of writing. It was also decided that the Results section would contain the presentation of data, the analysis, and the discussion.

The conclusion was then written to bring all three chapters together and to discuss impact and action points for the future.

2.9 Limitations

Limitations of this study are as follows:

Timing. The Covid 19 Pandemic interrupted the flow of education, data collection and my way of working. This had an impact on the timeline of the PhD. The shifting of timelines meant that data was collected over a longer period of time than initially planned and that less interviews took place.

Sample size. The sample size could have been larger, and more interviews could have taken place. This was my biggest regret.

The second year of the PhD was taken as a break from studies due to the birth of my 3rd child in August 2019. In addition, some serious health problems led to a major operation in January 2020. The country (England) went into lockdown in March 2020; and consequently, I was at home looking after my three young children aged 4, 3 & 7 months. It is because of all of the above that less interviews took place than originally planned. It was difficult to find the time to work on the thesis during this period and it was also difficult to get further participants to engage with my research during the pandemic. I was also unable to get in contact with one of my interviewees for a follow up interview during this time.

There is a consideration that since some of the participants were third party personal contacts that they may have been responding in a way that they might consider pleasing to the researcher – and as such, this could have skewed the data.

Participant Identity. As with any electronic survey, it is never possible to ascertain that your participants are who they say they are.

Interpretation of data. Data is subject to interpretation. With any data sets or when working with large swathes of text, there is always a consideration for interpreting as accurately as possible and ensuring that you are representing the voices of your participants in the way that they would have wanted. In future projects, I would at the outset invite interviewees back to be part of the data analysis process to ensure accuracy (as far as possible) in the interpretations.

Researcher's limitations. These include potential unconscious bias or unintended subjectivity.

Interview technique. In hindsight, I wish I had practised interviewing as this is a skill that needs to be developed. I could have potentially drawn-out further information from participants if I had been more experienced in this area.

Use of data. Not all of the data was used. The choices that I made in terms of deciding what to use in my thesis and what not to use is also a consideration. I will always live with the question mark of what it could have been had I made different choices.

Participant responses. It is never clear if participants have responded truthfully or with accuracy, or if their voices are representative of the teaching population as a whole.

Mistakes were made. Not transcribing by myself from the start wasted time. Additionally, I feel that structured questions for the interview would have been easier to manage and would have produced more easily comparable data.

2.10 Demographic

The medium scale survey was sent out to teachers across England teaching at all age group levels. Interviewees were then chosen according to willingness to participate in the programme, but also chosen to cover a range of teaching age groups and subjects. The four interviewees came from the following backgrounds:

1. Primary – KS1 Teacher
2. Middle School – KS2 and KS3 Teacher of Humanities
3. Secondary School – KS3 and KS4 Teacher of English
4. Secondary School – KS4 and KS5 Teacher of Media and Arts

Figure 11 - Teaching age group

	N	%
Early Years	16	10.1%
Further Education	2	1.3%
Middle School	1	0.6%
Primary	43	27.2%
Secondary	95	60.1%
No answer	1	0.6%

Gender: Of 159 respondents, 107 identified as female and 50 identified as male. A larger proportion of female respondents is expected as women represent 75.8% of the entire teaching workforce (DfE, 2021a). It is worth noting however that women are also more likely to complete surveys than men (Witte et al., 2000).

Figure 12 – Ethnicity

	N	%
Asian or Asian British	9	5.7%
Black or Black British	3	1.9%
Caribbean	3	1.9%
Mixed Race Other	1	0.6%
Other	1	0.6%
White and Asian	1	0.6%
White British	122	77.2%
White Irish	2	1.3%
White Other	15	9.5%
Prefer not to say	1	0.6%

Ethnicity characteristics largely reflected the average teaching workforce (DfE, 2021a); The majority of the respondents were white British, 77.2% compared to 78.5% of the entire

teaching workforce. 5.7% identified as Asian or Asian British and 1.9% as Black or Black British – this compares to 4.45% and 2.2% respectively for the teaching workforce.

Figure 13 - Age of Participants

	N	%
20 – 29	85	54.1%
30 – 39	29	18.5%
40 – 49	30	19.1%
50 – 59	13	8.3%

Although at first glance, the upper age range group appears high, the introduction of initial teacher training courses such as ‘Now Teach’ that recruit career changers has impacted the newly qualified teaching cohort; raising the average age of a newly qualified teacher. The Department for Education divide the workforce into four groups: Graduate (aged under 27) 63%, Career finder (aged 27 – 31) 17%, and Career changer (aged 32+) 20%.

The majority of participants belonged to either an Academy Trust, Local Authority or Independent School. Again, this is reflective of the general school type distribution.

Figure 14 - Teaching specialism

	N	%
	1	0.6%
Art	4	2.5%
Classics	1	0.6%
Computer Science	2	1.3%
DT	5	3.2%
Early Years	10	6.3%
Economics/Business Studies	1	0.6%
English	17	10.8%
Geography	9	5.7%
History	10	6.3%
Languages	6	3.8%
Mathematics	16	10.1%
Music	1	0.6%
Other	12	7.6%
Physical Education	5	3.2%
Primary	43	27.2%
R.E	3	1.9%

Science	10	6.3%
Special Education	2	1.3%

The study overall attracted a varied mix of participants both from teaching age groups (EYFS 16, Further Education 2, Middle School, 1, Primary 43 and Secondary 95) and in a variety of subject specialisms. Variety was also noted in the participants' routes into teaching, although the majority fell into the PGCE, School Direct and SCITT category.

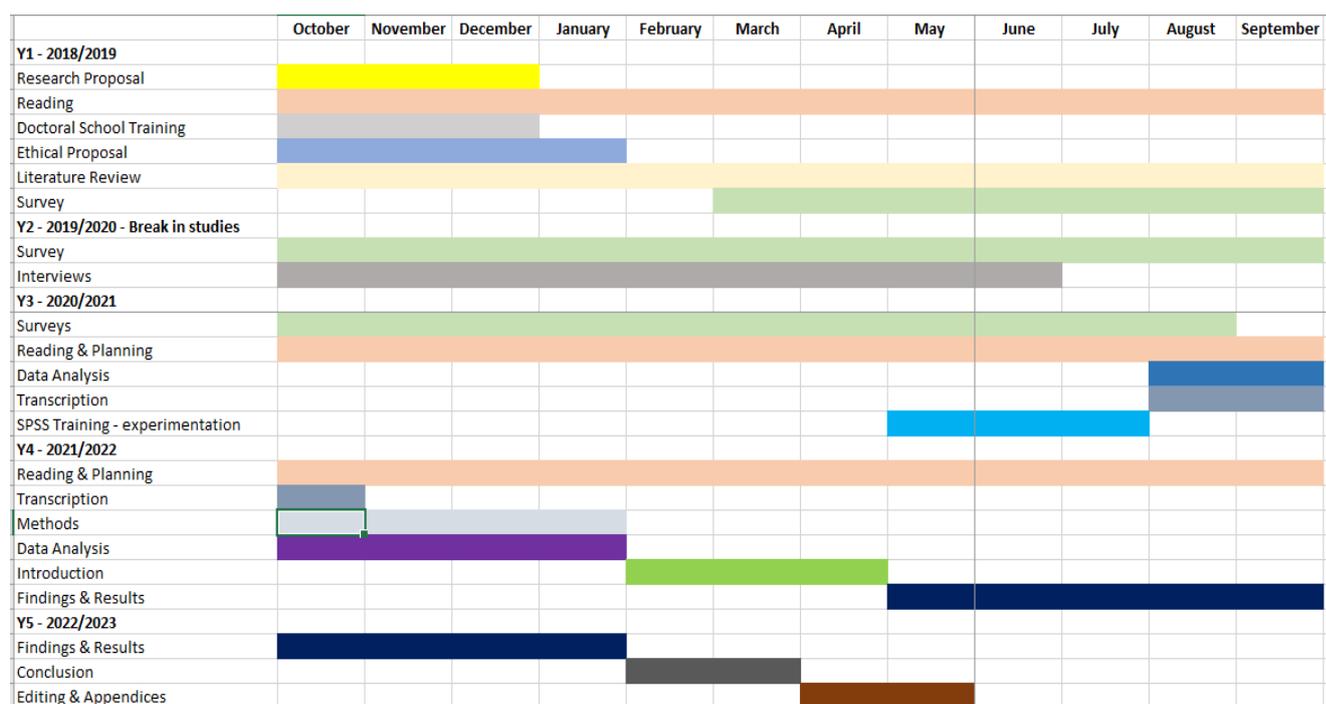
The demographic information above suggests that overall, the study is a good reflection of the general teaching population. This is important as it offers a realistic reflection of the overall teaching cohort in England.

2.11 Timeline of Research

This is a summary of the main events.

Please note: The ‘second year’ was taken as an official break from studies due to the birth of my 3rd child in August 2019. In addition, health problems led to a major operation in January 2020. The country (England) went into lockdown in March 2020; and consequently, I was at home looking after my three young children aged 4, 3 & 7 months. It is because of all of the above that less interviews took place than originally planned. Consequently, a decision was made to keep the survey open for longer to collect more data in a way that was more accessible. This also had a knock-on effect for the following year.

Figure 15 – Timeline of research



Chapter 3- The Literature Review

The literature review will be divided into 6 parts. In the first part of my literature review, I will examine Rousseau's learning approach and discuss how Rousseau's conceptualization around active learning, autodidacticism and noninterventionist mentoring can be applied to the learning needs of early career teacher needs. I then contrast Rousseau's concepts against contemporary models of situated learning and self-directed learning such as those outlined by Brown et al (1989), Lave (1996) and Wenger and Lave (1991). This will be followed by a chapter on Émilian Autodidacticism which also discusses the thought process behind choosing Emilian Autodidacticism as a lens and philosophical framework. It will also discuss the flaws in the concept of autodidacticism that are found within Émile.

The third part of the review will be dedicated to the ontology and epistemology of needs. I will be exploring the normativity of needs through antithetical and opposing views: needs versus wants, natural needs versus artificial needs and subjectivism versus objectivism. Reader's (2007) ideas will be juxtaposed against White's (1974). Maslow's theory of The Hierarchy of Needs (1943, 1954) and Theory of Self-Actualisation (1970) will be unpicked and I will argue that its fundamental principles are flawed.

Following on from this, I will explore the role of performativity in the context of newly qualified teacher needs and how this influences their learning. Bentham's schema of the Panopticon will be introduced as a stimulus for Foucault's Panoptic Performativity (Discipline and Punish, 1977) these works will be discussed alongside modern studies – Clapham et al (2016) Courtney (2016), and Perryman and Calvert (2020) focusing on the impact of observatory systems on the teaching profession. I will argue that Panoptic Performativity has a detrimental influence on the teaching profession and that it acts as a surreptitious force in creating unnecessary workload which subsequently dilutes the time that is invested into the learning provision of newly qualified teachers.

The fifth chapter will focus on mentoring and its impact on learning. Formal and informal models will be explored including analyses of international studies namely; Hobson (2016, 2020), Cunningham (2007) Gerrevall (2018), Ingersoll and Strong (2011) and Klug and Salzman (1991). Kolb's experiential learning cycle and Kram's collaborative model will also be reviewed as an analepsis towards successful informal mentoring and analogised against Rousseau's free and autodidactic mentoring approach.

In the sixth part, teacher training will be explored, particularly in the context of newly qualified teachers. Routes into teaching will be discussed and critiqued against rates of attrition. There will be a brief review of historical and recent data which will landscape the current scene and highlight gaps in research concerning the needs of newly qualified teachers. I will highlight the gaps in both government data and draw on independent studies, such as those compiled by Courtney (2016) and Mathou (2023).

3.1 Autodidacticism

*"I hate books; they only teach us to talk about things we know nothing about."
(Rousseau, 1979, p.207)*

Rousseau was a self-confessed autodidact, having learned almost everything entirely from books yet here, he invites us to reject this conventional method of learning. Rousseau questions the traditional bibliophilic approach, creating a paradoxical paradigm – a theme which is synonymous with Rousseau's often hypocritical and contradictory philosophies. To add a further layer of complexity, Rousseau was consciously aware of his foibles and admitted: "I would rather be a man of paradoxes than a man of prejudices." (Rousseau, 1979, p.196)

Rousseau's relationship with self-learning and books is characteristically complicated. Ben-Zaken (2011) suggests that Rousseau's ideas were heavily influenced by his readings of Ibn Tufail's *Hayy Ibn-Yaqzan* (aka *Philosophus Autodidactus*). This seminal parabolic work told the story of the interplay of nature and autodidactic learning and "played a role in the construction of arguments for a liberal education" (Ben-Zaken, 2011, p.137). There are startling similarities between Tufail's *Hayy Ibn-Yaqzan* and Rousseau's lesser-known work, *Émile or on Education* (1979). *Hayy Ibn-Yaqzan* follows the story of a solitary boy, Hayy, who learns from his environment and the occasional philosophical coaxings of his tutor, Tufail. (Morewedge, 1977). In parallel to this, in *Émile*, Rousseau plays the part of Émile's tutor and guides him (and us) through an ontogenesis of learning stages from birth to maturity. Much of what Émile learns is from the natural world around him. Rousseau is reticent to provide Émile with books- in fact, the first book that he permits Émile to read is Defoe's (2021) story of abject human suffering and solitude- the story of a man who was left with nothing and has to learn how to survive. Arguably, *Robinson Crusoe* is a true example of the embodiment of self-learning from one's environment (Cyrot, 2007) and therefore the epitome of uninterrupted autodidacticism. This form of learning is one that is promoted by Rousseau throughout *Émile*. Rousseau suggests in *Émile*, that his ultimate predilection is to

an autodidactic, partly dialectic approach, a knowledge that is learned through doing, through the environment and unstructured talk; entirely without interference and simply only mediated by 'the tutor'.

"Our didactic and pedantic craze is always to teach children what they would learn much better by themselves and to forget what we alone could teach them" (Rousseau, 1979 p.78).

Winch's (1998) work is of interest because it challenges Rousseau's concept of autodidacticism and points out some of the flaws in his design. In his critique of Rousseau's epistemology of *Émile*, he suggests that although the student is in control of his own learning, the tutor nonetheless surreptitiously exerts a force of manipulation in guiding the student's learning; thus leading to the conclusion that true autodidacticism is not achievable; a level of supervision is needed to optimise the learning. He suggests that although this is not didactic or instructional in nature, it still resembles a form of 'conditioning'.

Solomon (2003) shares similar views to Winch (1998). She argues that the concept of autodidacticism itself is also subject to argument. Solomon (2003, p.3) suggests that nobody can be a true autodidact, that the concept itself is lacking:

"None of us could possibly be anywhere near to being completely self-taught. From the moment our mothers put a spoonful of food to our lips so that we could suck at the spoon's edge, we were being taught".

Rousseau would argue vehemently otherwise:

"...is there anything more foolish than the effort made to teach them (babies) to walk, as if anyone were ever seen who, due to his nurse's negligence, did not when grown know how to walk." (Rousseau, 1979 p.78).

Wain (2016) reverts to the early origins of man and relates autodidacticism, (here referred to as self-directed learning) as a pivotal moment in the intellectual evolution of humanity:

“The origins of self-directed learning lie somewhere in a moment in the distant past when a human being experienced a sense of self-awareness or self-consciousness in the process of trying to master a particular chunk of knowledge or a necessary skill – and then systematically began steering or managing the learning process.” (Wain, 2016, p.35)

Despite these differing views, what connects Solomon, Rousseau, and Wain here is the common thread that human beings, left to their own devices will learn. We have evolved into conscious beings with a drive to learn, and learning takes place through the environments around us. These can be social or natural. Muijsenberg (2023) suggests that education does not necessarily mean that learning takes place because learning is largely a cognitive process that is influenced by our experiences as well as knowledge. It is experience and choice that are central to effective learning (ibid). Rousseau’s *Émilian* Autodidacticism combines these ideas as he advocates learning through surroundings, experiences, and learner choice.

Rousseau’s ideas were controversial for the time (Dent, 2008; Wain 2011). Wain (2011) goes further as to intimate that Rousseau was one of the most radical thinkers on education of the Enlightenment era. Rousseau suggests in *Émile* that children should be left entirely to their own devices: to learn to walk, to talk, and to learn how to learn. Rousseau (1979) believed that bumps, bruises, and emotional and physical pain were all part of the learning process. His controversial ideas, however, did not dissuade the public from reading his work. Perhaps this is due partly to his engaging unique style that seems to address the reader directly (Mosher, 1992). It is difficult to argue that Rousseau’s points are not well articulated or meticulously philosophised. Rather than presenting arguments as fact, Rousseau leaves us to question them – guiding the readers themselves towards autodidactic thinking.

Rousseau asserts that questioning is one of the most important values of autodidactic learning (Rousseau, 1979).

Rousseau's bisectonal views pervade almost all of his work, his ideas on what drives the desire to learn are divided into the representation of 'amore propre' and 'amore de soi' (loosely translated as 'self-esteem' and 'self-love'). These two halves represent a whole. Winch (1998) asserts that Rousseau's learning beliefs were heavily influenced by these notions. 'Amour de soi' refers to the natural state of man, selfish in his actions; committed only to self-preservation – a concept that is explored in greater detail in his work, *Discourse on the Origin of Inequality* (1999). 'Amour propre' however refers to man's relationship with the rest of the world; how he is viewed and his social standing. Winch (1998 p.25) further suggests that: "Amour propre is not only the driving force in learning, but also one of the key attributes of *Émile*." In *Émile*, learning is weaponised by the human desire of 'amour propre', without it, we cannot shape ourselves, we cannot develop, and we cannot thrive. It is driven by the learner's needs of self-esteem and therefore lends itself well to autodidacticism and the freedom to choose how and what one learns.

Peña-López (2013 p.5) adds to the argument of relinquishing the traditional approach, suggesting that the term autodidacticism in education should be used to mean education that can take place *anywhere* and that it differs from informal learning in that goals are set (albeit self-directed ones) and that there is a "full awareness of wanting to learn." Similarly to Peña-López, Parker and Roessger (2020) argue a humanistic point of view, suggesting that learners are willing to learn and inherently want to reach their own potential. They propose that learners are capable of setting their own goals. Parker and Roessger (2020) also note that learners have freedom to exercise their own choices and are capable of learning in any environment with the capacity to solve their own problems. Parker and Roessger (2020) refer to aspects of autodidacticism as self-directed learning (SDL). They propose that although SDL gained some popularity in research in the 20th century (Knowles, 1975; Tough, 1979), that it has recently lost momentum and that the lack of research on SDL, particularly within adult education, is 'troubling' (Parker and Roessger, p.215, 2020).

The idea that learners are able to set their own goals and have a natural impetus to learn is interesting in terms of this study, as newly qualified teachers already have a framework to work from (most recently – The Early Career Framework, 2019b) and can set goals around this that are personal to them, and are likely to want to learn, as teaching is viewed as a vocation.

Studies on autodidactic learning are not just limited to the human species. Kohler's anthropomorphic observations during the 1920s summarised in his work, *The Mentality of Apes*, suggested that chimpanzees learned from experiences and not from each-other (Kohler, 2018). Video footage taken at the time shows how chimpanzees solved problems by creating a tower of boxes and fixing two sticks together to knock down food that had been placed out of reach. No instruction was given. The chimpanzees were given only the tools they needed, and they learned quickly through trial and error and experimentation – they learned by themselves like true autodidacts. Kohler's work influenced Piagetian Theory and his experiments were instrumental in inspiring Vygotsky's behavioural model (Reindl et al, 2018).

Piaget's model of cognitive development theory (1999) proposed the idea that learning is an active process centred around the learner and one that can be questioned and rejected by the learner. Piaget, according to Halpenny and Pettersen (2013) and Winch (1998), had an interest in Rousseau's work and had been heavily influenced by his ideas relating to an education based on 'free exploration'. Piaget for the first time, tried to apply Rousseau's ideas (which had previously only been realised in the context of one-to-one tutorials) to a classroom setting (Halpenny and Pettersen, 2013).

Vygotsky's work (1978) also shows strong parallels with Rousseau's. Both theorists display an obsession with the ontogenesis of human learning (*Émile* is divided up into 5 distinct learning stages of life) and both are interested in how learning interacts with nature and the environment. Vygotsky's first maxim "what is the relation between human beings and their environment?" becomes a catalyst for his exploration into Socio Cultural Theory and

how the environment (not the teacher) plays an integral role in influencing learning. Vygotsky believed that the learner should lead the learning and that the learner is capable of flourishing in an environment that doesn't enforce the confines of traditional learning. (Turner-Attwell, 2010). This tenet ties in strongly with the values of autodidacticism.

'Socio cultural theory' and autodidacticism are also deeply embedded in Wenger and Lave's work (1991) on 'situated learning'. Lave (1996, p.150), much like Rousseau and Peña-López, also promotes the benefits of an informal education in any setting:

"More recently I have come to the conclusion that the "informal" practices through which learning occurs in apprenticeship are so powerful and robust that this raises questions about the efficacy of standard "formal" educational practices in schools rather than the other way around."

Lave and Wenger (1991) suggest that learning is an aspect of changing participation in changing "communities of practice" everywhere. They promote learning through the process of doing and learning through new situations over the course of time.

"Wherever people engage for substantial periods of time, day by day, in doing things in which their ongoing activities are interdependent, learning is part of their changing participation in changing practices." (Lave, 1996 p.150)

Although situated learning seems to support the premise of autodidacticism, it does not suggest that the learner learns in complete isolation. Lave and Wenger posit that environment, culture, community, and observation are key elements to successful learning. They also propose that although mentors should be in place, learners are likely to learn much more from one another.

Situated learning has recently enjoyed something of a revival and reimagining, potentially as a consequence of the Covid-19 Pandemic. The Pandemic has forced researchers to

investigate more flexible methods of education (Hill, 2020). Viberg et al. (2021) argue that 'mlearning' (learning via the use of technology) allows for the learner to engage in situated learning, albeit from a distance. This type of learning aims to bridge the gap between formal and informal learning. Their research suggests that true "informal learning is autodidactic", often accidental and in some cases unbeknownst to the learner. It is something of a holistic and organic process (Viberg et al. p.9, 2021). Most importantly, particularly in view of the current climate, autodidactic learning is seen as being sustainable. Viberg et al. (2021) build on Brown's (2010) theory regarding the 'mobility of contexts' (p.2, 2021) and suggest that mobile devices allow for these situated learning contexts to be experienced anywhere. They further propose that learners should be involved in the customisation of learning, and this should take into consideration their own tastes, learning styles and the resources available to them. This individualised personalisation of learning is a key feature of autodidacticism.

There is a nexus between situated learning and the intense dynamic environment of teaching, particularly for newly qualified teachers, whose experiences in the classroom and workplace are largely novel. Furthermore, the ever-changing landscape of teaching is not only limited to the classroom but is observed in a multifaceted sense: routes into teaching, curricula of entry courses and early career teacher programmes, changes to education policy and practice and how schools are funded. Kutsyuruba et al., (2019, p.2) tells us that this dynamism and change both influence early career teachers "development and practice and dictates professional expectations for instruction and professional learning."

However, this constant revolution of change in education can provide a rich environment for learning through experimentation. This cycle of experimentation correlates with Kolb's theory of experiential learning: "Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (Kolb, 1984, p. 38). This common thread of experimentation, learning through doing, and autodidacticism is woven into the fabric of Constructivism.

Constructivism is an overarching theme that appears to bind autodidacts together. Although it can be said that Constructivism, as a conceptual philosophical framework, is deceptively simple. It is precisely because of this, that its fundamental concept can be easily manipulated, and it is debateable as to whether this malleability is to our benefit. Cobern (1993) writes that the term constructivism has been overused in education and interpreted in a multitude of ways, this in itself has caused confusion and the outcome being that different people understand constructivism in different ways.

Thus, for the purposes of this study, I am using the term Constructivism here to describe the creative, individualistic and self-building nature of personal learning experiences.

The ideas associated with Constructivism have permeated modern teaching methods presenting a Khunian Paradigm shift in pedagogical thought. Norton and Wiburg (2003, p3.5) highlight the differences between efficiency learning and constructivist learning:

Efficiency Learning	Constructivist Learning
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Teachers present; students listen. b. Working together is cheating. c. Subjects are presented separately. d. Learning is fact-centered. e. The teacher is the source of all knowledge. f. Print is the primary source of information. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Teachers facilitate; students do, present, think, construct. b. Working together facilitates learning and problem solving. c. Subjects are integrated into a learning whole. d. Learning is problem-centered. e. There are many rich resources for learning. f. Concepts are explored using a variety of communication tools.

The constructivist learning approach marries well with Rousseau’s autodidactic learning approach. In particular, when we consider the context of the teacher mentor acting merely

as the facilitator of learning: “If he questions you himself, answer enough to feed his curiosity, but not so much as to sate it.” (Rousseau, 1979 p.172).

The pedagogical concept of autodidacticism, although perpetually undergoing lexical metamorphoses is still ubiquitous to the present day and appears under multifarious guises and adaptations such as: ‘active learning’ Piaget (1999) ‘experiential learning’ Kolb (1984), ‘socio cultural learning’ Vygotsky (1978), ‘situated learning’ Wenger and Lave (1991) and ‘self-directed learning’. Knowles (1975), Parker and Roessger (2020), and Tough (1979). All these methods have links with Rousseau’s and are underpinned by the principles of autodidacticism. The popularity of autodidacticism is unwavering and regardless of the changing terminology, similar themes are consistent throughout *Émile*, notably, those of: personalisation, freedom, autonomy, and trust. The findings chapter will see if any of these themes are present in the thoughts of newly qualified teachers. They will also be asked if an autodidactic approach to their induction needs would be of any interest to them and their learning experience.

3.2 Émilian Autodidacticism

“Our didactic and pedantic craze is always to teach children what they would learn much better by themselves and to forget what we alone could teach them” (Rousseau, 1979 p.78).

This chapter aims to explain the thought process behind Émilian Autodidacticism. It discusses the challenges of Rousseau’s work and explains why I chose to focus on a particular interpretation of his treatise.

Winch (1998, p18) suggests that:

“The thrust of Rousseau’s educational programme and, by implication of his epistemology, is to take individuals as whole, organic beings, part of the natural order of things and to develop them in more than narrowly intellectual ways.”

This idea is consistent with the concept of adaptive teaching (König et al., 2020; Westwood 2018) whereby there is a recognition that all learners are unique and have unique needs; and that teaching practice needs to adapt to these individual needs. This suggests that learners would benefit from a programme that is personal to them – ergo, a blanket multi-purpose approach may not produce the best outcomes. However, adaptive teaching by its very essence is suggestive of the fact that the teacher needs to adapt and therefore influences the learning process through adaptation. Although Rousseau makes an effort to place the child at the centre of the learning process and is perceptive and watchful of the child’s needs; the paradox here presents in the argument that Rousseau, by choosing what the child learns, and when the child learns, cannot help but guide the learning and this is in direct antithesis to the very foundations of autodidacticism. In a similar way, exemplarism explains how teachers (whether it be a subconscious or conscious effort) can influence learners significantly by the way they model behaviour and by the work that they choose for their learners. Korsgaard (2019, p.274) explains it as a process whereby: “Teachers convey values and standards through their behaviour and through their selection of

material.” This is relevant here as it highlights the contradictions that are apparent in Rousseau’s autodidacticism. All of which creates complexity when interpreting Rousseau.

One of these contradictions is discussed by Aldridge (2014) who explores Rousseau's pedagogical hermeneutics and how Rousseau’s teachings at times contradicts itself. Aldridge (2014) tells us that a dichotomy exists in Rousseau’s teaching of the fable of ‘The Fox and the Crow’ in that the lesson is both autodidactic and didactic, since Émile is allowed to interpret the fable in the way that he chooses, but the fable is also chosen for him, and a fable by its very definition is used to teach a specific lesson or moral. Aldridge (ibid) also explains that Émile has been set up to interpret the fable in the way that Rousseau would wish him to since he was earlier deliberately exposed to a situation that would serve to influence his interpretation.

This presents us with yet another example of Rousseau’s complex contradictory approach. Rousseau openly admits: “I would rather be a man of paradoxes than a man of prejudices” (Rousseau, 1979, p.196) and it is Rousseau’s readiness to admit to his own shortcomings that can also create tension for the reader; all of which perhaps creates the desired effect of establishing a space for the arousal of endless discussion and multitudinal interpretation of meanings.

Winch (1998, p18) suggests that Émile “prefigures some of the insights in epistemology and philosophy of mind that are attributed to Wittgenstein.”

Wittgenstein argues language does not have a fixed meaning and that “meanings are private experiences” (Glock, 2017 p.310). Deinstag, whilst discussing Gadamer’s work also suggests that language is personal, determined by experiences and “always interpretive” (2016, p.4). Literature is therefore an interpretative pursuit. Taylor (2014 p.380) writes that:

“...when we interpret this dimension of significance in a literary work, we do not seek to grasp the author’s purposes from the inside but to understand what he or she has

done from an independent perspective. What is brought into play here is, I argue, a kind of meaning different from intentional meaning, calling for a different kind of interpretive activity.”

Taylor (2014) also tells us that sometimes as readers we are so focused on intentional meaning that we do not always credit other forms of interpretation such as natural meaning which is associated with inference. Taylor therefore acknowledges that the existence of both intentional and natural meaning enhances our understanding of an interpretive engagement with text, and this in itself can contribute to refining debates in literary theory.

The lively debate about interpretation of language and meaning suggests that multiple interpretations do exist and are inevitable. To truly understand meaning, it must therefore be explored from different perspectives. I have chosen therefore to explore *Émile* through the lens of autodidacticism- my own interpretation of the pedagogical style of Rousseau’s teaching which I refer to as *Émilian Autodidacticism*. I hope that this novel interpretation gives rise to new perspectives on *Émile* that aim to dovetail the induction of *Émile* into the world to the induction of new teachers into the classroom.

What is *Émilian Autodidacticism*?

Émilian Autodidacticism is a form of self-directed learning that encourages the mentee to learn from their own experiences rather than imposing traditional forms of instruction. *Émilian Autodidacticism* is the ‘permission’ tool that teachers need to take charge of their induction programme. It offers choice, personalisation, and freedom in learning, but with the safety net of the watchful presence of the non-judgemental guide of a more experienced mentor. Furthermore, *Émilian Autodidacticism* is mentee centred and closely identifies with the concept of “self-directed learning” a concept which was explored in detail by Knowles (1975). It also has longevity since it includes forms of learning that are still used to do this day and reimagined and redeveloped by educational theorists such as Kolb, Piaget, and Vygotsky to name a few.

One of the key features of autodidacticism is learning through one's own experiences (Solomon, 2003) which is often referred to as experiential learning (Kolb, 1984). Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle (1984) is a cycle of intrapersonal reflection where the experiences and the ability to synthesize them make learning happen, this process is marked in *Émile's* learning, which happens entirely through his own experiences, with Rousseau only interjecting occasionally to catalyse the phase of reflective observation. Smith (2017) talks of the teaching style in *Émile* as being akin to experiential learning. However, Ozar (2016) criticises Rousseau's experiential learning approach by suggesting that Rousseau fails in this approach claiming that the method is not practical for a child so young and requires that the child is socialised and not as is the case in *Émile*, mollycoddled in solitude. The premise of experiential learning however could work for newly qualified teachers who form part of a school community and are positioned well to learn from those around them and to learn through 'doing' (Dakwa, 2016). This type of learning places the learner at the centre of the learning and this aspect of pedagogy is a core feature of *Émilian* Autodidacticism. Cutter-Mackenzie et al., (2014) believe that Piaget's theories around play-based learning were directly influenced by Rousseau's child centred approach in *Émile*. Winch (1998) suggests that although Rousseau's developmental theory was not quite as complex as Piaget's, that he did lay the foundations for some of these systems. Piaget's stages of development (1999) in his Theory of Cognitive Development, are strikingly similar to the first four learning stages in *Émile*, which in *Émile*, represent birth through to adolescence. Furthermore, Vygotsky believed that the learner should lead the learning (Turner-Attwell, 2010).

Freedom of choice is also a key component of autodidacticism. This ties in with Ryan and Deci's (1985) Self Determination Theory (SDT). There are three pillars of SDT, competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Some of this can be applied to *Émile*. Winch (1998) explains that readiness to learn is a key idea in *Émile*, that guides when the learner is capable of learning certain things, this can relate to the pillar of competence and the idea that the correct amount of challenge leads to mastery (Ryan & Deci, 1985). But by far the most

relatable aspect is that of autonomy. Ryan and Deci (ibid) suggest that this is satisfied when freedom of choice is given, interests are encouraged, and cognitive autonomy is stimulated. Émile's education centres around the concept of freedom, under the premise that if the child is given freedom, and given freedom to learn, the task will not be arduous. Rousseau believed strongly in the autodidactic power of choice: "You should be well aware that it is rarely up to you to suggest to him what he should learn. It is up to him to desire it, seek it, to find it." (Rousseau, 1979, p.179)

The connections with motivational theory do not end there. Winch (1998) explains that the primary source of motivation in Émile is to be found within Émile himself. This I believe is a concept closely aligned with the theory of intrinsic motivation. Applying this concept to new teachers means to award them with the freedom they need which will in turn satisfy their needs and interests and motivate them to learn. For example, when Émile reaches the age where he is ready to take on a calling or profession, he is allowed absolute freedom to decide, with the only stipulation being to do what interests him. This is the very essence of intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 1985) which secures the interests of learners to produce better outcomes. Intrinsic motivation comes from within, and Rousseau tells us: "True education consists less in precept than in practice. We begin to instruct ourselves when we begin to live. Our education begins with us." (1979, p.42). As ever, with Rousseauian teachings, there is a caveat. The caveat here is that it is an enormous gamble to assume that high levels of motivation are enough to ensure that learning takes place (Winch, 1998). A quandary perhaps for the successful delivery of an Émilian autodidactic induction for teachers.

Another autodidactic paradox in the autodidactic framework of Émile is reading. Despite being a self-confessed autodidact and learning most of what he knew from books, Rousseau states that he does not believe in learning from books "I hate books; they only teach us to talk about things we know nothing about." (Rousseau, 1979 p.207). His pupil Émile was not given a book to read until adolescence (for fear that it would corrupt his mind and discourage him from learning directly from his natural environment) and even then, the first book he was given to read was a book about a man who had to learn to survive in an

environment without support, and only on the scraps of nature that surrounded him. The book was Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*. Arguably, *Robinson Crusoe* is a true example of the embodiment of self-learning from one's environment (Cyrot, 2007) and therefore the epitome of uninterrupted autodidacticism.

It is clear from this discussion that there are problems and challenges with Rousseau's autodidactic approach in *Émile* - I acknowledge them. But the overarching concept of autodidactic freedom and liberation is a golden thread that runs through *Émile*, highlighting the potential and the positives of an autodidactic approach. One of the most important aims of Rousseau's *Maxims* relates to freedom: "...the spirit of these rules (Maxims) is to accord children more true freedom and less dominion." (Rousseau, 1979, p.68). *Émile* is at the epicentre of the treatise, he is an autodidact, an individual, a learner. This freedom lays the foundation for *Émilian Autodidacticism*.

Rousseau's version of autodidacticism could be interpreted as extreme (absolute and uninterrupted) and at times at odds with his own premise. His suggestion is that the mentor should not influence or interfere with his or her mentee, yet we have seen from Aldridge's (2014) and Winch's writing (1998) that this is not often the case. This is suggestive of the fact that true autodidacticism cannot be achieved (Solomon, 2003). It can however be *aimed* for and can form the groundwork for an exploratory philosophical lens. I argue that *Émilian Autodidacticism*, despite its flaws, contains elements of many of the pedagogical practices that we use today such as adaptive teaching, exemplarity, experiential learning, learning through play, SDT, and self-directed learning. It is therefore worthy of exploring as both pedagogy and philosophy.

Why *Émile* as a philosophical framework?

Although Biesta (2009) voices concerns over the relevance of philosophy in Education, Chambliss (2009) tells us that discussions surrounding the philosophy of education is a thriving topic in academic research, and one that has the potential to grow. Hogan and Smith (2003, p.165) suggest that it is a topic that causes considerable debate: "Views differ

widely about how philosophical reflection can inform the conduct of educational practice, and also about the extent to which it should do so.”

The fact that the topic is so divisive suggests that it has the potential to engage and requires further exploration. Etymologically, philosophy can be defined as the ‘love of wisdom’ and this can be interpreted as the driving force behind any research and the passion behind a doctoral thesis.

Hägg and Gabrielsson (2020) concluded that recent pedagogical discussions now use theory and philosophy as a central foundation, and this has been a noticeable shift from past research. Hayden (2012, p.24) suggests that philosophers of education “...are interested in the kinds of questions that one would predict; theoretical explorations of education, inquiries about teaching, pedagogies, and practice, and investigations of what is being taught or learned in schools.” This suggests that there is a strong symbiotic connection between research in education and philosophy.

Philosophy is a gateway to understanding the world and interpreting meaning, and therefore can be applied to any discipline, and this includes the study of education. It is this ‘transdisciplinary’ nature of philosophy that precisely makes it difficult to define (Chambliss, 2009) since it can be used in any context and subject matter. Chambliss (2009, p.251) concludes that that “the philosophy of education is what those who write it and teach it say it is.” It is precisely this flexibility that lends itself well to theoretical frameworks, and this entrepreneurial spirit gives way to philosophy being used in unusual and creative ways. This is why *Émile, or on Education* has been used in this thesis as a philosophical and theoretic framework, and it is why the concept of Émilian Autodidacticism deserves to be explored.

Wainwright, Aldridge et al., (2020) suggest that education lends itself to flexible and new perspectives in educational research and that its interdisciplinarity is an advantage in research, allowing for novel offerings. This thesis hopes to provide this unique standpoint by combining philosophy and theory and exploring a novel approach to *Émile*.

3.3 Needs

A common rudimentary definition of need focuses on the idea of the human need of survival, a notion that Rousseau (1999) refers to as the natural need of 'man'. Rousseau attempts to further dissect the concept and offers a definition of the differences between true 'needs' and 'wants':

"The true need, natural need, must be carefully distinguished from the need which stems from nascent whim or from the need which comes only from the superabundance of life." (Rousseau, 1979, pg. 86)

Needs theory and in particular the dichotomous relationship between 'needs' and 'wants' has long been part of the fabric of philosophical thought, but of late has enjoyed something of a revival (Brock and Miller, 2019). Reader (2005) suggests that the topic has recently enjoyed a return to the academic spotlight because needs theorists have gained confidence as scepticism has seemingly shifted and views have broadened. This new-found confidence has allowed theorists to discard previously accredited and acclaimed works and build on them instead to form new concepts and schemas.

Maslow has been championed as one of the most important psychologists of the 20th century (Koltko-Rivera, 2006) and his 'Hierarchy of Needs' is one that is most frequently referred to and cited, particularly in "introductory psychology text-books" (Desmet and Fokkinga, 2020 p.3). Although Maslow's 'Hierarchy of Needs' still appears to maintain its position as the zenith of needs typology, it has been discredited by many academics due to its lack of empirical and scientific rigor (Desmet and Fokkinga, 2020). Acevedo (2018 p.2) suggests that the entire experimental design is flawed, largely because of the following:

"...the extant studies' small, atypical and convenience sampling, their lack of control groups, and social desirability and the inadequate operationalization of its concepts (e.g., measurement of need, need satisfaction, and psychological well-being)".

Maslow himself later became aware of the limitations of his initial study (Acevedo 2018; Koltko-Rivera, 2006;) and after much academic debate, updated his theory in his work, 'Toward a Psychology of Being' (1978). Yet it still falls short. Desmet and Fokkinga (2020) argue that Maslow's work lacks the three criteria for high-quality typologies: Inclusion, distinction and equivalence. They argue that Maslow did not throw his net wide enough to capture a large diverse sample of participants in his study, choosing mainly to focus on middle aged white men. Secondly, needs may not be universal and as Maslow's study took place in America- a western culture, it may not resonate or indeed apply to people from different cultures. Finally, the needs categories are far too broad and lack 'granularity'. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs was limited to five needs.

Desmet and Fokkinga (2020 p.9) proposed instead a new typology based on "thirteen fundamental needs and fifty-two sub-needs." The main categories include: Autonomy, Beauty, Comfort, Community, Competence, Fitness, Impact, Morality, Purpose, Recognition, Relatedness, Security and Stimulation. The categories are strikingly similar to those that were conceived by Symonds (1943) who published a thorough study exploring the needs of teachers, gaining an understanding of their feelings and values from an autobiographical perspective. Morality also formed a fundamental need in studies undertaken by Ford and Nichols (1992); Rokeach (2000); Schwartz (1994). Both Desmet and Fokkinga and Symonds' studies acknowledged the need for social support alongside morality; both aspects which were missing in Maslow's works but ones that have since been explored in great depth by modern philosophers and academics.

Brock was one of these academics. Her seminal works (1998, 2005, 2019) furthered the conversation of needs theory alongside the importance of the moral aspect. Her initial study guided the discussion towards the morality of essential human needs from an ethical perspective (1998). Brock focuses on supporting the needs of others, as opposed to arguing about the existence of needs and their validity. She suggests that in an egalitarian society, those governing, have an obligation to meet the needs of others. Brock (2019) approaches

the topic of needs with confidence arguing that needs are 'salient' should we be open to them and that they should inform policy and even global justice. Brock is heavily influenced by Rawls and his theory of thought experimentation (Lovett, 2010). Both Rawls and Brock argue that the relationship between human rights and human needs is inseparable. Brock (2005, p.65) explains how one is dependent on the other:

"We must have an account of our basic needs in order to draw up a sensible list of human rights. A needs-based account is thus more fundamental than a human-rights account."

This view is supported by Miller (2012) who points out that from a moral perspective, the importance of understanding human need is vital in being able to preserve the dignity of a person. Miller notes that human needs demand 'dignifying care'. If we are therefore in a position to satisfy human need, it is surely then a moral and ethical choice to do so.

Miller builds on Kantian theory in particular Kant's concept of 'duty of beneficence' (a duty that obligates us to help others without any expectation of reciprocity) and adds this to her interpretation of care ethics to create her own model of the moral care of needs. Care ethics is of value here as it deals with 'particularity', meaning that: at the heart of caring for a person's needs is the individual and every individual has their own needs particular to them. Held (2006) proposes that meeting someone's needs is central to the notion of care ethics. It is a form of personalisation that we are familiar with in teaching pedagogy but perhaps one that is missing in the personalisation of a new teacher's learning needs. The vast majority of schools and training providers follow a generic newly qualified teacher programme (Haggarty et al., 2011) and not one that is particular or personal to the newly qualified teacher. Miller proposes a form of 'dignified care' that serves the particular needs of an individual, whilst "preserving their sense of their own value in the process" (2012, p.157).

Miller's work adds to the growing body of research that indicates a strong link between serving needs, dignity and the individual feeling valued. In a recent study by Jerrim (2020), it was noted that teachers felt undervalued and that this had been a contributing factor for increased mental health issues amongst the work-force. This highlights the importance of our obligation and responsibility to satisfy needs as not doing so has potentially damaging consequences. Reader (2007) and Weil (1952) go so far as to claim that moral obligation and human needs are inextricably linked and cannot be separated. This has huge implications on the responsibilities of those who find themselves in a position to serve need. It can be said that the understanding of 'need' from a moral perspective is of particular interest to those working in the public sector as the main driving force behind the public sector is to serve human need. Jerrim's study also demonstrates that true needs are much broader than those which we refer to as 'natural' or 'physical'. Furthermore, McGregor et al. (2009), argue that a definition of needs should include both social and psychological needs. Needs must therefore include those that not only feed the body, but those that feed the mind.

Measuring needs has become something of a fetish in recent years. Reader (2005, p.5) argues that the empiricism of needs and the mistakes that have been made in doing so have "contributed to the marginalisation of need" opening the debate up to further scepticism. Wiggins (2005 p.30) tried to 'correct' these mathematical mistakes by offering to define the blurred line between needs and wants with yet another quasi socio-mathematical equation.

Necessarily at t (if ____ then...)

or, taking into consideration an 'instrumental' need:

Necessarily at t (if ____ (which is unforsakeable) is to be, then...)

A similar route is also explored by White (1974, p.1) who builds on the axiomatic equation: 'A needs X' as 'A needs to V'.

Although the idea of the ‘measurability’ of needs has been explored in detail in recent years, it fails to adequately provide any convincing arguments or empirical rigour. Such expositions are unsatisfactory because these ‘equations’ rely solely on subjective ‘measurability’ and therefore cannot be perceived as empirical and definitive. Where does the tenuous line of ‘wants’ intersect with that of ‘needs’ and does it overlap? Who decides what is determined by the term ‘needs’ and how are these needs identifiable?

Brock (2019) suggests that needs are difficult to identify as they are often shaped by our surroundings, culture and expectations; these endless permutations produce endless variations in what each individual considers as essential. For example, a farmer living in a remote location in the Outer Hebrides may consider running water, food, fuel and farming tools as essential needs; yet a banker living in a penthouse in London, may consider a phone with the latest technology and a chauffeur driven car as essentials. This variability was also seen in Tay and Diener’s study (2011), which sampled needs variation across one hundred and twenty three countries and discovered some universality in basic needs such as those referred to as ‘physiological needs’ by Maslow but the concept of what was determined by these basic needs differed immeasurably according to the country and culture that was sampled; proving that the ‘notion’ of what constitutes even the most basic needs shows immense variability.

It could equally be argued that the terms are more concerned with semiotic linguistics such as Saussure’s semiology, (Culler, 1988) than tangible experiences and knowledge. For example, one person’s idea of needs will be different to another’s; their concept of the *notion* of needs will differ as will their *knowledge and experience* of it in practice.

The academic literature on needs reveals several antithetical and opposing views: needs versus wants, autonomy versus heteronomy, physical versus psychological and subjectivism versus objectivism. These sharp contrasts, so arguable, so divisive, and partly unanswerable, explain perhaps the ongoing fascination with needs theory and the ongoing continuation of highly spirited dialogue.

Serving needs may therefore not always be a sanctimonious or well-meaning pursuit with productive ends. Brock (2019) argues that distribution of needs can lend itself to 'paternalism' and abuse as it is difficult to maintain parity across the board and not fall prey to favouritism in distributing need. These attitudes all contribute to further scepticism. Tiutiunnykova (2017) goes as far as to suggest that fulfilling 'excessive need' in the workplace, can potentially lead to loss of economic output. She adds that we are right to be sceptical as it protects our interests. In direct contrast, Bradshaw (1972 p.3) suggests that the economics of need cannot be applied to every workplace, in particular, social services present a dilemma "because there is normally no link between service and payment." Therefore, if social services are servicing the needs of people who do not pay for the service, how can this need be measured? Should economic output even be a consideration in such cases?

Bradshaw (1972) discards the need for a definition of normative needs arguing that one definition will not fit all. In his 'Taxonomy of Needs', he presents 4 components that contribute to the formation of needs: Normative, felt, expressed and comparative. Felt need relates to human desires, expressed needs are felt needs that have been acted upon and comparative needs, aim to establish parity across similar communities and their needs. The idea of a comparative need is most compelling since it offers a sense of measurability and a starting point for those seeking to serve needs in a way that at least considers 'fairness' as a component. Yet again, there are problems associated with this. Comparative need is hard to measure and ascertain, and the individuality of humans creates endless furcations in their perception of needs, even within a 'similar' community. Doyal and Gough (1984) argue that Bradshaw's taxonomy was flawed because of the impossibility of defining these 4 components with any level of accuracy. Such difficulties in defining true needs continue to contribute to populous scepticism.

One answer to this general scepticism is the idea that needs can be decided on an individual basis in a 'principled' way (Braybrooke, 1987). We can choose to help, and we can choose

to be principled. In order for the general need to be fulfilled, we must put our trust in society and value the particularity of feelings and experiences of the individual.

Overall, the evidence reviewed in these studies seem to suggest a pertinent role for the deliberation of human need and a moral obligation to serve it. Reader (2005, p.22) claims that the theory of need 'has a very wide contribution to make.... It can help us to understand rationality, human action and human nature.'

Rousseau's desire to separate 'true need' from 'nascent whim' was echoed by Papanek and Fuller (1971, p.7) who suggests that true needs remain neglected because of our fascination with the passing chimera of wants and desires:

"Much of recent design has satisfied only evanescent wants and desires, while the genuine needs of man have often been neglected. The economic, psychological, spiritual, social, technological, and intellectual needs of a human being are usually more difficult and less profitable to satisfy."

It is because of this, that needs should be recognised without the lurking scepticism and division of wants and desires. Needs are unique to the individual. (Thomson, 2005, p.175) proposes that needs are 'unimpeachable values'. We cannot say truly that a person ought to have different needs and, in this sense, they are fundamental.

With this in mind, my definition of needs will assume the following:

1. True need is that which is determined by the individual.
2. We have a moral obligation to serve needs.
3. It is not necessary to measure need and attempts in doing so are divisive.

These sensitivities will be applied to the newly qualified teachers in this study with an understanding their needs are true to them and individual to them. Their needs will be accepted and taken at face value.

3.4 Performativity

“The goal is no longer truth, but performativity — that is, the best possible input/output equation.” (Lyotard, 1984, p. 46)

The term performativity grew from Lyotard’s postmodernist thinking and his seminal work, *The Postmodern Condition* (1984). In this report, Lyotard explored the term of Performativity and suggested that performativity was an ‘efficient optimisation of performance’, Lyotard explored the concept of the legitimisation of knowledge. The paradox lies within the fact that performativity cannot be measured accurately by scientific knowledge, and that those in power who control the performative systems are more likely to suppress their workers rather than enhance their productivity. Locke (2015) argues that the term performance and therefore performativity has many meanings and is therefore ripe for interpretation.

Arguably, in recent decades, the term has since been seized and manipulated by modern philosophers, with its use largely now associated with efficiency, accountability, bureaucratic surveillance mechanisms, and even abuse:

“Performativity, post-Lyotard, has become almost a term of abuse to be used for the ideology and efficient practices of those institutions which, based upon the human sciences, are increasingly dominated by bureaucracy wherein goals are set in ever narrowing demands of reporting, and where accountability is measured by outputs. (Marshall, 1999, p.2)

Perryman (2006, 2018) agrees with this bureaucratic element and suggests that the term in teaching is used to link accountability, judgements, and surveillance, to measure teacher

performance and output. There is limited research available that relates performativity directly to the induction of newly qualified teachers, but as newly qualified teachers are part of the same school systems and structures of all teachers, performativity in schools can also be applied to newly qualified teachers as teachers working in the same context. This gap highlights the importance of further research in this area. However, some studies have touched upon this topic. Glazzard and Coverdale's (2018) study on NQT experiences uncovered that Performativity has an influence on teachers, even early on in their careers. Glazzard and Coverdale's (2018, p.97) study tells us that: "It was evident from the data that the NQTs in this study had been initiated into the discourse of performativity that is entrenched within the education system." Furthermore, Wilkins (2011 p.394) discusses the fact that newly qualified teachers complete their induction training in a "highly performative environment", one which is overlooked by professional and managerial systems and Ofsted. Wilkins' (2011) study also suggested that whilst NQTs were aware that performative measures were a tool in developing them as teachers, they did not understand the purpose of them and were unable to express how evidencing and recording helped to develop them as teachers.

The idea of performativity under the shroud of surveillance is often referred to as panoptic performativity in education. Originally, the idea of the watchful panopticon was first explored by Bentham in 1791. Weinreich (2021) writes that Bentham's idea was centred around a central all-seeing tower in prison. Since the watchful gaze could be turned to you at any given time, it therefore encouraged the prisoners to behave as if it was, and in a way that would be pleasing to the inspectors. Bentham explained that the panopticon would bring efficiency to the community – he did not see any potential problems with his model. In his pamphlet, he promised:

"Morals reformed — health preserved — industry invigorated — instruction diffused — public burthens lightened — Economy seated, as it were, upon a rock — the gordian knot of the Poor-Laws not cut but untied — all by a simple idea in Architecture!" (1843b: 39)

Bentham's panopticon is perhaps better known through the work of Foucault and his work: *Discipline and Punish, The Birth of the Prison*. In this work Foucault (1977) explores the concept of the panopticon and how it wields power over its citizens. Foucault guides us through the history of the prison, the panopticon, and how it is used to discipline and punish. This system of disciplinary punishment is set upon the foundations of 'hierarchical observation, 'normalizing judgement' and 'the examination' (Foucault, 1977, p.170). What is most interesting about Foucault's musings is that he suggests that this model of the panopticon can be extended to the wider society. Perryman (2006) suggests that it is this Foucauldian system of imaginings is often used in modern education to examine teachers and is contributing to high levels of accountability and disciplinary action. This includes the education setting, and further microcosms of education, such as the training of new teachers (Glazzard and Coverdale, 2018; Wilkins, 2011).

Churher et al (2020) expands on this idea and suggest that that performativity leads to 'hyper' accountability and much higher levels of bureaucracy in the education system, this sentiment is also echoed by Ozga (2020) who claims that accountability is driven by management and policy. Perryman (2018) believes that this is to the detriment of the profession and that the performativity fetish in schools can lead to further workload, stress, and more teachers leaving the profession.

The results of the first Workload Survey administered by the Government (DfE, 2016) found that these measures were directly linked to workload:

"Further analysis showed that teacher-level factors, including perceptions of performance evaluation by management... had an impact on the total number of hours reported by teachers in the reference week. The largest source of variation in workload was attributable to factors which acted on individual teachers (for example, their level of experience or how their performance is evaluated) rather than those

that impacted on the school.” (DfE, Teacher Workload Survey 2016; Research brief February 2017, p.4)

The issue of performance evaluation was not investigated in the latest Teacher Workload Survey (DfE, 2019c) and as such, no recent comparisons can be made. There were no interim reports available due to the Coronavirus Pandemic.

Ball (2003) discusses the dichotomy that can be found within the framework of performativity in schools. For some teachers, the response to performative measures is a strive for better productivity and excellence, for others, the opposite is true. Ball argues that performativity does not as previously supposed produce transparency, but rather, ‘opacity’, since teachers find increasingly creative ways to concoct their performances. Ball (2012) furthers his argument by explaining that these performative methods encourage educators to lose themselves amongst the constant ‘challenges of reporting and recording our practice’ (Ball, 2012, p.4).

How personal identity can be affected by the pressure of performativity has inspired many scholarly discussions. Ball (2013) discusses the dangers of performative measures and explains that because performativity tells us how to perform, this in turn makes us doubt ourselves; we lose ourselves and who we are by trying to perform to a role. Clapham (2013 p.1) agrees and writes that performativity can go as far as to affect ‘teachers’ sense of self’ and that performativity can transform teachers into docile and disciplined ‘bodies’. Ball, in a personal email to Goodley and Perryman (2022, p.11) writes further on this matter:

“The key point I was trying to make was that what the regime was doing was not just changing what teachers do, but who and what they are, their relation to themselves, their social intelligibility, and thus how they understood, talked about and enacted educational processes.” (S.J. Ball, personal communication, 18 January 2022)

Czerniawski (2011) explains that whilst the lines can be blurred between the way identity and self are viewed in education, teachers may construct their model teacher identity on the values of others, such as the teacher mentor; furthermore, Czerniawski suggests that these influences act directly to influence the teachers' values. It seems that we are asking for a chameleonic change to teachers, their values, their sense of self, and their identities, and that this is in part driven by the conduit of performativity in schools.

Values of teachers are important. We should be measuring teachers by their values and not by the outputs of their 'performances', observations, or their students' grades. Measurability is explored in detail by Ball (2012 p.4) who suggests that Performativity "links effort, values, purposes and self-understanding to measures and comparisons of output." Broadly speaking, Ball proposes that the term is used to describe approaches used by management to observe and measure new teachers' progress and their success. (2012; 2003). Measurements are used as performative tools in education and these tools can have a negative effect on teacher wellbeing (Brady and Wilson, 2021) and the subsequent lack of autonomy for new teachers is an aggravating factor affecting new teachers (Høigaard et al., 2012).

This raises questions about the suitability of performative measures for teachers. Can teachers be measured on the outputs of their students and how much control can they have of these outputs? Clapham (2016) writes that whilst Ofsted scores are calculable, student/teacher relationships and engagement and trust of students is not.

Biesta (2010) takes an interesting viewpoint on this matter, questioning the role of performativity in education and how much emphasis there should be on evidence-based performativity. Biesta intimates that often evidence based performativity creates a 'democratic deficit' (2010, p. 492) which can act to replace professional judgements. Biesta studied evidence-based performativity through the context of three main aspects: epistemological, ontological and praxeological; he concluded that democratic deficits were present in all three domains. Biesta labels these deficits as: 'knowledge deficit'

(epistemology), 'effectiveness or efficacy deficit' (ontology), and 'application deficit' (praxis), (2010, p.493). Biesta argues therefore that there should be a shift from Evidence Based Education towards Value-Based Education because values are at the heart of every education system. Gray and Seiki (2020) agree and believe that we need to move away from the harmful system which emphasises data over teaching values and move towards a learner led approach. A learner led approach is the central value of Rousseau's autodidactic approach, where the learner is valued, not the learner's outputs.

The continuum of performativity deficit extends to teacher recruitment and retention deficits. Performativity measures in teaching are important to study because it can often be the reason why teachers leave the profession (Perryman and Calvert, 2020). Perryman and Calvert explain that these performative measures, coupled up with heightened accountability can be the main cause of workload and why teachers are choosing to leave their jobs. Perryman and Calvert further go on to state that performative measures not only encourage teachers to leave the profession, but that they can also dampen teachers' enthusiasm and love of the job. This insinuates that we are creating a deeply damaging culture that destroys teachers' passion for the vocation, whilst simultaneously encouraging them to leave.

Observations in teaching can be interpreted as a performative tool in so much that they assess the success of the teacher's lesson, they can also create additional workload for teachers.

"An ECT's teaching is expected to be observed at regular intervals throughout their induction period to facilitate a fair and effective assessment of the ECT's teaching practice, conduct and efficiency against the Teachers' Standards." (DfE, 2021b, p.20)

There are issues that could potentially arise from this guidance. As there are no numeric values assigned to the term 'regular intervals', this is open to interpretation and could potentially be overused in a panoptic approach. Equally, the term assessment is suggestive of some sort of formal grading system, which again could feed into the performative agenda.

Perryman et al., (2018) suggest that the very existence of Ofsted inspections and observations, by default, places schools and teachers under the panopticon, as they can never be sure when they are going to be inspected. Colman (2022 p. 17) agrees and says: “school inspection produces an effect of constant visibility and pressure to perform for leaders and teachers.” These pressures can result in stress and anxiety for staff. Page (2017) refers to this phenomenon as ‘risk anxiety’. Edgington (2016) claims that grading teachers can be a stressful experience for teachers and that some observation policies in schools can often be “bureaucratic and punitive in nature” (Edgington, 2016, p.137). Edgington concludes by suggesting that a dichotomy exists between the personal values of the observed and the role that they think they need to perform when being observed, this plays on the emotions and values of the teacher. Rousseau does not assign any value to examining his mentees and suggests that the process of examination encourages a show and is of no benefit. “When the child is to be examined, he is made to spread out his merchandise. He displays it; satisfaction is obtained. Then he closes up his pack and leaves.” (Rousseau, 1979 p.162)

Courtney (2014) suggests that since the recent Ofsted reforms, we are entering an era called post-panopticism, a regime that is intent on uncovering the performances that panoptic performativity creates. Effectively, this is euphemistic of undercover surveillance, begging the question of whether this is truly a necessary tool for the education sector.

All of this opens important discussions in relation to the ethical use of performative measures in education. Should our teachers be seen as measurable outputs or should they be recognised as a sum of their own values, experiences, emotions and personalities. Ball (2013) writes that “The essential point about performativity is that we must make ourselves calculable rather than memorable.”

Drawing on work such as Worth et al’s (2020) and the House of Common’s Education Committee Report 2016-2017, it is strongly suggested the support and training systems

that we currently have in schools are not helping to retain teachers or equip them with the skills they need. The current statutory guidance (DfE, 2021b) focuses on the following:

- Regular formal observations by tutor and/or Head teacher
- Regular formal assessment meetings
- Formal written reports

As the DfE illustrates, the consequences of failing to meet the guidance are high stakes:

Failure to complete the induction period satisfactorily means that the ECT is no longer eligible to be employed as a teacher in a maintained school, a maintained nursery school, a non-maintained special school or a pupil referral unit. (DfE, 2021b, p. 19)

This level of pressure, early on in a teacher's career, with a focus on regular performative measures is low value – it also discourages teacher autonomy.

There are existing models of teacher induction which are not so performative focused such as those experienced in the Scandinavian countries, for example in Finland.

Schools conduct self-evaluations. In 1991, school inspections were abolished, and there is no national system for evaluating performance of schools. Schools conduct self-evaluations as part of their responsibilities and can also participate in external evaluations conducted by the Finnish Education Evaluation Council. (OECD Education Policy Outlook; Finland 2014).

The Finnish education system is widely recognised as being one of the best in the world and has some of the most satisfied and valued teachers. According to the OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS)¹ (OECD, 2018), the proportion (58.2%) of Finnish

teachers who believe that theirs is a valued profession is the highest in the EU. The proportion who are satisfied with their job is 88%.

Gerrevall (2018) explains that Sweden trialled an induction programme in 2011 that was much like our English performative model and focused on formal assessment. It was withdrawn three years later as it was found to be counterproductive. It emerged that a need for an induction programme focusing solely on support and development was more beneficial with teacher assessment limited to the teacher training programme resulting in the equivalent of our QTS. Gerrevall (2018 p. 631) summarised that:

Induction programmes including assessments of suitability were introduced in Sweden 2011 and were in use for three years. The results support bringing the gatekeeper-function back into teacher education and focusing the induction programme on support and development.

Mockler (2022) states that the performative measures in education not only stifle but limit the learning of new teachers. Mockler (2022 p.1) intimates that they: "...frame the practice of teacher professional learning. These in turn give rise to some possibilities of practice while limiting others, effectively creating the space within which what counts as 'authentic professional learning' can be enacted." This idea of the current teacher training system being unauthentic is interesting as it points towards a system that is evolved from panoptic performativity. A system which offers little in the way of freedom, personalisation, and originality. A system far removed from the Emilian Autodidactic framework that is explored in this thesis.

Given that we are struggling to retain and recruit newly qualified teachers, we should also be asking why the system of induction and formal assessment that we have in England is not fit for purpose and we should be asking those at the heart of the subject, the newly qualified teachers - why. Performativity was a theme that was uncovered during this study, and it will be discussed in the Results chapter in greater detail.

3.5 Mentoring

Burke et al., (2015) tell us that there is a direct link pertaining to the quality of mentoring and the attrition rates of new teachers. This thought is echoed by Shanks et al (2022) whose comparative study uncovered that the role of mentoring can be pivotal in the support and success of beginning teachers. Ingersoll and Strong's (2011) prominent report also found strong evidence that mentoring can have a sizeable positive affect on new teachers and the success of induction programmes. Langdon et al., (2017) tells us that mentoring is the most important aspect of any induction programme, and also proposed that mentoring should focus not only on the learning of the mentee, but also on the mentor.

Mentoring has been a practice that has spanned the ages and is present in almost every apprenticeship, educational institute and workplace (Kemmis et al., 2014). Its importance and relevance in teacher training is undisputed, and mentoring continues to be widely used as a training tool in teaching in almost every country across the globe (Hobson et al., 2009).

One needs only to look towards the teaching of the ancient Sophists to view mentoring in its early workings (Pomeroy and Steiker, 2011). It is possible that 'Mentor', a character from a Homeric text may be responsible for the origins of the term (Jakubik et al., 2016). Mentor's role was to educate, nurture, support and to guide (Griffin, 2004) and although definitions of mentoring across the centuries are nuanced, many still contain these four basic principles, highlighting the poem's importance and ongoing influence in the subject of mentoring. Sommer et al. (2013) goes further to suggest that ancient stories such as 'The Odyssey' heavily influence and assist modern praxis in academia, for example, they propose that the character of Mentor is often seen channelled through the mentoring style of supervisors in academic roles.

Hopwood and Bradbury (2021) are of a similar viewpoint also believing that the term 'mentor' originated from Homer's literary character and that the character's legacy continues to live on. They suggest that it was the first time that the word 'mentor' was used to depict a character and not a 'process' and thus, the role was created. Hopwood and Bradbury (2021) go on to claim that mentoring has lost some of its efficacy, due to the

reversal of this position, whereby the focus has reverted to the process and *not* the relationship. Moreover, they propose that the relationship is key and for the mentoring process to be successful; much thought needs to be invested in matching the mentee to mentor in a way that is symbiotically harmonious. In areas where the mentor is weak, the mentee should be strong, and where the mentor is strong, the mentee should be weak. This suggests the need for a more fluid definition of mentorship - one that is considerate of characteristics as opposed to procedures. Chesterman (2001) agrees that a good informal mentor/mentee relationship, begins with self-selection.

Haggard et al's review (2011) found as many as forty definitions of the word 'mentor' in use since the 1980s. They suggest that similar terms are often used synonymously, such as coach and tutor and that this interchange perhaps fuels confusion. These wide and varied notions of how mentoring is defined, practised and realised mean that it is difficult to review them empirically (Haggard et al., 2011; Ingersoll and Strong, 2011; Kram, 1984). In a similar vein, this also suggests that mentoring is dynamic and cannot be defined by a process. This dynamism may explain why the way mentoring is practised and defined continues to be a complex topic that inspires debate. Colley (2003 p.13) claims that despite its rapid expansion in the modern workplace, that mentoring is: "ill defined, poorly conceptualised and weakly theorized". Kemmis et al. (2014 p.154) claim that the disparity is due to "plurality of theories" whilst Haggard et al. (2011 p.23) claim that "we do not believe it is possible, or even desirable, for all researchers to agree on one specific, comprehensive definition of mentoring." This is similar to the views of (Mullen and Klimaitis, 2021) who intimate that mentoring is a term that is often wrongly confused with coaching and is an obstruse term in academic literature. Definitions vary and perhaps this is a result of the ubiquity of mentoring styles (Richter et al., 2013), relationships, and therefore the complexity of them. With such obvious discord in practice and debate, is it possible to measure the success of mentoring programmes accurately and is it possible to create a multipurpose generic schema for all? Some theorists have tried to tackle this dilemma, exploring the complexities of mentoring relationships and their interplay within the mentoring programme.

Wang and Odell (2007, p.473) suggest that sixteen types of mentoring relationships exist, and that mentoring has the possibility to expand 'reform-minded' thinking in teacher education. Wang and Odell (2007) argue that mentoring initially is borne from three theoretical concepts: Humanism, Situated Practice and Critical Constructivism. They further propose that from these, furcations branch out, developing a platform for a vast multitudinous landscape of mentoring styles and mentee needs.

Odell's (1990) earlier paper explores these three concepts in detail. Firstly, Humanistic mentoring focuses on the care of the individual and their social and psychological needs. It is similar to a counselling role and aims to develop the mentees' confidence in their profession and support their emotional needs. This is closely linked to the philosophies of 'Care Ethics' (see previous section on 'The Philosophy of Need'). Secondly, the situated approach popularised by Brown (1989) and Lave and Wenger (1991) proposes that mentees' knowledge builds when they use it in practice. Lastly, Odell and Wang (2007, p.477) suggest that the critical constructivist style aims to "critique existing knowledge, structures, and the culture of teaching and schooling and to work collaboratively to transform such knowledge and practice." However, there appears to be a weakness in the research, as there is no suggestion in Odell's work (1990, 1992, 1996) that these styles can be blended to suit the individual mentor and mentee. This blended approach could be explored in the context of autodidactic mentoring and consequently personalised to meet the individual learning styles of the mentees.

Kemmis et al. (2014 p.154) propose their own three typologies of mentorship: "supervision, support, and collaborative self-development." Their research is important because it considers and compares mentoring internationally, intimating that although mentoring across the globe shares a generic commonality of practice, cultural influences exist; and that these do have an effect on mentoring styles. This idea is supported by Bright (2005) who suggests that modern western mentoring culture is strategy focused and is for example, far removed from the gentle eastern Japanese mentoring culture of 'senpai – kohai' (trans. junior – senior). Bright (2005) further elaborates by explaining that Japanese mentoring is relationship focused and in contrast to the western model with its continuously changeable and oscillating foci, the Japanese style has remained constant over the centuries. Senpai-

kohai, the joining together of experience and novice, is centred around an informal, emotional support. It is a holistic, friendly, and non-judgmental mentoring style (Bright, 2005) and the direct antithesis of the often process driven and performative approach favoured by mentors in western culture (Hopwood and Bradbury, 2021). This is not a relationship of equals, however. This is a relationship of the elder and the novice, with a very set and distinct hierarchy.

In contrast, John-Steiner and Mahn's (1996) theoretical model of collaborative learning, developed from a Vygotskian framework suggests fluidity in roles and relationships. It tells us that the relationship between the mentor and mentee is co-constructed and includes elements such as informality, shared goals, a unified voice, and fluid 'braided' roles. This equality of roles suggests that a mentor relationship could be classified as peer related from the outset. John-Steiner and Mahn (1996) go further to suggest that the mentor will benefit as much as the mentee by developing the mentoring relationship and that learning takes place at both levels. These theories have been built on by the work of many modern academics such as Beutel et al., (2017); and Walters and Robinson (2020). Theorists such as Kram (1984) also focused on the relationships between the mentor and mentee, suggesting that these relationships go through four distinct phases: initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition. Kram (1984) suggests that relationships can be ongoing indefinitely, and that eventually these relationships will develop from mentor to mentee into peer relationships. This differs slightly to the John-Steiner and Mahn model in so much that Kram suggests that only after many years of experience, can the mentee and mentor enjoy peer status, this is not something that is possible at the start of the mentor/mentee relationship.

Informal mentoring is at the heart of autodidacticism. Informal mentoring is described by Dutton et al. (2018 p.60) as an organic process that does not require any 'explicit agreement'. They elaborate that it is the mentee that initiates the mentoring by 'seeking advice' or asking help of the Mentor. This definition is wholly relatable to autodidacticism. Dutton expands on this to suggest that wider literature supports the hypothesis that mentees are more likely to be satisfied with their mentoring if it is informal. Chesterman (2001) suggests that informal mentoring lasts for as long as the mentee needs it, and it

could even be a 'lifelong' relationship. Chesterman also suggests that the mentor and mentee should choose one another. Squires (2019) suggests that an informal relationship between a mentor and mentee can be pivotal to the well-being, resilience, and the success of the early career teacher. Boyle et al., (2023) add that effective mentoring can directly reduce the stress levels of the teacher.

Manning and Hobson (2017) explored performative aspects of mentoring in England, looking at judgemental mentoring versus developmental and what mentees' and mentors' perceptions were of the delivery of mentoring programmes. They discovered that mentees' perceptions wildly differed from their mentors. It was found that largely, mentors claimed their style to be developmental, yet their mentees disagreed in abundance, finding their mentoring to be judgmental. Manning and Hobson (2017) suggest that a recent shift towards judgmental mentoring has been a consequence of the ever-increasing fixation of senior management with assessment and performance in education. Tedder and Lawy (2009, p.2) agree and claim that this is down to government reforms and the performative and often judgemental influence of the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted). Ofsted recommends a 'target driven approach' to mentoring; mirroring the panopticon of performativity rooted in the general principals of Ofsted inspection. They further claim that Ofsted's obsession with the term 'excellence' has a detrimental influence on education, creating an autocratic, assessment driven ethos that mentees do not find helpful. Similarly, Clapham et al. (2016) agree that Ofsted's preoccupation with a similar word, 'outstanding', creates tyranny within the educational establishment, creating a monomania with performativity.

Tedder and Lawy (2009) further claim that the change from developmental to judgmental mentoring is almost certainly rooted in the influence of Ofsted inspection regimes and the inclusion of mentor assessment during teacher training, which forced the move away from an informal developmental approach to one based around assessment and subjective judgments. Their study also proposes that developmental mentoring has the ability to be transformational and that this style of mentoring is led by the mentee, not the mentor; further pointing towards an autodidactic style of mentorship.

Studies globally have revealed some common themes. Ingersoll and Strong's (2011) seminal work reviewed beginner teacher mentoring and compared past empirical studies in the U.S. They discovered that there was a strong requirement for mentoring, but the variation in mentoring continued to create disparity and ambiguity. Additionally, the variation was hugely multitudinous, namely that programmes varied in the following:

- Duration and intensity.
- The selection process of mentors.
- The level of training for mentors.
- The emphasis placed on matching mentee to mentor varied and in some cases was not even a consideration.
- The amount of time that mentees were offered to participate in mentoring.

Similar themes emerged in Shanks et al.'s (2022) comparative study which explored new teacher experiences in mentoring in Scotland, Malta and Denmark. Here too the researchers found that mentoring is a significantly valuable part of new teacher training, helping to retain new teachers in the profession. They propose that the individual context of the mentoring relationship and the school is of more importance than a national strategy – “authentic partnerships” (Shanks et al, 2022 p.12) are needed for successful mentoring. They also suggest that release time to allow for meaningful mentoring was of great importance, but that this was often found lacking. Results were similar for all three countries, suggesting a commonality of purpose that connects certain human values across nations.

Within the English context, a large review by the Institute of Education (Totterdell et al., 2004) again unearthed similar themes. The benefits of mentoring were highlighted as key to the training, development, and retention of early career teachers. Here again, time for adequate mentoring was mentioned as a significant need, but this was not always available and similarly to Hopwood and Badbury's (2021) findings, it was recommended that consideration was given to matching mentor to mentee.

A review of mentoring needs in England of equal detail and gravity has not been recently repeated- this is despite calls for further research in this area (Totterdell et al., 2004).

Overall, research pertaining specifically to the induction needs of newly qualified teachers in England is largely attenuated. The previous government annual NQT survey, published by the Department of Education, which aims to gain an insight into satisfaction rates of newly qualified teachers in England, mainly focuses on Initial Teacher Training (ITT) and routes into Teaching. Little effort is devoted to the current needs of newly qualified teachers and their mentoring experiences.

The latest survey (DfE, 2017 p.40) published that 72% of newly qualified teachers were satisfied with support from their mentor, there was no scaling to this data and few themes were discussed from the one open-ended question analysed. The DfE's summative comment was that: "NQTs reported good and bad experiences with mentors." This statement is arguably nugatory and does not provide the reader with adequate detail. Recommendations for future studies focused entirely on the practicalities of deploying the survey and recruiting more respondents. There was however some analysis of thematic value. One newly qualified teacher suggested that much of the training was repeated and that this was due to having the same mentor for ITT and the induction year. This intimated that existing mentors did not offer additional value in the induction year and that a new mentor should be appointed where possible for the induction year.

"Much of the training is repeated, and because your mentor has already spent a year with you on the basics, for me this year I stagnated as my mentor didn't offer me any further knowledge or development." (2017, p.40)

It is important to engage with both newly qualified teacher voices and government policy. Lofthouse writes (2018) that the greatest decisions in teacher education in England are influenced by government policy. Lofthouse explains that currently the education of teachers in a period of fluctuation with an almost continuous cycle of reform and great differences forming in what is on offer for teachers globally. Mentoring is vital and should be a focus for trainee teachers and act as a foundation for future continuing professional development.

Hobson (2016) agrees and strongly sets out the importance of mentoring for new teachers in his paper on 'Judgmentoring'. He discusses how good mentoring can enhance teachers'

well-being, their teaching practice, and also have considerable impact on their confidence. Conversely, inadequate mentoring can have a negative impact on teachers' mental health and could even contribute to them leaving the profession altogether. If Mentoring is so powerful and can contribute to teachers' skills and wellbeing, it therefore suggests that this is something that needs investment and time.

In summary, gaps in the literature are evident and more research is needed to determine what the current needs of newly qualified teachers in England are- in particular, in the context of mentoring. Given the importance of mentoring as part of the induction programme, more time and focus needs to be dedicated to it.

Kemmis et al. (2014, p.155) suggest that mentoring is a practice that takes place via semantic, physical and social spaces – these are different according to the places and people involved. They argue that the many meanings of the word mentoring are subject to interpretation and are seen in different ways according to culture and society. The chameleonic nature of mentoring therefore lends itself well to a more personalised approach. This personalised approach is evident in the autodidactic nature of Rousseau's mentoring approach. Mentoring for Rousseau is a means of facilitating the learning of the mentee and the mentee is firmly in control of what they want and need to learn. This by default creates a highly personalised approach, one that is unique to the individual.

3.6 Induction Training

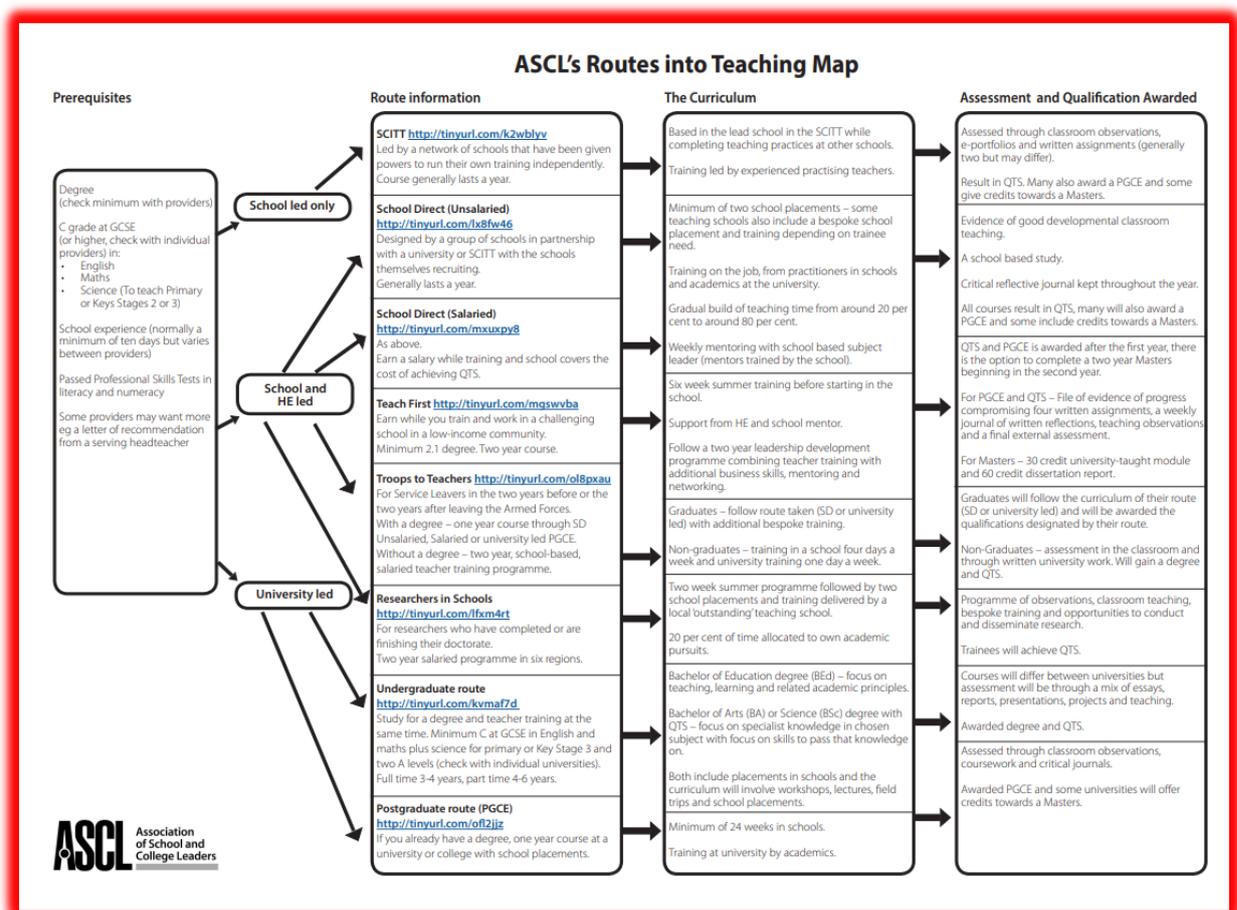
Ingersoll & Strong (2011, p.203) neatly describe teacher induction programmes as a “bridge from student of teaching to teacher of students.” This jump from student to teacher can be a precarious period for new teachers to navigate and the induction of new teachers therefore requires careful thought and consideration. New teachers often experience ‘practice shock’ which can include elevated levels of stress and disillusionment when joining the profession for their first full year of employment (Voss and Kunter, 2020). This accentuates the importance of exploring this time of fragility further to ensure that newly qualified teacher needs are met, and that these teachers are supported adequately.

In England, teaching is a graduate profession with multiple entry points and a large diversity of courses leading to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). Mathou et al., (2023) discuss how the teaching labour market has become increasingly fragmented by the diversification of routes and also the delivery of the training for new teachers in schools. Many recent changes have also added to the complexity of the situation. Recently, Brexit has added to this mêlé and this has had an impact on education policy (Czerniawski et al, 2018). Wide scale national policy changes such as the introduction of the new early career framework and the new induction programme for ECTs feature new teachers at the very heart of the policy reform. And in addition, all aspects of teacher training has become further compounded by the diversification of schools (Courtney, 2015). Courtney (2015) posits that the diversification of schools is having an impact on every aspect of teaching and learning. Courtney (2015, p.1) explains that this is a consequence of “...a neoliberal policy agenda aiming to expand choice of provision as a mechanism for raising educational standards.”

These changes are still ongoing and although the scale of the diversification is difficult to quantify, Courtney (2015) suggests that there are currently between 70 and 90 different types of schools in England. Add to this the varied routes into teaching, the variation of the newly qualified teacher induction programmes; then the landscape in which our newly qualified teachers sit starts to look particularly complex. It also raises questions relating to the consistency of the training and development and the variation in starting points for newly qualified teachers.

Part of the difficulty may lie in the vast and complicated array of teacher education programmes.

Figure 16 – Routes into teaching map



ASCL routes into teaching map. Cited in:

Williams et al. (2016) National College for Teaching and Leadership

The map states that a first degree can lead to a teaching qualification through a school-led programme or a combination of school and HE-led or a University-led programme. These then branch out further into separate routes including SCITT (School Centred Initial Teacher Training), School Direct (both salaried and unsalaried), Teach First, Troops to Teachers, Researchers in Schools and the traditional Undergraduate route or PGCE. These widespread options deliver varied curricula, varied assessment and result in a variation of awards. Since 2018, the postgraduate teaching apprenticeship (PGTA) has been added as a further route into teaching. A scan of the literature and the documentation available via the government portals does not provide any up-to-date mapping of these routes, this issue was highlighted by a House of Commons report (Long and Danechi, 2023). Ball (2021) reports that there is an increasing emphasis on the government to move away from university led teacher

training and further towards school-based training programmes: “By 2016 School Direct accounted for 50% of training places.” (Ball, 2021, p.112). Crocker and Dibben (2008 p.2) state “...because there is a great diversity in the programmes aimed at teaching efficiency, standards for admission for the profession, ways of preparing curriculum and what is taught, respectively learned, assessment quality – which, compared to any other profession, creates a sense of chaos”. ITT in England has seen many arguably chaotic changes over the past decade with routes into teaching expanding and training programmes changing and diversifying (Courtney, 2015; Mathou, 2023). A recent study by George and Maguire (2019, p.15) concluded that the reforms to ITE have defragmented and deregulated the training for new teachers. I posit that it is this deregulation, fragmentation, and decentralisation of Initial Teacher Training (ITT) could also have an impact on teacher induction. We have inherited an ever-changing cohort of newly qualified teachers, with diverse backgrounds and starting points; and that these newly qualified teachers vary wildly in skills, ability, education, and experience. Gorard (2017) tells us that whatever differences between NQTs starting points, these become immaterial after a few years of teaching, however Gorard (ibid) suggests that given the fragility of the induction years for a new teacher, the first few years of teaching are important and should not be neglected. Gorard (2017) analysed the data from the 2015 NQT survey and found that there was no evidence to suggest that routes into teaching matters for NQTs perception of how prepared they feel but it was also noted that gaps existed in that data due to key variables missing, and therefore this could be an area for further research.

The DfE’s past annual NQT survey, focused largely on routes into initial teacher training and not the current training and needs of the newly qualified teachers. The survey (DfE, 2017) recognises the complexity of the situation and states that interpreting the NQT survey results is difficult due to the varied routes, providers, and types of candidates surveyed. All of this contributes to large variations which could make the data difficult to interpret. This suggests that further research is necessary to explore newly qualified teacher needs in England, particularly in relation to their starting points post ITT. Another challenge of the NQT survey was that overall, the survey findings were generalised and lacked depth. The

survey suggested that NQTs overall satisfaction with their initial teacher training is good (DfE, 2017, p13):

Overall satisfaction with the quality of Initial Teacher Training (ITT) remained high: 81% of NQTs rated their course 7-10 out of 10, in line with the 2016 survey. However, while NQTs were generally satisfied with the quality of their ITT, there is still room for improvement. Only a third of NQTs gave their course a high rating of 9 -10 out of 10 (32%), a fifth (19%) of NQTs rated their course as 1-6 out of 10.

This same cohort disclosed similar satisfaction rates for their NQT induction year: “Seventy six percent gave it a rating of between 7 and 10, with 43% giving a rating of 9 to 10. Only 7% rated their NQT year between 1 and 3.”

What is not clear is the correlation between the candidates’ level of satisfaction with their ITT compared with the level of satisfaction with their NQT induction year. It is also not clear from the survey why those teachers who fell into the categories who were dissatisfied or strongly dissatisfied, felt that way. Further research is needed to find out if there are links to initial teacher training satisfaction and induction training satisfaction in schools.

Meinel and Wagner (2019), in a study exploring the connection between consistency and effectiveness in professional training programmes summarises that companies with the most successful training programmes and the most satisfied trainees, all have something in common – consistency in their approach. This consistency means that the overall cohort is happier and more motivated in their training and have a more positive outlook on their profession. These lessons are applicable to any profession, including the training of new teachers on induction programmes. With such variation of starting points, programmes, and schools, it is difficult to see how induction programmes in England can be considered consistent, particularly in the context of the new early career induction programme forged from The Early Career Framework (DfE, 2019b) which offers three induction pathways for schools to choose from. Given the complex and diverse entry points, consistency cannot

be guaranteed and therefore one can assume that newly qualified teachers starting in their new jobs are all at different starting points, with different levels of skill and experience, and varying levels of resilience. Teachers' initial training could therefore potentially have an impact on their success in their induction programme.

George and Maguire (2019) suggest that if England is focused on the delivery of good quality teacher training than the voices of the teachers themselves, must be listened to, this is every bit as relevant to the newly qualified teacher context. It is therefore concerning that new teacher voices have been marginalised. A recent example of this is the new Early Career Framework Reform (DfE, 2019b) and its extension of the induction period for new teachers from one year to two years. This change came into force in September 2021. However, analysis of the details of the government consultation reveals that the decision to extend the induction was not based on the responses received by that same consultation.

During the government consultation, when asked directly if the induction period should be extended to two years, 39.74% of all respondents answered 'yes', 8.15% answered 'another amount of time', 47.63% were in favour of keeping it at one year, and 4.48% did not know. Less than 40% of the respondents reported that they would welcome a two-year induction which suggests that the respondents' views were overlooked, and that the decision making was led by an obscure motive and not by the data itself.

What is perhaps more unsettling is the marginalisation of newly qualified teacher voices in the consultation. The consultation took place from December 2017 to March 2018 and received 1,932 responses - of these only 196 came from newly qualified teachers. Responses were not grouped by demographic, so it is not clear how the newly qualified teachers responded to this question during the consultation. What is clear however is that very few new teachers participated in the consultation. For many years newly qualified teachers (NQTs) were encouraged to participate in a government led NQT survey. This survey was scrapped after 2017. The survey which contacted thousands of new teachers

could have provided an opportunity to pose this question to those who are directly affected by it and to allow their voices to be heard.

My own research focuses solely on the voices of the new teacher. Participants were asked if they would welcome a two-year induction period and a substantial majority (66.2%) answered 'no'. Those participants who were interviewed echoed this sentiment and elaborated that a two-year induction would be of little value to them as it seemed repetitive and perfunctory. Many were not even aware of the new plans. One interviewee emphatically put it: "I think it would be completely pointless, because I feel like it would be more of a hindrance."

If the data is at odds with the decision making, where did the decision making come from? The implementation raises many questions relating to the benefits of extending the induction programme. Frustratingly, the government's recent interim evaluation report (2022), is only based on the findings of the experiences of new teachers and their Mentors during the first term of their two-year induction. No data was collected with regards to satisfaction of the new length of the new induction period. Worryingly, early challenges include the extended induction period adding to the already overburdened workload of teachers. Does it seem right therefore to extend this period of induction work?

The first full evaluation of the programme is due to be published next year, although it remains to be seen if the question of the length of the programme will be answered or continue to be overlooked. What is clear however is the need to focus on the voices of the newly qualified teachers, particularly around the issues that affect them directly.

Cronin (2023, pg.2) states that "Educational policy and teacher education has been subject to a series of radical policies. These policy reforms have ramifications for those engaged with teacher education and in particular those involved in the professional formation of beginning or novice teachers (NQTs)." Given the constant change and moving landscape of teacher education reform, and the decentralisation of Induction Programmes, the care and

development of new teachers needs careful consideration and calls for a differentiated approach to suit the wide variation of skills, experiences, needs, and education of the newly qualified teachers. I argue that that can be made possible through the personalised and trainee led approach that Émilian Autodidacticism can provide.

Supervisory techniques for doctoral candidates can be viewed as autodidactic in nature. Bastalich (2017, p.1146) tells us that learning is a product of reflection, and that the supervisor or mentor simply facilitates the process:

“Much educational thought on doctoral education sees research supervision and learning in process terms – doctoral students learn by reflecting on a research process, and supervisors and others facilitate the research process.”

Benmore (2016) discusses the supervisory role as a delicate balance between guidance and facilitating independent learning- there is a skill to providing support without interfering. This bears striking similarities with the mentoring role that Rousseau embodies towards his pupil in *Émile, or on Education* (Rousseau, 1979). Rousseau’s mentoring style is one of supportive, quiet facilitation. Present, but rather than teaching or instructing, Rousseau pushes to elicit the answers from Émile, encouraging him to reflect on his experiences and come to his own logical conclusions.

Sancar et al., (2021) write that there is often an instructional focus on teacher education, when we often forget that teachers’ needs are greater than just knowledge transfer. Sancar et al., (2021) suggest that there should be a holistic approach, taking into consideration the emotional, professional, cognitive, behavioural, motivational, and learning needs of the teacher in relation to their professional development and learning. This suggests that a personalised approach is needed. Korthagen (2017, p.400) agrees and writes that teacher training can: “never be a one-shot approach or follow a ‘one solution for all’ strategy.” This too can be related to the training of newly qualified teachers, who as we have seen are a diverse cohort, who could benefit from a personalised approach.

This is interesting as it connects with the premise of adaptive teaching which is a popular teaching pedagogy already present in education, but mostly dedicated to the learning of students. König et al., (2020) tell us that adaptive teaching is an integral part of teaching and that teachers' instruction should always have the learners needs at the centre of their planning and decision making. In education teachers practice adaptive teaching daily (Westwood, 2018). There is a recognition that all students are unique, have unique starting points, and unique needs and that teaching practice needs to adapt to these individual needs. Adaptive teaching should be applied to the training of newly qualified teachers. The learning process could be adapted to suit their own individual learning needs and learning styles, as differentiating will accelerate and support better learning outcomes (Cowley, 2018).

Evelein et al.'s (2008) study on the psychological needs of new teachers concluded that one of the core needs was autonomy. This fits into the framework of autodidacticism, where freedom and autonomy are a prerequisite to learning. Worth et al.'s (2020) large scale study concluded that teacher autonomy was an important factor in teacher retention. Some of the key findings in this study were concerning. The study found that teachers experienced a much lower level of autonomy than other similar professions. 38% of Teachers that participated in this study reported that "they have 'a little' or 'no' influence over their professional development goals." (Worth et al., 2020, p.4) and rather unsurprisingly newly qualified teachers had much less autonomy over their work than any other group. The study found that there was a direct correlation with job satisfaction and autonomy. This suggests that in order to keep newly qualified teachers satisfied in their roles, more effort needs to be made in order to trust them and give them the autonomy that they need. Knight (2019) and Vieira (2020) tells us that teacher autonomy is central to the success of teachers and teacher education programmes. Colognesi et al., (2020) agree and suggest that newly qualified teachers need to be provided with sufficient autonomy and further professional development opportunities to best impact their competencies and satisfaction in their roles.

Courtney et al. (2023) published a systematic review of international induction programmes looking at the decade 2012 to 2022. They focused primarily on induction systems in the highest PISA ranking countries and those in the lowest PISA ranking countries. They suggested that previous studies have shown that the early experiences of beginning teachers have a significant impact on the longevity of the careers of those teachers and also on their well-being and happiness in their roles, again highlighting the fragility and importance of the induction years. The review found that the following measures were helpful for newly qualified teachers: a compulsory induction programme of at least a year which included a reduced teaching timetable, access to a mentor who should also receive support, the ability to observe others; and more thoughtful connections between ITE, NQT training and Continuing Professional Development.

Chapter 4 – Performativity

“The more they are held in check under your eyes, the more they are turbulent.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.92)

In this chapter, performativity is explored through the sub themes of bureaucracy, autonomy, and observation. These sub themes are further sub divided into codes that are presented using the data captured from surveys and interviews. Qualitative data from both open text survey and interview are presented side by side without emphasis on frequency, as this would assume that some opinions are valued more than others (Braun and Clarke, 2022). However, it is worth noting that some high frequency codes were found to be codes of interest, and that this was not deliberate. Quantitative survey data is presented using SPSS, using a combination of descriptive data, regression correlation analyses, and ANOVA. Excerpts of *Émile* have been analysed and used to support the data conceptually where applicable, ensuring that the lens of *Émile* is present throughout the work.

The final part of this chapter is a summation of results that includes a mapping of the participant data against concepts from *Émile* in table format to summarise the view of the teachers participating in the research and how they align with Rousseauian philosophy.

A quick word on language and definitions.

Where Rousseau refers to ‘the child’, this study uses the word as a metaphor for the newly qualified teacher, in which case, the word ‘child’ can be directly substituted for the word ‘teacher’.

Performativity in this study is used as a broad theme to describe approaches used by management to observe and measure new teachers’ progress and their success (Ball, 2012; 2003; 1998). Ball (2012 p.4) suggests that Performativity “links effort, values, purposes and self-understanding to measures and comparisons of output.” In this study, this is seen through the lens of three main areas: bureaucracy, autonomy, and observation.

The following table summarises the codes of interest that are presented in this chapter. These will be explored by section:

Table 1: Codes of Interest – Performativity

Performativity		
1. Bureaucracy	2. Autonomy	3. Observation
Paperwork	Freedom	Frequency of observations
Portfolio	Autonomy	Usefulness of observations
Ticking Boxes	Lack of Trust	Observing Others
Ofsted	Performance	Ofsted
	Autodidacticism	

4.1 Bureaucracy

The subject of performativity was a theme that was mentioned repeatedly without the need for prompting, by all interview participants, and in open question text by respondents of the survey. One of the most frequent complaints was centred around the sub theme of bureaucracy and how this affected teachers’ attitude to work and the workload itself. Pointless paperwork was mentioned often with intense frustration and was referred to by all interview participants. This was largely interlinked with the creation of ‘the evidence portfolio’ or ‘the folder’. New teachers are required to collect evidence of their induction progress against the Teachers’ Standards, and although compiling a physical portfolio of evidence is not explicitly mentioned in the guidance ‘Induction for Early Career Teachers’ (DfE, 2021b), the guidance does require reviews to be based on “existing documents”, and this is almost always synonymous with the creation of an evidence portfolio.

The advice for evidence collecting in this induction guidance could be interpreted as contradictory. The guidance states that evidence will need to be collected for a successful assessment and that the teacher will need to draw on ‘existing and working documents’. This contradicts the advice by the same guidance that suggests that evidence gathering should not be burdensome and that there should not be a need for teachers to create something new. The very definition of a working document suggests that it is a document that is being added to on an ongoing process. The documentation further explains that the

assessment will be based on the Teachers' Standards, Cronin (2023) explains that the assessment of new teachers against standards can be interpreted as performative. This process of assessment encourages teachers to collect and create evidence based on all 9 sections of the Teachers' Standards. These 9 sections are then divided into separate bullet points that amount to 42 separate aspects and therefore 42 separate pieces of evidence.

Figure 17 – Teachers' Standards

Department for Education Teachers' Standards

PREAMBLE
Teachers make the education of their pupils their first concern, and are accountable for achieving the highest possible standards in work and conduct. Teachers act with honesty and integrity; have strong subject knowledge, keep their knowledge and skills as teachers up-to-date and are self-critical; forge positive professional relationships; and work with parents in the best interests of their pupils.

PART ONE: TEACHING

A teacher must:

- 1 Set high expectations which inspires, motivate and challenge pupils**
 - establish a safe and stimulating environment for pupils, rooted in mutual respect
 - set goals that stretch and challenge pupils of all backgrounds, abilities and dispositions
 - demonstrate consistently the positive attitudes, values and behaviour which are expected of pupils.
- 2 Promote good progress and outcomes by pupils**
 - be accountable for pupils' attainment, progress and outcomes
 - be aware of pupils' capabilities and their prior knowledge, and plan teaching to build on these
 - guide pupils to reflect on the progress they have made and their emerging needs
 - demonstrate knowledge and understanding of how pupils learn and how this impacts on teaching
 - encourage pupils to take a responsible and conscientious attitude to their own work and study.
- 3 Demonstrate good subject and curriculum knowledge**
 - have a secure knowledge of the relevant subject(s) and curriculum areas, foster and maintain pupils' interest in the subject, and address misunderstandings
 - demonstrate a critical understanding of developments in the subject and curriculum areas, and promote the value of scholarship
 - demonstrate an understanding of and take responsibility for promoting high standards of literacy, oracy and the correct use of standard English, whatever the teacher's specialist subject
 - if teaching early reading, demonstrate a clear understanding of systematic synthetic phonics
 - if teaching early mathematics, demonstrate a clear understanding of appropriate teaching strategies.
- 4 Plan and teach well structured lessons**
 - impart knowledge and develop understanding through effective use of lesson time
 - promote a love of learning and children's intellectual curiosity
 - set homework and plan other out-of-class activities to consolidate and extend the knowledge and understanding pupils have acquired
 - reflect systematically on the effectiveness of lessons and approaches to teaching
 - contribute to the design and provision of an engaging curriculum within the relevant subject area(s).
- 5 Adapt teaching to respond to the strengths and needs of all pupils**
 - know when and how to differentiate appropriately, using approaches which enable pupils to be taught effectively
 - have a secure understanding of how a range of factors can inhibit pupils' ability to learn, and how best to overcome these
 - demonstrate an awareness of the physical, social and intellectual development of children, and know how to adapt teaching to support pupils' education at different stages of development
 - have a clear understanding of the needs of all pupils, including those with special educational needs; those of high ability; those with English as an additional language; those with disabilities; and be able to use and evaluate distinctive teaching approaches to engage and support them.
- 6 Make accurate and productive use of assessment**
 - know and understand how to assess the relevant subject and curriculum areas, including statutory assessment requirements
 - make use of formative and summative assessment to secure pupils' progress
 - use relevant data to monitor progress, set targets, and plan subsequent lessons
 - give pupils regular feedback, both orally and through accurate marking, and encourage pupils to respond to the feedback.
- 7 Manage behaviour effectively to ensure a good and safe learning environment**
 - have clear rules and routines for behaviour in classrooms, and take responsibility for promoting good and courteous behaviour both in classrooms and around the school, in accordance with the school's behaviour policy
 - have high expectations of behaviour, and establish a framework for discipline with a range of strategies, using praise, sanctions and rewards consistently and fairly
 - manage classes effectively, using approaches which are appropriate to pupils' needs in order to involve and motivate them
 - maintain good relationships with pupils, exercise appropriate authority, and act decisively when necessary.
- 8 Fulfill wider professional responsibilities**
 - make a positive contribution to the wider life and ethos of the school
 - develop effective professional relationships with colleagues, knowing how and when to draw on advice and specialist support
 - deploy support staff effectively
 - take responsibility for improving teaching through appropriate professional development, responding to advice and feedback from colleagues
 - communicate effectively with parents with regard to pupils' achievements and well-being.

PART TWO: PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL CONDUCT

A teacher is expected to demonstrate consistently high standards of personal and professional conduct. The following statements define the behaviour and attitudes which set the required standard for conduct throughout a teacher's career.

- Teachers uphold public trust in the profession and maintain high standards of ethics and behaviour, within and outside school, by:
 - treating pupils with dignity, building relationships rooted in mutual respect, and at all times observing proper boundaries appropriate to a teacher's professional position
 - having regard for the need to safeguard pupils' well-being, in accordance with statutory provisions
 - showing tolerance of and respect for the rights of others
 - not undermining fundamental British values, including democracy, the rule of law, individual liberty and mutual respect, and tolerance of those with different faiths and beliefs
 - ensuring that personal beliefs are not expressed in ways which exploit pupils' vulnerability or might lead them to break the law.
- Teachers must have proper and professional regard for the ethos, policies and practices of the school in which they teach, and maintain high standards in their own attendance and punctuality.
- Teachers must have an understanding of, and always act within, the statutory frameworks which set out their professional duties and responsibilities.

The Teachers' Standards can be found on the GOV.UK website: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/teachers-standards>

It is therefore not a surprise that tutors and teachers feel that they *need* to collect multifarious examples of evidence in order to pass the progress reviews. This collection of evidence was seen as problematic by the teachers and there were several issues that were identified in relation to paperwork and the portfolio. These were namely: lack of value, fatigue, repetition, and the notion that it was merely perfunctory.

Paperwork was often categorised as having little value or significance. It was seen by one participant as having an impact on the importance of the induction year since the focus was on bureaucratic paperwork and not on the process itself. One interviewee, Lee, said:

“... even though this is a really significant year, it didn't feel significant, just because there was just nothing of value, if that makes sense. It just felt like I was jumping through these hoops because I needed to fill out this paperwork.”

Tammy commented about the exhaustive paperwork: “I got to the end of my [induction] year and I was so done with paperwork.” Survey respondents agreed with the sentiments of the interviewees. Despite not being asked directly about the value of evidence collecting, portfolios or paperwork, ‘pointless paperwork’ was a broad theme that also emerged during the analysis of the survey in the free text questions. Teachers commented that there was too much paperwork and again that it did not seem to add value. One survey respondent said: “...sometimes too much admin and paperwork without much value adding. (e.g. folder taking huge amount of time but not sure how much value it adds).”

If teachers do not see the benefits and the value of collecting evidence, we need to question why there is such an emphasis on it. A documentary programme by School Matters (2009) entitled ‘Conquering the Paperwork Mountain’, explains that teachers want to have the burden of paperwork taken away from them, as this interferes with their work. Presently, this issue has still not been resolved, with the Teacher Workload Survey (2016, 2019c) reporting that time spent on administrative duties still presents as a problem. The data from the 2016 Teacher Workload Survey reported:

“... Teachers also citing preparation for an Ofsted inspection and an increase in forms and paperwork as major reasons [increased workload], with data collection and record keeping being secondary sources of unnecessary and bureaucratic tasks. The excessive detail required for data collection, marking and reporting was a particular cause of unnecessary workload for classroom teachers. (DfE, 2016, p.19)

The operative word here is perhaps 'unnecessary', further driving the point home that much of the paperwork is deemed as pointless and that this burden should therefore be removed. Furthermore, my study uncovered that not only was there excessive paperwork, but that often it was repetitive. The idea of repeating evidence collecting for spurious reasons was a notion that was voiced by both survey and interview participants. As Tammy put it:

"I think that there's a definite frustration in having done all that evidence collecting and work, during the Initial Teacher Training (ITT) - then coming to the NQT year and having to do it all again. And I think it makes complete sense if you go through the PGCE route. Yeah, but when you're doing ITT and you're working on the job and learning as you go and collecting as you go, it does just kind of feel like: why did I do all of that when I've got to do it all over again?"

This comment was interesting because it questions the purpose of the induction programme. Does the induction programme develop and support teachers or does the programme exist to fulfil bureaucratic obligations? Many participants agreed. A common view that was shared amongst the respondents was that the repetition was perfunctory and a direct consequence of the need to 'box tick' Tammy went on to conclude: "I would feel like I was repeating things. I was just a little bit irritated by the whole system. And that's something personally that I really hate... repeating things for the sake of ticking a box drives me insane." A similar view was expressed by Liana: "It was [the induction year] a bit like a box ticking kind of exercise where we've just got to do it... You fill in your form and I'll fill in my form [laughs]."

Other survey participants alluded to the notion that box ticking was sometimes seen as the sole purpose of mentoring: "mentoring is about box ticking rather than what I need week to week". Another agreed and expressed concern about their mentor being weak due to the wrong focus: "Weak mentor whose focus is a box ticker."

Other teachers voiced opinions questioning the methodology behind evidence collecting: "I think mostly it's evidence collecting, and it feels like a waste of time- and it feels like a really weird way to check if someone is doing their job well."

The rationale behind evidence collection clearly links with the induction guidance, but arguably, there is also a link to the performativity and accountability fetish that exists in schools. This ties in with the idea that hyper accountability is the product of performativity in schools (Churcher et al., 2020) and that the need to measure inputs and outputs (Lyotard, 1984) could be the driving force at play here.

The Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) was quoted in the Workload Survey (2016) as the primary source behind accountability measures in schools. Ofsted, by the very nature of being an inspectorate that observes at short notice or no notice, represents the epitome of panoptic performativity in education. Although it was not the primary concern, Ofsted was found to be a concern for participants in this study. It was always mentioned in a negative context. Although Ofsted (particularly in reference to observations) is explored in greater detail under the sub theme of observation, it is worth mentioning at this stage, as it did creep into the context of bureaucracy; Teachers felt that too much emphasis was placed on Ofsted and that this was at the expense of the pupils. One survey respondent reported that what was needed was: “Less focus on Ofsted and more on the pupils.”

Rousseau offers a solution to these concerns. He instead recommends an informal way of noting progress and feeding back orally to his mentee using tangible and positive examples:

“Year by year I shall just note the progress he had made, I shall compare the results with those of the following year, I shall say, ‘You have grown so many inches; that is the ditch you jumped over, the load you carried, the distance you threw a pebble, the course you ran before getting winded, etc.; let us now see what you will do.’”
(Rousseau, 1979 p.184).

Rousseau further elaborates that the child’s own ‘record keeping’ is his *memory*:

“...everything he sees, everything he hears strikes him, and he remembers it. He keeps in himself a record of the actions and sayings of men, and all that surrounds him is the book in which, without thinking of it, he continually enriches his memory”
(Rousseau, 1979 p.112).

A solution to burdensome paperwork that was offered by Tammy, echoed Rousseau's verbal approach: "I think actually if you cut down on the lesson observations, and instead of having to compile evidence and write it all down... you can go and have a conversation with somebody."

The literature shows us that challenges do exist with the recording of work. Ball (2012) explains that these performative methods encourage educators to lose themselves amongst the constant 'challenges of reporting and recording our practice' (Ball, 2012, p.4).

4.2 Autonomy

Freedom in learning is one of the pillars of Émile's philosophical framework. "...the spirit of these rules (Maxims) is to accord children more true freedom and less dominion." (Rousseau, 1979, p.68). Pedagogical freedoms are closely linked to trust and are in juxtaposition to performative measures. Based on this tenet, both trust and freedom are explored here under the umbrella of autonomy. Respondents voiced that they valued freedom in their work, and that they valued being trusted, and that an autodidactic approach to the induction programme would be welcome and beneficial. In addition, performing to a role was viewed as deleterious to the teacher and of little benefit to both the observer and the observed.

In this study, there were two divergent discourses voiced around freedom. Freedom was unanimously important to teachers but there was a divide amongst respondents as to whether they received freedoms or not. Freedom in teaching and work was deemed as desirable but in short supply, and survey respondents mentioning that they wanted "more freedoms" and "more autonomy" when questioned about how their needs could be met. However, some participants did already benefit from freedom in teaching, and this was valued in their responses. Lee shared: "...being free... I think freedoms are really important too. I've been very fortunate to have them this year as they [senior staff] just give me the freedom to grow." Survey respondents were equally positive about this: "I feel I have been given an equal amount of responsibility, encouragement and freedom to develop as a teacher and supported where it has been needed." Another teacher reported that trust

should be a requisite once qualified: “In order to improve my induction experience, I would like it to feel as though I am fully qualified and that I can be trusted.” This is an important point. Given that newly qualified teachers have already qualified to do their work, there should already be an element of earned trust. Teachers starting their induction period in England, must already have achieved Qualified Teacher Status or equivalent. Sengupta (2020) suggests that trust and freedom in teaching is the criteria for creating a successful teacher. If this is the case, then why aren’t teachers trusted and given the freedoms to succeed and thrive?

The basis of Rousseau’s pedagogical ethos is total freedom. Enaya and Villaroya (2021 p.1) state that: “Émile and his tutor, implicitly manifests absolute freedom and responsibility in the learning process.” This absolute freedom does not mean that observation or mentoring is absent, but that it is deployed differently, in a quiet and watchful manner, far removed from Bentham’s concept of the Panopticon. Rousseau explicitly suggests that mentees should not be constrained in any way, and that freedoms will benefit their learning:

“...observe your pupil well before saying the first word to him; to start with, let the germ of his character reveal itself freely; constrain it in no way in order better to see the whole of it. Do you think this time of freedom is lost to him? Not at all. This is the best way to use it, for you are learning now not to lose a single moment in a more valuable time; while if you begin to act before knowing what must be done, you will act haphazardly.” (Rousseau, 1979 p.94)

There is also a suggestion here that watchful observation takes time, and judgements should not be made in haste as they often can be in the modern classroom setting. According to the induction documents judgments are made against the teacher at progress review points and at the end of the programme, and perhaps one could argue that more nuanced surreptitious judgements are made throughout the entire induction programme through the medium of regular observations and the giving of formal written feedback.

The idea of ‘performing’ a teaching role or behaving in a certain way was also an area of interest and discussion for the participants of the study. Liana intimated that when she was given the opportunity to observe other more experienced teachers, she was conscious that

they were putting on a performance: "...and you know [pause] the teachers were kind of like performing."

Performing to the watchful gaze is a concept frequently associated with Bentham's Panopticon (1791). Bentham's idea was centred around a central all-seeing tower in prison. Since the watchful gaze could be turned to you at any given time, it therefore encouraged the prisoners to behave as if it was, and in a way that would be pleasing to the inspectors. The metaphor of the panopticon can be extended to education with the classroom a relating directly to the prison, and the teacher the prisoner that is held under the watchful eye of the observer.

This concept of performing for others and adapting your behaviour to conform to what is expected of you was also explored in *Émile*: "They have only to change their way of thinking, and you must perforce change your way of acting. (1979, p.87)

In keeping with the theme of performance, there was also a sense amongst participants in this study that they had to show how good they were and that they had to prove how good their students were as this was a direct reflection on them. One survey correspondent said that they wanted: "less jumping through hoops with having to complete tasks to prove how good I am to the local authority." Tammy discussed in detail how she needs to constantly prove herself through her students' work. This again links into concept of being measured by outputs:

"...and when it feels like all that hard work is summed up by that summative result at the end of the GCSE and A-level results. And the idea that you haven't been working hard enough if your grades aren't good enough. And if the grades are good and the girls have done wonderfully that's the girls - but if the grades are bad, that's to do with the teacher."

There is also a hint here about the duplicity of judgments and who the outputs should be attributed to. There is a suggestion here that teachers can only be viewed negatively or neutrally.

Rousseau does not believe in performing a role, because a performance is short lived, and a performance is merely for show. Furthermore, Rousseau believes that performing is something that benefits no-one, neither the observer or the observed. In this excerpt, the preceptor presents as the mentor and the disciple as the mentee:

“A preceptor thinks of his own interest more than of his disciple’s. He is devoted to proving that he is not wasting his time and that he is earning the money that he is paid. He provides the child with some easily displayed attainments that can be showed off when wanted. It is not important whether what he teaches the child is useful, provided that it is easily seen, He accumulates, without distinction or discernment, a rubbish heap in the child’s memory. When the child is to be examined, he is made to spread out his merchandise. He displays it; satisfaction is obtained. Then he closes up his pack and leaves.” (Rousseau, 1979 p.162)

This raises interesting points in relation to the process of inspection, the value of it, and why we do it. Ball (2013) discusses the dangers of performative measures and explains that because performativity tells us how to perform, this in turn makes us doubt ourselves; we lose ourselves and who we are by trying to perform to a role. Clapham (2013 p.1) agrees and writes that performativity can go as far as to affect ‘teachers’ sense of self’. Does this therefore suggest that teachers’ identities are affected? Czerniawski (2011) explains that whilst the lines can be blurred between the way identity and self are viewed in education, teachers can construct their model teacher identity not solely on their own values but based also on the values of others, such as the teacher mentor. He writes: “I attempted to sift, sort, prioritise, and internalise in my attempt to capture the particular model of the teacher I wanted to personify.” (Czerniawski, 2011, p. 51) Czerniawski’s personal experience as a teacher exemplifies the ardent desire that teachers feel to conform. I argue that this by default suggests that an element of performance is needed in order to achieve the desired chameleonic effect.

Émilian Autodidacticism was explained to interview participants at the end of the interview. It was explained as a process of ‘self-directed learning’ (Boyatzis 2004; Knowles, 2015) whereby the trainee was in control of what they learned and how they learned it. The

trainees would have freedom in their induction programme but would also benefit from a mentor whose role would be to support, not to inspect. When asked if the interviewees would favour an autodidactic approach they all unanimously agreed. Lee said:

“Oh, for me that sounds great. I actually thrive on that sort of autonomy. Like I said, I find it very difficult to teach to a script. And even now, when I have somebody, you know, observe a lesson, and someone will say, right, you need to do this, and it's very regimented, I can see in my head, that I'm not going to be able to teach like this, you just need to give me the sort of premise and you know - a few objectives and I'll go away and I'll adapt the work to suit myself.”

This comment is interesting for a number of reasons. First of all, it hints again at the performance aspect of conforming to someone else's desired teaching style. Secondly, it also suggests that new teachers can learn by themselves if they are given the framework in which to do so. Thirdly, it hints at an already present framework or set of objectives in teaching – the teaching standards. This raises important questions relating to self-learning and the capabilities of new teachers to know what to learn if they have a framework.

Lee also commented that it would suit him as they have partially already benefited from a similar programme:

“Yes... because I've already been given so much autonomy. So much so that I've done, you know, new schemes of work within the humanities and so forth. And they've really worked well. So yeah. For me, personally... that would work. You know, that would work really well. I think I've worked better, being able to go off and do my own thing, and then reflect on it later on. And, you know, I still reflect now on what I do and go, Yeah, I can probably do this better and do that better and I might be able to grow into my own sort of [teaching] style, if that makes sense.”

Whilst I have refrained from commenting and interpreting voice, I feel that is important to note here, that this response was delivered during the interview with obvious joy and enthusiasm. It suggests that the autonomy, the trust, and the responsibility given, enhanced this teacher's enjoyment of the role. The comment also hints at the fact that they can learn by themselves and reflect critically on their work.

When asked the same question, Kat put it:

“Yeah, I don't want anything like fed to me on plate. You know, it's nice to have the independence, but it's also nice to have that shoulder to kind of say, look, this is going wrong. I need a little bit of extra help.”

This also suggests that new teachers know when they need help and are able to ask for it, and this is a key trait for successful independent autodidactic learning. This is confirmed by Parker and Roessger's research (2020). Park and Roessger argue autodidacticism from a humanistic point of view, suggesting that learners are willing to learn and inherently want to reach their own potential. They propose that learners are in fact capable of setting their own goals.

Tammy was also keen on the idea saying:

“Yeah, I think giving someone agency over what they're learning can only impassion them further. And as long as I think you do have that person to kind of talk to. Like...it might actually be useful to look at your behaviour management as well or something to do with continuous feedback, and helping to point them in the right direction, kind of thing - it allows people to feel like they're in control. And they get to really look at what they're passionate about. Yeah, I think that sounds really a really positive thing. I would have loved that.”

What is particularly revealing about these comments is the fact that the teachers want to complete their training by themselves, but they do not want to do their training alone. This further highlights the importance of a mentor, but one that mentors autodidactically, giving the teachers the freedom that they need to learn and grow. Lave and Wenger's (1991) version of autodidactic learning or 'situated learning' more closely resembles this model, whereby whilst supporting the concept of autodidacticism, it does not suggest that the learner learns in complete isolation. Lave and Wenger suggest that environment, culture, community, and observation are key elements to successful learning. However, they also propose that although mentors are vital, learners are much more likely to learn from one another.

During the interview, when asked what they would change about the induction programme, if they had an opportunity to do so. Tammy's answer was directly linked to autodidactic practice:

"I think it's a case of just trying to make it slightly more individualised, trying to make it so it's not...[pauses] because I don't think one size fits all. So try to make it so that people feel like they are getting something out of it and they are in charge of getting something out of it. So I know that there have to still be kind of milestones, but I wonder if the milestones could be slightly more personalised for you and you get to be involved in doing that. So it's like actually right now I'm not sure what my target is. So what I'd rather do is organise a lesson observation and then I'll come back to you with a target from that."

These comments encapsulate the precis of feeling surrounding individualised learning and being in control of one's learning. They accurately echo autodidactic learning and offer a feasible solution to the transfer of performative control.

4.3 Observation

"I found that particularly when I was going through the induction year that I needed to feel like I could teach the lessons without any prying eyes on me."

Observation was a key topic that was identified throughout the study and presented a vast dichotomy of opinion. Of all the training tools offered in schools, lesson observations were by far the most ubiquitous, 155 respondents out of 159 received lesson observations as part of their induction training. It is not clear if the four respondents who did not check the box for receiving observations were teachers who were not being observed at all. It is possible that these teachers may still be receiving lesson observations but as part of whole school initiative and not as part of the induction process.

Frequency of observations varied between participants, with the majority being observed 1 – 2 times every half term – this is the recommended amount as per the induction guidelines (DfE, 2021). Some teachers however were observed with an alarming frequency:

weekly observations were noted = 16; and some teachers were observed more than once a week = 7. It is possible that this variety is due to the fact that the induction does not assign any maximum to observations, only that they it is recommended that they should take place once or twice a term. Some of the participants in this study would benefit from guidance that stated a maximum of lesson observations that should take place over a period of time.

Table 18 – Frequency of Observation

Frequency of observation	Number
1- 2 times a half term	58
Every half term or less	52
3- 4 times a half term	22
Weekly	16
More than once a week	7

Of all the participants that were being observed at least weekly and more, 15 of the 23 had considered leaving the teaching profession, this represents a percentage of 65%, which is considerably higher than the percentage for the overall cohort of 48.1%.

In line with the varying diet of observations, there was an equally wide range of views from participants. Views were polarised and ranged from finding value in lesson observations, to finding very little value at all. Some participants wanted more observation, others less. Overall, however, at first glance it appeared that teachers welcomed the use of lesson observations as a training tool and found them useful. This is shown in the table below:

Table 19 - Usefulness of Lesson Observations

Scale 1- 5		Frequency
	1	9
	2	18
	3	29
	4	43
	5	54
	Total	153

6 participants chose not to answer this question. It is possible that these 6 participants have not yet received lesson Observations. 54 respondents found Lesson Observations extremely useful. 43 found them very useful and 29 found them averagely useful. Only 18 teachers found them not useful and 9, not very useful at all. The mean of this scale is 3.75, with a standard deviation of 1.221. The mode is 5 and the median is 3. The inconsistency here suggests that participants' views were varied and that there were some outliers in the group. At first glance, this looks high, but it doesn't take into account respondents' view of other training tools for context. A different picture emerges when the usefulness of observations is compared with other available training tools. The question of usefulness was repeated using different independent variables and when the usefulness of lesson observations was compared to other variables, lesson observations did not fare as well. This could suggest that teachers in general are positive and open to all training.

Table 20 – Usefulness of training tools

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Reduced Timetable	4.28	1.096
Observing Others	4.04	1.142
Mentoring	3.91	1.236
Subject specific training	3.83	1.203
Common planning time	3.87	1.330
Lesson observations	3.75	1.221
Teacher training/workshops	3.43	1.058
Team teaching	3.06	1.295
Mastership (further studies)	2.83	1.237

Teachers found five training tools more useful than lesson observations: reduced timetable, observing other teachers, mentoring, common planning time and subject specific training. It should be noted that the standard deviation for common planning time is rather high, suggesting that disparate opinions could be at play here. What was perhaps even more concerning was the data that uncovered that what teachers *want* and what they *receive* are two different things. Performative measures such as Observations are amongst the most popular training tools offered in schools. Reduced timetable, the tool that teachers found the most useful, was amongst the one that was the least offered. This is particularly concerning given its statutory status in schools. The reformed induction guidance (DfE, 2021b) states very strongly that a reduced timetable must be honoured. With the move from a one-year induction to a two-year induction this now states that the early career

teacher’s timetable should not be any more than 90% in the first year and 95% in the second – this is in addition to standard planning, preparation, and admin time (PPA).

Table 21 - Training tools found most useful versus training tools offered

Ranking (most useful)	Training tool	Mean	Number offered
1	Reduced Timetable	4.28	103 (5 th)
2	Observing Others	4.04	114 (4 th)
3	Mentoring	3.91	136 (2 nd)
4	Subject specific training	3.83	47 (7 th)
5	Common planning time	3.87	62 (6 th)
6	Lesson observations	3.75	146 (1st)
7	Teacher training/workshops	3.43	115 (3 rd)
8	Team teaching	3.06	45 (8 th)
9	Mastership (further studies)	2.83	11 (9 th)

An equally divergent view on lesson observations emerged when this was investigated further during the interview process. Although interviewees mainly valued lesson observations, this was largely dependent on the quality and purpose of them.

Tammy shared that once it was obvious that she was teaching well, the lesson observations tapered off quite rapidly, and she suggested that not being observed can lead to complacent teaching. This participant was eager to have more lesson observations and not less. There was almost a sense of excitement at the prospect of someone coming in to observe:

“My first two months... it was really, really structured in a sense that, you know, SLT would come in to see me and the department was dropping into my lessons. It was over the top with people observing, not necessarily for formal observations, but to come in and give me some feedback and all that sort of stuff - which was appreciated to begin with. And then ever since the start of the Christmas period, and them going ‘yeah, you are doing really, really well’, I’ve had about one observation, I think I’ve had only one observation since the start of January... [pause] you can become slightly complacent, it’s sometimes quite nice to have that feeling when you know someone’s coming in to observe me.”

An opposite view was expressed by Lee: “I found that particularly when I was going through the NQT year that I needed to feel like I can teach the lessons without any prying eyes on me.” This is a direct argument against the watchful gaze of panoptic performativity. Others felt differently. Another interviewee, Kat who had admitted during interview to struggling in her lessons shared that she would like to be observed more: “I don’t need someone babying me. But I would like feedback.” This once again ties in with the idea that teachers are able to make their own judgments on what they need, (following Knowles’ (2015) autodidactic principle ‘self-direction’) but they want to be able to rely on support and they want to be treated as professionals.

Survey respondents’ voices also expressed complaints when lesson observations were too frequent. These respondents belonged to the groups that were observed weekly and more: “Less observations, they are not helpful when they are so frequent.” Another shared: “Less constant observation”.

Rousseau offers an alternative of watchful and quiet observation without judgment. "Leave him alone at liberty. Watch him act without saying anything to him." (Rousseau, 1979, p.161).

What was interesting was the finding that teachers wanted to observe others and learn from their environment. This aspect is observed in more detail in the resources chapter.

Because of the complexity of the matter, further investigation was needed to examine the detail further. One such examination, asked the question: Is there a difference between the usefulness of observations and the Ofsted rating of the school?

A one way between group analysis of variants (ANOVA) was conducted that asked if the usefulness of observations was significantly different between the Ofsted rating of the school. Usefulness of observations was rated on a Likert scale by teachers, where 5 was deemed most useful and 1 the least useful.

Ofsted ratings were numericised and scaled 1 to 3; This helped standardise the equivalent ratings of ISA (independent schools association) with Ofsted ratings. Ofsted and ISA ratings of 'Outstanding' and 'Excellent' were represented numerically as 1, 'Good' as 2, 'Requires improvement' as 3, and Special Measures, 4. The mean of the usefulness of observations were calculated as follows: Outstanding/Excellent, 4.28; Good, 3.62; Requires Improvement 2.79, Special Measure, 2.3.

Figure 22: Ofsted Ratings of Schools

		N
6. Ofsted or ISI rating.		1
	Excellent	2
	Good	82
	Outstanding	51
	Requires Improvement	14
	Special Measures	3

A one way between groups analysis of variants (ANOVA) was conducted that asked if the usefulness of observations was significantly different between the Ofsted rating of the school. Overall, there was a significant effect of Ofsted rating on the usefulness of Observations, $F(2, 146) = 11.86, p < .001$. The median significance was however much smaller which could suggest that data from the positive group could be polarised.

Post Hoc Tests using a Bonferroni connection indicated that teachers from 'Outstanding/Excellent' Schools ($M = 4.28, SD = .928$) found observations significantly more

useful than both teachers from 'Good schools', (M = 3.62, SD 1.162) and schools that 'Require Improvement' (M 2.79, SD 1.424) Finally, teachers from 'Good' schools found observations significantly more useful than those from 'Requires Improvement'. All Bonferroni post hoc tests had p values under .031.

Overall, the results indicate that the higher the Ofsted rating, the more satisfied teachers are with the usefulness of lesson observations as part of their training programme; equally, the lower the Ofsted rating, the less satisfied the teachers are with the usefulness of lesson observations.

There are several possible explanations for this result. The data could suggest that schools with higher Ofsted ratings provide better training in lesson observations and inversely, schools with lower Ofsted ratings may provide worse training in lesson observations, leading to a smaller rate of satisfaction. Another explanation suggests that schools with lower Ofsted ratings are more likely to place an overemphasis on observations, feeding into the watchful framework of panoptic performativity. Analysis of qualitative data from participants in schools that require improvement or are in special measures display a pattern suggesting that teachers are not happy with the frequency of observations and that they find them too invasive. This group predominantly associated with the term 'less observation' and wanted to learn by observing others instead.

ANOVAs were also run on other independent variables and Lesson Observation satisfaction versus Ofsted rating was found to be the only difference of statistical significance.

Exploring this area further, a regression correlation was run to determine whether or not there was a direct correlation with age and the usefulness of lesson observations, and it was found that there was: $F(16, 045) p < .001$. The older the participants, the less likely they would be to find lesson observations useful and equally, the younger the participants, the more likely they would be to find lesson observations useful.

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	40.138	2	20.069	16.045	<.001 ^b
	Residual	186.362	149	1.251		
	Total	226.500	151			

a. Dependent Variable: 13.1. Lesson observations

b. Predictors: (Constant), 3. Age., 6. Ofsted or ISI rating.

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.308	.296		17.911	<.001
	6. Ofsted or ISI rating.	-.692	.132	-.390	-5.244	<.001
	3. Age.	-.178	.089	-.148	-1.997	.048

As can be noted from the negative coefficient, as age increases, the usefulness of lesson Observations decreases. The confidence interval shows that there is a direct correlation between age and the satisfaction of Lesson Observations.

The views of participants on observations were complex. Given that the views were so polarised, I would argue that this is a calling for the newly qualified teachers to decide for themselves, how little or often they need to be observed. This is in line with the philosophy of autodidacticism, but not with the line of Rousseauian mentoring, where Rousseau seemingly observes his pupil in an almost constant stream. It is worth noting though that like for like observation comparisons are not possible here, as Rousseau's quiet, unobtrusive, and non-judgemental observation is far removed from the diet of performative observation

that are part of the induction process in England. Perhaps therefore there is also a kernel of truth in the fact that observation satisfaction is also related the type of observation, and as we have seen from the comments of the participants, this varies significantly in the context of early career teacher training.

The Wider Performative Picture

Ball (2012 p.4) suggests that Performativity “links effort, values, purposes and self-understanding to measures and comparisons of output.” This study showed that teachers see little value in performativity and that the findings suggest that performative measures in schools are wasteful of time and energy. Teachers’ views were aligned with Perryman’s (2006 p.6): “Performativity is linked with the increased accountability and surveillance under which teachers find themselves and their schools being judged in terms of outcome and performance.” Perryman’s later research on the subject went further and suggested that performative measures directly lead to falling rates of attrition (Perryman, 2022). This is concerning when you consider that more than half of the respondents in this study had considered leaving teaching already.

An additional finding was that performative measures were often linked with overall satisfaction of the induction experience. When survey respondents were asked how they rated their experience so far, the majority were satisfied. ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 1.02$, $95\% CI = 3.69, 4.01$). However, many of those that weren’t satisfied were identified as a group that mentioned performative measures as their reasons for their dissatisfaction.

These 16 respondents graded their induction training as poor or very poor, when asked the question: “Have you considered leaving teaching”, 15 said yes. All 16 did not think that they received enough support during their induction. Within this group there was a common theme that the teachers’ reasons for disliking their induction training programmes were often linked to performative measures, general lack of support, poor mentoring, or lack of mentoring. One teacher responded explosively to report on the culture at their school and commented that provisions were used as a performative tool against the teaching staff:

“Insane workloads, unrealistic markings expectations, havoc created by a disastrous previous SLT that drove the school into special measures, then being flogged into

submission by the new academy chain that the school is affiliated with. Provisions provided are used against teachers, leaving a workforce heavily criticised rather than supported constructively. An unsupportive SLT who back their middle leaders and dismiss anyone underneath that level. The school has created an “Us” and “Them” environment and have diminished morale, while maintaining the highest expectations of teachers and students, despite the fact their social interaction and personal dealings with teachers is unacceptable.”

This worrying account shows the intense frustration that teachers can feel when they are unsupported in the workplace, undervalued and under extreme performative control.

More detailed reasons for the dissatisfaction of participants included, excessive observations, student assessment and the assessment of assessments, unsupportive management, pressure from senior leadership, book scrutiny, marking, poor mentoring, and workload.

Summary

The summation of the Performativity data can be noted in the table below. There is a strong overlap of philosophical thought between Rousseau and the participants, particularly in the sub themes of Autonomy and Bureaucracy.

Performativity	
Bureaucracy	
Survey and Interview Data	Rousseau
Too much paperwork	No mention of paperwork
Unnecessary portfolio	Memory is the record keeper
Induction programme a tick box exercise	
Ofsted a distraction from pupils	
Autonomy	
Survey and Interview Data	Rousseau
Freedom valued	Total freedom and trust advocated

Autonomy valued	
Trust should be requisite	
Less emphasis on performance	Performance seen as deleterious
Autodidactic approach welcomed	Autodidacticism at the centre of learning
Observation	
Survey and Interview Data	Rousseau
Observation is not rated as highly as other training tools	
Observation satisfaction dependent on quality and purpose	Believes in quiet non-judgmental observation.
Ofsted rating had an impact on satisfaction of observations	
Teachers want to observe others	Learn from your environment

One of the most important findings discovered that teachers' views here were very strongly aligned to Rousseau's Emilian theories on an autodidactic approach to learning. Teachers' views were cohesive with Rousseau's philosophy on autonomy and freedom in learning. In addition, teachers were unanimous in welcoming an autodidactic induction approach and were keen to observe and learn from others and their environment. Rousseau's ideas of memory acting as the sole record keeper were found to be a solution to the teachers' woes regarding excessive bureaucratic paperwork and perfunctory evidence collecting. The Rousseauian approach to observation advocating quiet, watchful and non-judgemental observation could also serve its purpose in the classroom.

Parker and Roessger (2020) argue autodidacticism from a humanistic point of view, suggesting that learners are willing to learn and inherently want to reach their own potential. There is therefore no need for performative measures. It is time that we put our trust in teachers and let them take charge of their own learning, as trusted and capable professionals.

Chapter 5 – Mentoring

Rousseau on autodidactic mentoring:

“Teach your scholar to observe the phenomena of nature; you will soon rouse his curiosity, but if you would have it grow, do not be in too great a hurry to satisfy this curiosity. Put the problems before him and let him solve them himself. Let him know nothing because you have told him, but because he has learnt it for himself. Let him not be taught science, let him discover it. (Rousseau, 1979, p.91)

In this section, mentoring is explored through the sub themes of time, performativity and mentoring practice. These sub themes are further sub divided into codes that are presented using the data captured from surveys, interviews, and *Émile*. Qualitative data from both open text survey and interview are presented side by side. Quantitative survey data is presented using SPSS descriptive statistics. Excerpts of *Émile* have been analysed and used to support the data conceptually where applicable, ensuring that the lens of *Émile* is present throughout the work.

The final part of this chapter is a summation of results that includes a mapping of the data presented in table format to summarise the view of the teachers participating in the research and how they align with Rousseauian philosophy.

A quick word on language and definitions.

The new Early Career Framework (2019b) came into force in September 2021 (during the course of this study). It split the role of induction mentor/tutor into two stand-alone roles of induction tutor (an assessment role) and induction mentor (a mentorship role). Many of the participants in this study refer to the mentor role as that of its original imagining which includes assessment responsibilities.

The definition of mentoring used in this study is:

“A formal, one-to-one relationship, usually between a relatively inexperienced teacher (the mentee) and a relatively experienced one (the mentor), which is

intended to support the mentee’s (though may also support the mentor’s) learning, development and well-being.” (Hobson and Maxwell, 2020)

It is worth noting however that in this study, some of the relationships between the new teacher and their mentor were found to be more informal, and this was found to be desirable by the participants in this study.

The following table summarises the codes of interest that are presented in this chapter. These will be explored by section:

Table 1: Codes of Interest – Mentoring

Mentoring		
4. Time	5. Performativity	6. Mentoring Practice
Lack of time	Performative mentoring	Bullying
No mentor	Bureaucratic mentoring	Unconstructive criticism and Judgmentoring
		Consistency
		Relationships
		Autodidactic Mentoring

5.2 Time

The themes of ‘no time’ and ‘lack of time’ recurred throughout the data set when discussed in relation to mentors and mentoring. The participants overall indicated that they wanted more time with their mentors and that they wanted their mentors to be given more time to participate in their mentoring duties and in some cases, more money for the mentor was mentioned.

This study found that a substantial proportion of teachers were not allocated a mentor and/or were not receiving mentoring at all. Of 159 respondents, 22 said that they did not have a mentor. This is concerning given that The Teacher Recruitment and Retention

Strategy (DfE, 2019a) specifically states that all new teachers will be allocated a mentor and that time should be set aside to allow them to engage with their mentor and their learning.

“These reforms sit at the heart of our strategy and will include a dedicated mentor and a reduced timetable for early career teachers, giving them the time and support needed to focus on their professional development.” (Teacher Recruitment and Retention Strategy; Our Priorities, DfE, 2019a, p.1)

Comments from survey respondents largely focused on absent mentors or mentors that did not have the time to fulfil their mentoring duties, in many of these cases no blame was apportioned to the mentor, rather the system, and the funding situation was held responsible. For example, one survey participant said:

“A ‘Mentor’ under current arrangements is an excessively over-worked full time teacher that has the responsibilities of ‘mentoring’ me tossed on top of an already over booked schedule. The idea of a Mentor is a good one, but does not, and cannot, exist in current circumstances, staffing and funding.”

There are a couple of interesting points here that are worth expanding on. Firstly, the fact that new teachers (having spent less than a year in their schools) are already aware that there is an ongoing issue with staffing and funding in schools is remarkable. It also suggests that this issue is having a widespread effect on all aspects of teaching and learning, including the induction programme. Secondly, the respondent’s point of view in relation to mentors being overworked and therefore not able to carry out their mentoring duties is consistent with the findings from Lofthouse. Lofthouse (2018, p.250) states that “...mentors frequently cannot attend due to workload pressures associated with their non-mentoring roles.” This provides some support for the premise that mentors should also be given a reduced timetable in the same way that new teachers are provided with allocated time to undertake their induction work. The assumption, that mentors can just create time to mentor new teachers effectively is unrealistic.

Another survey participant was also direct about this issue and said that what they wanted was: “Mentors who are given time to support you. Release time being honoured.”

Lack of support and time from teacher's mentors was a recurring problem uncovered by the research. A further respondent intimated that the time allocated was not always received: "Poor mentorship support and not always allocated the time I should have."

Others alluded to lack of time by stating what they wanted to receive, indicating therefore, by default, that this was something that they did not receive already: "I would like regular mentor meetings."

Others simply shared that meetings with their mentor were in short supply, one participant said: "I have a mentor, but we hardly ever meet." Another stated: "My NQT mentoring was non-existent." One teacher simply said that they needed a "Designated NQT mentor in each school", which suggests that they didn't have one at all.

Some teachers offered some interesting solutions, additional pay for mentors in a hope to possibly incentivise and reward: "For mentors to have more time to help, they get no extra free blocks or any extra pay." Or allocated days off timetable: "Perhaps a day off timetable every couple of weeks to regroup with a mentor and look at lesson strategies and how to make improvements." Another suggested: "more time for reflection on my own and with a mentor."

The issue of pay is interesting because the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) have been tasked to evaluate the early roll out of the new Early Career Framework and as part of this evaluation they are researching the impact of an additional payment for mentors. Little has been said about this experimental randomised controlled trial, but what we do know is that the payment will be a one-off payment of £775 per mentor per school. Potential problems could arise from this as the payment is sent directly to the schools and is not paid directly to the mentor. If the mentor does not receive the payment, effectively, there will be no incentive. This is however a good start and could potentially be a way forward to motivate mentors, but it still does not address the issue of time constraints.

A further survey participant suggested a regular day off timetable to spend solely with their mentor. "Perhaps a day off timetable every couple of weeks to regroup with a mentor and look at lesson strategies and how to make improvements." Although this is unrealistic given the teaching commitments that both teachers and mentors have, it does emphasise the

depth of feeling and importance that new teachers assign to mentorship. They are keen for more time with mentors, not less.

Time constraints were also an issue for interview respondents who echoed similar responses. Namely, that mentors were too busy, had little time to offer, and that often mentoring did not take place at all. One interview participant, Kat, shared that she doesn't have any meetings at all. To further compound this issue, this particular teacher had explained earlier in the interview that she was struggling and that she needed further support.

Researcher: And what about your timetable. Do you get regular newly qualified teacher mentoring?

Kat: I don't [sighs]. So we have meetings on a Thursday. Well... we used to... [pauses] I haven't had any meetings whatsoever this term.

Researcher: And do you have a mentor then that you can go to for support?

Kat: I have a mentor, but she's also the year five teacher, so she can't come and see my lessons, or kind of support me as such.

Researcher: So you don't have *any* regular meetings?

Kat: We don't at all... we're trying. But it's not good enough, because it's not happening.

This new teacher explains her frustrations at being allocated a mentor who is also a full-time classroom teacher. The mentor's teaching timetable and workload are not compatible alongside a mentorship role, and this results in the new teacher never having any support meetings. This ties in with what we have seen already – that mentors do not have the time to support mentees. There is a potential argument here for the employment of external mentors, but with funding already tightly stretched across education, under the current circumstances this presents as a conceptual chimera.

The overall message from this data was that teachers felt that mentors did not have enough time and did not give enough time to the mentees. This was seen as particularly problematic when teachers were already struggling and finding teaching a challenge. Lack

of mentorship is also at odds with the updated Early Career Framework (DfE, 2022) government guidance which emphasises the importance of a mentor in addition to an induction tutor who now mainly takes on the role of the assessor. Given the issues concerning lack of time, perhaps a reduced timetable for mentors as well as new teachers could be a potential solution. This relates back to the issues that Wilson (2014) found regarding the duality of the role of the mentor, often being both classroom teacher and mentor.

Rousseau believes that giving time to the mentee is of paramount importance. This is a clear thread that runs through his work. He speaks of giving yourself unconditionally to the one that you mentor: "If you do not also open your heart, others' hearts will always remain closed to you. It is your time, your care, your affection. It is yourself that must be given." (Rousseau, 1979, p.95). In *Émile* Rousseau slavishly devotes himself to his mentee. He is ever present, always ready to engage. Although it is worth noting that there is no sense of the mentor having any additional duties other than to dedicate himself to his trainee, which is unrealistic in the current induction context.

Rousseau goes even further and suggests that giving time is an investment: "In the earliest age sacrifice time that you will regain with interest at a more advanced age. (Rousseau, 1979, p.94). The idea of a return on the investment of training new teachers is logical and mentoring could represent a cost-effective approach to their induction needs. Currently, further research is needed on the implication of cost in teacher mentoring as it has been noted that these costs are often absorbed by the mentor's own spare time (Stevenson et al., 2023).

Ingersoll and Strong's (2011) seminal work discovered that allocating time for mentoring for both the mentor and mentee was vital to the success and well-being of the new teacher and this includes additional protected time for the mentee to be able to undertake learning during their first few years as a teacher.

Investing in our Teachers is vital and the data shows that time is the investment that our newly qualified teachers want and need. Hobson (2016) argues that teachers are potential 'vulnerable learners' under considerable pressure in a new environment. Therefore, not

giving Teachers the time that they need is not only counterproductive, but also unethical. Miller (2012) argues that if we are therefore in a position to satisfy human need, it is surely then a moral and ethical choice to do so.

5.2 Performative Mentoring

Lofthouse and Thomas (2014, p.216) found that mentoring in schools could be “buffeted by a system driven by targets, standards and assessment regimes.” Many teachers who participated in this study agreed and argued that the focus of mentoring was wrong. One participant viewed mentoring as a performative measure that created anxiety: “My mentor just comes into my classroom unannounced, and it often feels like an observation, which provokes unnecessary stress.” This was a thread that pervaded throughout the study and infers that new teachers are subject to continuous checks, suggesting that they are not trusted in their roles as qualified teachers. This is the central point in Hobson and Maxwell’s (2020) work on the ills of Judgmentoring.

Participants also referred directly to problems associated with lack of trust: “I would like it to feel as though I am fully qualified and that I can be trusted.” Hobson (2016) argues that trust is vital for efficacious mentoring and therefore this area needs to be nurtured in the mentor and mentee relationship.

A further respondent intimated that they only met their mentor when they were having a lesson observation, which places the emphasis of mentor ‘support’ again on performative measures: “Having a proper induction to the school and how it works and being able to regularly meet with your mentor more informally than just for lesson obs.”

Other participants argued that the focus of mentoring was bureaucratic, which once more linked this with the performative element: “Weak mentor whose focus is a box tiker.” A further participant agreed: “Mentoring is about box ticking rather than what I need week to week.” It again raised questions as to the necessity of these performative measures.

It was discovered in the previous findings section (Performativity) that performative measures were not popular amongst teachers, and it is therefore concerning that some teachers only interaction with their mentors is in a performative capacity.

Tedder and Lawy (2009, p.2) write that Ofsted recommends a 'target driven approach' to mentoring; mirroring the panopticon of performativity rooted in the general principals of Ofsted inspection. They further claim that Ofsted's obsession with the term 'excellence' has a detrimental influence on education, creating an autocratic, assessment driven ethos that teachers do not find helpful. These thoughts are echoed by Clapham et al. (2016) who agree that Ofsted's preoccupation with a similar word, 'outstanding', creates tyranny within the educational establishment, generating a monomania with performativity. This study shows that the performative, target driven mentoring style is not fit for purpose and that other avenues must be explored.

5.3 Mentoring Practice

Concerns regarding the behaviour of mentors and senior leaders were widespread. When asked what the teachers needed, some of the answers raised concerns about the professionalism of staff and the delivery of support from their mentors. One survey participant said: "Support from mentor and not bullying tactics." Another posited: "Less intrusive Mentor intervention." A further respondent shared: "I worked a term in a school, which at first seemed like the right school. However, I was scrutinized and treated unfairly by SLT and my NQT mentoring was non-existent."

These comments show that some teachers are subjected to unfair treatment at the hands of their line managers and/or mentors. The literature review for this study found there to be a significant gap in the literature with regards to the unfair treatment of teachers, and that this area of research would therefore benefit some further attention.

In other responses it was clear that relationships between teachers and their mentors were execrable. One survey participant simply said: "A mentor who cares." Another shared: "Awful mentor." A further intimated that they had a "Poor relationship with mentor." And another expressed their dissatisfaction by saying: "Decent friendly mentor with actual adult communication skills."

These findings were disappointing, not only from a perspective of poor professionalism, but on a humanistic level. Hopwood and Bradbury (2021) tell us that mentoring has lost some

of its efficacy because the focus has reverted to the process and *not* the relationship. It is possible that the processes here, such as target setting, performance reviews and observations have taken over. Moreover, Hopwood and Bradbury (2021) propose that the relationship between mentor and mentee is key for the mentoring process to be successful. Instances of bullying and poor relationships cannot be accepted in educational establishments and mentors should strive to build good relationships with their mentees above all else.

Uncaring mentoring and bullying is also at odds with the Émilian philosophy. As previously discussed, Rousseau places great emphasis on being a caring mentor. He also talks about the importance of being kind and humane, referring to it as a primary responsibility: “Men be human. This is your first duty. Be humane with every station, every age, everything which is not alien to man.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.79).

Further investigation into mentoring practice revealed that some mentoring styles were too critical of the new teacher. Some participants commented on the need for more *constructive* criticism, alluding perhaps to the fact that feedback was given only critically and not constructively: “Constructive criticism from a mentor who was trained in how to support an NQT.” Another respondent agreed: “Constructive feedback from a mentor. And: “Being provided with positive feedback as well as negative.”

It would be interesting to see if mentors saw themselves as being overly critical in these instances. Manning and Hobson’s (2017) study discovered that mentees perceptions of how mentors mentor differed from how their mentors saw themselves. It was found that largely, mentors claimed their style to be developmental, yet their mentees disagreed, stating that their mentoring was judgmental. Manning and Hobson (2017) suggested that a recent shift towards judgmental mentoring had been a consequence of the ever-increasing fixation of senior management with assessment and performance in education. Hobson’s earlier work with Malderez (2013) refers to the term Judgmentoring which feels very appropriate here in terms of the views of the participants in this survey. Hobson and Malderez (2013. p.90) define Judgmentoring as:

“A one-to-one relationship between a relatively inexperienced teacher (the mentee) and a relatively experienced one (the mentor) in which the latter, in revealing too readily and/or too often her/his own judgements compromises the mentoring relationship and its potential benefits.”

This concept is closely aligned with Rousseauian philosophy. Rousseau believes that criticism can be damaging to a mentee:

“All the little defects of language that one is so afraid of letting children contract are nothing. They can be prevented or corrected with the greatest ease. But those that one causes children to contract by making their speech dull, obscure, and timid, by incessantly criticising their tone, by picking all their words to pieces, are never corrected.” (p.171)

Extending this metaphor to teacher feedback, this excerpt of data is interesting for several reasons. It suggests that an overly critical approach to feedback is not only damaging but that the damage is potentially irreversible. There is also a suggestion here that small adjustments can lead to greater improvements. Furthermore, Rousseau believes that mistakes can be self-corrected: “If he makes a mistake, let him do so; do not correct his errors. Wait in silence until he is ready to correct himself.” (p.171)

Consistent mentoring was another code of interest that was uncovered in this study. In general, the data showed a large variation in mentoring practice, and this was picked up by the teachers themselves. Participants in the study suggested that there was no parity in mentoring and consistency was mentioned by participants who argued that mentoring varied according to whom you were assigned to:

“[There needs to be] Consistency in mentoring across school.” Another shared: “The training really varies with the mentor you get, even if it is within the same school. Maybe there can be more checks on the commitment of the mentors.”

Wilkinson (2022) suggests that an official mentor qualification should be a pre-requisite to mentoring new teachers. Although the recent changes to the Early Career Framework now include free resources for new teachers, there is no training designed for the development

of mentors, schools can even choose to create their own resources and issue their own guidance. Given that the research suggests that this is such a pivotal role, training mentors to fulfil this role appropriately should be a priority. This would also ensure that there was consistency across the schools and nationwide. Lofthouse (2018) states that Ofsted and other external inspectors have already raised concerns regarding the consistency of mentoring.

Other teachers spoke about needing a supportive mentor in more general terms: “more support from a mentor” and “a supportive mentor” was mentioned on several occasions: “A mentor who recognises that even when someone is doing well and coping, they still need help and support to cope with the challenges of the role.”

A group of teachers were interested in more targeted and extended support. One survey participant suggested:

“A range of people supporting you other than just a mentor. For example, a 1-1 with the SENCO, headteacher, behaviour team etc.” Another simply stated: “More targeted support from my subject mentor.” One teacher suggested that the focus needed to be refined in more detail: “A trainer/guidance resource that is focused on my specific subject, my department, and my student year groups.”

Interestingly, there is no requirement in the induction guidance for new teachers (2019) that states that the mentor or induction tutor should be a subject specialist. This might be something that requires more attention in future reforms.

The survey participants that independently mentioned mentoring (in free, unprompted text) as a positive, all had something in common - better than average satisfaction of the induction programme $n = 4.69$ as opposed to $n = 3.91$. There are thirteen instances, and all have been listed below:

Comment	How do you rate your induction programme?
Very good mentor also a lot easier than QTS	Excellent

Have a great mentor, supportive SLT and a partner teacher who encourages me to share my ideas and try new things.	Excellent
I have support from my HoD and department colleagues, as well as support from the NQT mentors.	Excellent
Have continued at the same school and my mentor is very helpful. However, my workload is very high as I have several roles at school.	Good
Supportive school, SLT and fellow teachers. Well organised CPD and mentoring.	Excellent
Great mentor. Same school as where I trained. Know routines, people, places. Good support especially ECF.	Good
Very supportive mentor/department and SLT link.	Excellent
Very good mentor also a lot easier than QTS	Excellent
Very supportive mentors and management, lots of opportunities to observe other teachers, coaching and encouragement	Excellent
Great training and good mentors	Excellent
Support wise from mentor was good, head of department no so, obviously couldn't be bothered. The whole school Nqt was painful. 90 minutes each week after school to discuss rubbish and or do silly tasks like colouring in a blooms taxonomy table	Good

I have loved my NQT year, fully supported by staff and mentor.	Good
Love it, great mentor and I get on well with everyone	Excellent

The vast majority of the participants who chose to comment in the free text box on good mentorship rated their induction experience as Excellent n=9, the exceptions that were rated good n=4, mostly also referred to other problematic issues, such as workload or unnecessary training – this could explain the slight downwards adjustment. All the participants n=13 (without exception) who mentioned good training, rated their experience as either good or excellent. This data further emphasises the importance of good mentoring as being instrumental to a successful induction.

Relationships

Relationships were explored in detail with interview participants. Overall participants thought that being matched with the right mentor was vital and that building a strong relationship with their mentor was key. This line of thought agrees with that of Hopwood and Bradbury (2021) who believe that more thought needs to be placed into matching characters that complement one another. It is also consistent with the work of Hobson (2016).

Lee spoke at length about his positive relationship with his mentor:

“I suppose, from my perspective, I was quite lucky in that Tom, my mentor, I’m trying to put this in a simple way... he was, he was great for me, because he was such a calming influence. And he was so you know, he was so open to just any idea. And you know, he didn't just sort of come at me and go: No, you don't do anything like that you don't do it like this, or that's a terrible idea. Everything was so thoughtful. It was just his approach and his sort of demeanour; I think it worked really well. And on a personal level we got on anyway, and we had, you know, a good sort of relationship, we had things in common, we enjoyed our football and whatnot. So that sort of gave us that... that grounding.”

This citation intimates that finding common ground and common interests may be important in terms of building rapport and nurturing relationships between Mentor and Mentee.

This participant further went on to discuss why relationships with mentors matter and the notion that feeling comfortable with your mentor is important, particularly when seeking out support. Lee noticed the difference when his original mentor 'Tom' (not his real name) was temporarily replaced by a new mentor.

"Tom was away for a couple of weeks, while he was away on a course separately, another member of staff had actually stepped in, just to sort of like, you know, give me a little bit of guidance. Just to check in and I suppose, you know, I didn't feel as confident or perhaps confident to go and say about something, like actually, I'm not really too sure about this. I kind of just dug in and just went, Yeah, I'll give this a go. Then, hope that it all goes okay."

When asked what his ideal mentor would be like, Lee responded:

"My ideal mentor would be someone who's quite patient and someone who's quite open and willing to discuss things. You know, again, because it's from my perspective, it's... [pause] it's really someone who's just willing to listen, you know, who will give you a sort of a bit of a licence for creativity. I feel like because of the way I work, I'd hate for someone to say, right, you have to do a lesson like this. And it has to meet all these strict objectives. And you have to include this. You know, that would destroy me."

Although some of this participant's preferences could be interpreted as being personal to him, overall, this response emphasises the importance of freedom in teaching and learning which links to Rousseau's autodidactic approach.

A survey participant added that an instructional approach to mentoring was unhelpful: "I have also found the instructional coaching to be pointless, over-exacting and a touch condescending."

Rousseau believes unequivocally in freedom in learning – he deems that this will lead to more successful outcomes: “...the only one instrument that can succeed: well regulated freedom.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.92). Emilian philosophy encourages mentees to learn from their experiences as opposed to learning directly from their mentors: “Do not give your pupil any kind of verbal lessons; he ought to receive them only from experience.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.92).

A mentor as a guide was a thread that was mentioned during the interviews by a survey participant: “... it's very important to have a mentor to be able to guide that [induction] journey.” Rousseau agrees and suggests that one guide is best: “The child should follow only a single guide.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.42). The philosophy behind this is interesting. We read earlier how Lee, one of our interview participants, felt a little discombobulated when a new mentor stepped in to cover his usual mentor’s absence; Rousseau believes that the stability of a single guide is comforting and that other influences could be corrupting and meddling to the process of learning. Conversely, Rousseau also believes that the mentor should only have one pupil to allow the mentor to fully concentrate and dedicate themselves to their trainee. “mine will only have one (pupil).” (Rousseau, 1979, p.42).

Recently the guidance for induction was reformed by the government (2021). One of the most significant changes was the introduction of two separate, stand alone roles, of mentor and induction tutor. Prior to this change, the induction tutor was expected to act as both mentor and assessor. It is not clear yet if the separation of the roles will act as a help or add further confusion to the induction process, although removing the requirement of the mentor to make judgments on the new teacher, could be beneficial, as the aspect of ‘judgmentoring’ is taken away (Hobson and Malderez, 2013). Given the research on lack of value of performativity in the induction process, it does leave questions open as to whether or not the role of the induction tutor and the role of assessment has a place in the induction of new teachers. After all, teachers have already qualified and have been through a vigorous process of assessment against the Teachers’ Standards – is there a need for repetition of the cycle, particularly when new teachers will also be subject to whole school target setting and professional development assessment points? We have seen earlier in the performativity section that often the induction year is seen as repetitive and perfunctory

due to the performative aspects that are driven by assessment – could this element be removed to make for a better induction experience for the teachers, once that is driven by mentorship and not measurability.

Matching the right mentor to the right mentee was also deemed as important and having a subject specialist was seen as vital, this is consistent with the findings of Yusko and Feiman-Nemser (2008). Liana shared:

“I think that a lot of the time, you get stuck with someone. So my mentor was a maths teacher. Okay. And as much as he loved drama and going to see theatre. That’s not necessarily the same... it’s just not! It’s not the same as teaching academic theatre. And I think that having that dissociation between what he was doing and what his lessons look like and sitting down in a room; and then going into my lessons, with kids going crazy and running around on the floor, it makes it really really tough... really difficult to understand.”

Subject specificity was important to the respondents of this survey and understandably, this teacher wanted subject specialist support from a mentor. There are currently no specific requirements or even recommendations in the reformed ECT Induction guidance to suggest that the mentor is a subject specialist. The only requirement is that of having qualified teacher status, suggesting that perhaps the area of subject specificity in mentoring needs to be looked at further.

Liana went on to state that there should be commonality with the mentor, particularly in their style of teaching and how they interact with their students:

“I would say, style of teaching, including relationships with students, someone who kind of has similar relationships to you, because obviously, different teachers relate in different ways, and we have different relationships. That’s really important.”

Tammy spoke about her previous teacher training mentor (during her initial teacher training) Although she was not aware of this at the time, her words accurately summed up an autodidactic mentoring style.

“...during my teacher training in my contrasting placements, I had a really, really, really good mentor who was just a guy who would also ask me those questions, but in the way that he would lead it, it was kind of like to lead me to realise what it is I'm doing wrong.”

This is unwavering from the unanimity of thought expressed in the performativity section on an autodidactic approach, which includes autodidactic mentoring.

On this theme, Rousseau says: “To feed his curiosity, never hurry to satisfy it. Put the questions within his reach and leave them to him to resolve.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.168). Rousseau elaborates on this by giving the example of the rising sun. He scoffs at the prospect of scholars teaching their students from diagrams, models, and globes and instead takes Émile out to watch the rising sun. He then asks a simple question to Émile: “I think the sun set over there last night; it rose here this morning. How can that be?” (Rousseau, 1979 p.169). Rousseau then explains that it is best then to give the student some time to think through the question and for the mentor to take a step back, not even answering any arising questions from the student. He proposes that this is the way, to really get the student to think and consider the answer in depth. Only then, should you go back to the question, once the student had had time to see it and digest it.

On the issue of leading and asking questions as a method towards understanding your own mistakes, Rousseau believe that mentees should be given the space to be able to self-correct and takes a similar hands-off approach: “If he makes a mistake, let him do so; do not correct his errors. Wait in silence until he is ready to correct himself.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.171). In Émile the mentor’s main purpose was to lead but to allow the student the freedom to learn from his own surroundings. “Command him nothing... let him know it, learn it, feel it.” (Rousseau, 1978 p.91).

The Wider Mentoring Picture

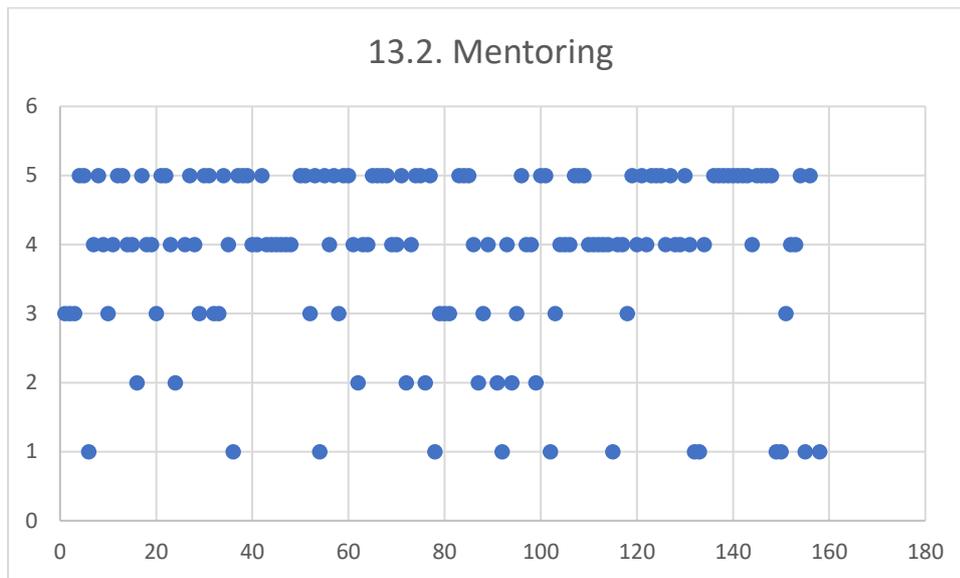
It appeared from the data, that not all new teachers had access to a mentor. 21 out of 159 stated that they had no mentor. Given that this is a statutory requirement, this is rather concerning. Tests were run on this section of the cohort, but there were no patterns found in relation to other variables.

Participants were asked if they were satisfied with their mentoring programme and to rate this on a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 being the most satisfied and 1, the least. Overall, the participants were satisfied with their mentoring programme. The overall mean satisfaction rating was 3.91, in context with other learning tools available to new teachers, this was found to be high.

Ranking (most useful)	Training tool	Mean
1	Reduced Timetable	4.28
2	Observing Others	4.04
3	Mentoring	3.91
4	Subject specific training	3.83
5	Common planning time	3.87
6	Lesson observations	3.75
7	Teacher training/workshops	3.43
8	Team teaching	3.06
9	Mastership (further studies)	2.83

The scatter graph below illustrates given a visual overview of respondents' overall satisfaction with their mentoring programme.

Figure 22: Overall satisfaction with the mentoring programme



It is clear from this graph that the majority of the participants were highly satisfied, and the majority graded their mentoring as excellent (N=5 or in other words the top category). Digging into this information more deeply, it was found that there was a relationship between Ofsted rating and satisfaction of Mentoring. Of the 62 respondents who rated Mentoring as excellent, only 2 did not come from a school with a category that was rated Outstanding or Good.

Ofsted or ISI rating for those who rated Mentoring as Excellent

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Good	37	60.7	60.7	60.7
	Outstanding	22	36.1	36.1	96.7
	Requires Improvement	1	1.6	1.6	98.4
	Special Measures	1	1.6	1.6	100.0
	Total	61	100.0	100.0	

A direct correlation was found between participants who rated Mentoring as Excellent and their Ofsted rating. Participants who had Ofsted ratings of Good or Outstanding were much more likely to rate their Mentoring as excellent. However, when an ANOVA was run to ascertain if there was a significant difference between all the Ofsted categories and mentoring, it was found that there was no significant difference.

The idea of a more informal relationship between the new teachers and their mentors was mentioned by participants: “...being able to regularly meet with your mentor more informally than just for lesson observations.” It will be interesting to see if the new division of roles, separating the role of assessor and mentor will provide this relief, although there is no guidance about whether or not the role of the mentor should be formal or informal.

Perhaps there is a great deal that we can learn from other mentoring cultures, whilst the western culture of mentoring is often formal, process driven and performative (Hopwood and Bradbury, 2021), the Japanese mentoring culture offers a more gentle and informal approach. Bright (2005) speaks of the ancient tradition of ‘senpai – kohai’ (trans. junior – senior) and explains that Japanese mentoring is relationship focused and in contrast to the western model with its continuously changeable and oscillating foci, the Japanese style has remained constant over the centuries. Senpai-kohai, the joining together of experience and novice, is centred around an informal, emotional support. It is a holistic, friendly, and non-judgmental mentoring style.

Mentoring	
Time	
Survey and Interview Data	Rousseau
Mentors need allocated time to mentor. Some respondents did not have a mentor or did not benefit from any mentoring time.	Give all your time to your mentee. Time invested in your mentee is time invested into the future.
Money and a reduced timetable for mentors could incentivise the mentors	
Workload was an issue that created time constraints for both mentor and new teacher.	

Performativity	
Survey and Interview Data	Rousseau
Some mentoring relationships are merely performative and assessment driven.	Rousseau advocates a non judgmental approach.
The focus of mentoring can be bureaucratic.	
Freedom in teaching and learning	Freedom in learning
Mentoring Practice	
Survey and Interview Data	Rousseau
Some mentors are uncaring	Care of your mentee is the first and most important duty
Judgementoring is prevalent	
Mentors can be too critical	Do not criticise. It can damage the mentee.
Lack of consistency amongst mentors	
Good mentoring is key to high satisfaction rates amongst new teachers	
Matching mentor to mentee is important	
Autodidactic mentoring favoured. This included learning from your own mistakes.	Represents the epitome of autodidactic mentoring.
Informal mentoring	Informal mentoring

Tammy summed up her thoughts when asked what the ideal mentor would look like:

“I do think it's really important to have someone who inspires you and motivates you, because that's the best way to get you to stay in the profession.”

We have seen from the data and the literature that ultimately, a good mentor, makes for a better mentoring experience, and this in turn can increase retention rates of new teachers.

Considering how this could be achieved is a more complicated matter, but lessons can be drawn from the data uncovered in this study. It was found that a mentor should be available, caring, giving of time, autodidactic and supportive of academic freedoms, and that they

should be non judgemental. The study found that the induction process would benefit from offering a reduced timetable to the mentor as well as the mentee, and it would be beneficial to allocate protected time for both to meet in an informal and supportive setting. It was also found that matching the right mentor to the right mentee was important, and that above all, that a good mentoring relationship has a direct correlation to new teacher satisfaction of the induction programme.

Hobson (2016 p.88) found that: "institution-based mentoring can have a range of powerful, positive impacts on beginning teachers." Furthermore, we have discovered that there is a direct link to good mentoring and teacher satisfaction and as Hobson (2016) argues, also to well-being. It is therefore our moral duty to ensure that new teachers are supported adequately in their new roles and that we invest in our new teachers by investing in our mentors.

Chapter 6- Resources

“One must aid them and supplement what is lacking to them, whether in intelligence or strength, or in all that is connected in physical need.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.68)

In this section, Resources is explored through the sub themes of workload, money, and training resources. These sub themes are further sub divided into codes that are presented using the data captured from surveys and interviews. Qualitative data from both open text survey and interview are presented side by side. Quantitative survey data is presented using SPSS descriptive statistics. The chapter begins by exploring Rousseau’s four Maxims of Education which fit under the umbrella of resources and autodidacticism. Excerpts of *Émile* have been analysed and used to support the data conceptually where applicable, ensuring that the lens of *Émile* is present throughout the work.

The final part of this chapter is a summation of results that includes a mapping of the data presented in table format to summarise the view of the teachers participating in the research and how they align with Rousseauian philosophy.

The data will be divided into three subthemes:

Resources		
7. Money	8. Time	9. Training Resources
Pay	Working hours	Training resources
Cost of Living	Reduced Timetable	Observing Others
Funding for Education	2-year induction	

Rousseau introduces us to his four Maxims of Education in book 1. Maxims here are presented as a set of rules or truths that must be adhered to. In *Émile*, they are motifs that permeate through the treatise and are worth further exploring in this chapter in the context of resources. These Maxims are centred wholly around what the mentee needs and what

should be given to them. There are valuable comparisons that can be made here to the learning and training of new teachers.

Rousseau (1979, p.68) explains the Maxims as follows:

“First Maxim. One must aid them and supplement what is lacking to them, whether in intelligence or strength, or in all that is connected in physical need.”

The first maxim relates to the code of resources. It suggests that the mentee should be given all that they need, particularly in areas where they are found to be lacking. Good mentoring should supplement the trainees needs. Hopwood and Bradbury (2021) suggest that this premise should be extended to the mentor and the working relationship of the mentor and the trainee. Hopwood and Bradbury (2021) claim that in areas where the mentor is weak, the mentee should be strong, and where the mentor is strong, the mentee should be weak. This is interesting as it places equal emphasis on the learning of both the mentor and the mentee. Supporting new teachers in everything that they need, could pose problems in the context of the financial degradation of school budgets. Sibieta and Belfield (2018) discovered that relative spending in schools had dropped dramatically since the 1990s.

“Second Maxim. One must, in the help one gives them, limit oneself solely to the really useful, without granting anything to whim or to desire without reason; for whim, inasmuch as it does not come from nature, will torment them if it has not been induced in them.”

This code, relating to training resources represents another Rousseauian paradox. It is awkwardly positioned at odds with the first maxim. It suggests that the mentor must practise restraint in determining which resources are necessary to the mentee. It is the mentor who is tasked in trying to distinguish between the needs and wants of the mentee. Therefore, a dichotomy arises between what the mentee thinks they need and what the mentor thinks they need. There is a suggestion here from Rousseau that the mentor makes the final decision and not the mentee. I argue that the new teacher should be the decision maker and that this is a truer representation of autodidacticism.

“Third Maxim. One must study their language and their signs with care in order that, at any age at which they do not know to how to dissimulate, one can distinguish in their desires what comes immediately from nature and what comes from opinion.”

This relates to the code of observation. Rousseau positions that observation is necessary in order to distinguish between needs and desires. This study found that observation can be useful to teachers but only if it is purposeful to the teacher. The purpose of observation should never be to supplement the mentor’s understanding, only to supplement the mentees. This again represents the same dichotomous viewpoint that was found in the second Maxim.

“Fourth Maxim. The spirit of these rules is to accord children more true freedom and less dominion, to let them do more by themselves and to exact less from others. Thus accustomed early to limiting their desires to their strength, they will feel little the privation of what is not going to be in their power.”

This final maxim epitomises the core essence of Émilian Autodidacticism. Education, Rousseau suggests, should be led by the mentee and be mentee focused. It should embody freedom and should focus on the mentee’s strengths; these strengths are coincidentally often strongly interlinked with what the mentee enjoys.

In the spirit of Rousseau’s maxims, this thesis will aim to create its own Maxims in relation to the needs of new teachers. These will be found in the final conclusion chapter.

Overall, the research in this chapter further uncovered that teachers were unhappy about their working hours, their remuneration, and the training resources that were available to them in schools, this included various factors such as reduced timetable and Continuing Professional Development (CPD). Resources such as pay and working hours were voiced as areas of concern and despite its protected status, most teachers were not receiving a reduced timetable. Burke et al., (2015) reports that “the sharing of resources and collective cooperation among staff has been linked to retention among ECTs.” This is an area of research that requires further development. Whilst there are factors that relate to policy that schools cannot immediately change or have influence over (Burke, 2015), resources

such as collective cooperation, which include the ability to observe other teachers, could be immediately implementable, and at little cost to the employer.

6.1 Money

Given the vocational aspect of a teaching role, pay was a surprisingly popular anguish amongst trainee teachers. At the beginning of the survey, when asked why participants wanted to join the profession, only three out of 159 survey respondents mentioned money: one respondent said: “Because I wanted a career where I could see the value in what I was doing every day. I also wanted a job in a stable/secure industry with relatively good pay.” Even here, the subject of pay was mentioned in the same breath as adding value to society. This was also the case for another participant: Sense of community, love of my subject and financial security. Only one other hinted at remuneration: “Stable job with pension.” All other comments were altruistic and vocational. Rousseau also believes that education is a calling: “There are callings so noble, that one cannot follow them for money.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.49). In this instance, Rousseau talks not only of the mentee, but also of himself, as the mentor. Rousseau sees teaching as a calling, as the highest vocation, with the ability to nurture, and transform society. The participants in this study agree.

It is important to dig deeper and look at the reasons these teachers gave for joining the teaching profession to better understand the philosophy of this cohort of participants – this will also help contextualise the strength of negative feeling surrounding this sub theme of money. Responses to the question of why they chose to teach were often touching and never self-interested. The codes of: wanting to make a difference, shaping futures, wanting to work with children and young people, and teaching being a passion, were repeated unrelentingly. Other examples included wanting to transform local communities, enjoying ‘light bulb’ moments in learning, enjoying the company of children, enriching others, and giving something back to society. The positivity noted in this area palpable. These teachers were enthusiastic about their roles and clearly had a love for the job.

It is difficult to see how these teachers, who talk about joining the teaching profession, with such exuberant passion and meaning, would complain about teacher pay, unless there were real concerns relating to living costs due to poor wages.

In this study, teachers voiced that pay was inadequate, with some intimating that they were struggling with family finances: "I'm having to apply for universal credit as my salary won't support my young family." The issue of poor pay was often mentioned with intense frustration and was compared to "slave labour" by one participant and another strikingly similar comment was expressed by a further respondent who called it: "cheap labour".

The issue of pay was one which was voiced strongly amongst participants as problematic. Lee stated that he has friends who barely have any qualifications who are getting paid much more than he does.

"As a 22-year-old, I was earning double the amount I am earning now. So I feel that [money] plays a massive incentive, because you know, you only have to look to my friends who I play football with. They're in the construction industry, and they barely have qualifications to rub between each other. However, you know, they earn a lot more than me and then there's a frustration I think that exists within that. I mean, I wouldn't say I'm massively money motivated. But, you know, there needs to be some sort of reward. Obviously, we get the holidays, which I'm kind of... [pause] I just kind of take it or leave it...[pause] I'd say money is a motivator."

This teacher touches on the importance of reward. He explains that many see teachers' holidays as the reward, but this particular participant would prefer to be rewarded financially. Another important point to note here is that the idea of teacher holidays as 'reward' is deceptive of the reality. Teacher's participating in this study referred to holidays as breaks in teaching, that were often filled with a backlog of work, marking, and planning. It is also worth questioning, why Lee has voiced concerns over pay, when pay scales for teachers are easily accessed on the internet and therefore one might argue that he and other teachers would have been aware of the remuneration packages. Fullard's (2023) study found out that new teachers are underestimating annual pay expectations by around £6,000.

Teachers spend a great deal of time and money getting a teaching qualification. Get into Teaching (2023) states that a bachelor's degree is required (3 years) and if this does not include Qualified Teacher Status (QTS), a further postgraduate qualification is necessary – this often takes an additional year of time. The Initial Teacher Training (ITT) cost for this is £9,250 for a year – over the course of potentially 4 years at university, this stacks up to a huge amount of student debt. Further costs to educational establishments are also a concern, particularly if new teachers are forced into leaving teaching to pursue better pay elsewhere. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) suggest that the costs of losing new teachers is high as “their production, training, and recruitment all entail costs.” (ibid, p.225).

Cost of Living Crisis

The issue of poor pay has been exacerbated by the current cost of living crisis. The Institute for Government (2022 n.p) refers to the cost of living crisis as:

“The ‘cost of living crisis’ refers to the fall in ‘real’ disposable incomes (that is, adjusted for inflation and after taxes and benefits) that the UK has experienced since late 2021. It is being caused predominantly by high inflation outstripping wage and benefit increases and has been further exacerbated by recent tax increases.”

Neil and Webster (2022) state that the current cost of living crisis that we are experiencing in the UK is forcing people into poverty and creating inequalities. This fast-rising cost of living has forced teachers in England to take action, with union members voting for strike action overpay by a large majority of 90.44% (NEU, 2023). At time of writing, seven days of strike action are expected during the months of February and March. The NEU (2023 n.p) writes:

“The ballot is a result of failure by the Secretary of State in England and the employers in Wales to ensure enough money is available to pay a fully funded increase in pay for teachers which at least matches inflation, and which begins to restore lost pay.”

Sibieta (2023) writes that whilst The School Teachers' Review Body's (STRB) recommended pay rise of 5% was accepted by the government, this does not take into account the rate of

inflation, and therefore represents a pay cut and not a pay rise. Sibieta argues that this is a long-standing problem and that real terms pay has been falling since 2010. The NEU (2022) agrees. Kevin Courtney of the NEU states (Lough, 2022):

“With RPI inflation at 11.7% according to the latest figures, experienced teachers would see a bigger pay cut than the one inflicted by last year's pay freeze and even the increase to starting pay is below inflation so is a real-terms pay cut.”

We heard earlier from a teacher who was having to access universal credit as her salary was not able to support her and her family. These ‘pay cuts’ in real terms are now having a deep detrimental effect on teachers. A poll by the Independent Newspaper (Tidman, 2022), found that a third of primary school teachers are ‘struggling to buy food’ and teachers say that this is affecting their mental health and well-being.

The general feeling from the survey and interviews was that teachers would be prepared to cope with the demands of the job and the high workload if they were rewarded appropriately. This issue of the importance of financial reward for teachers was echoed by a government report led by the UK Office of Manpower Economics (2021), one of the key findings was that teacher pay was an important factor in teacher retention. Rewards come in different forms, and it was also mentioned by a participant that being valued as well as being paid better was important to them: “More sense of value. Better pay.” The code of better pay was mentioned 8 times by survey participants and better funding for education was mentioned twice.

Other issues that were mentioned briefly by interview participants was the fact that teachers did not receive any overtime pay as would be the case in other workplaces. Lee furthers the conversation by adding: “And yeah, when I was working in a business whoever I did overtime for was done at double pay. That is frustrating...”. Another concern raised by participants was that some teachers were having to pay for their own teacher training such as a PGCE or SCITT, thus adding to their financial woes prior to even securing work as a newly qualified teacher. Currently, bursaries and scholarships are only available for some subjects (largely STEM) and are attached to a wide range of eligibility criteria (getintoteaching, GOV, 2023c).

Given the serious implications of poor pay on teacher's mental health and on teacher retention, this is an area that needs to be addressed by the government before the recruitment and retention crisis deepens further.

The issue of funding for education also needs to be addressed. This issue crept into the thoughts of some survey participants: "The idea of a Mentor is a good one, but does not, and cannot, exist in current circumstances, staffing and funding." Another said: "Better funding for education which has a knock-on effect."

There was also one instance of concern where a teacher intimated that pay for funding was not being used appropriately: "Having a CEO who didn't sack people to give himself a pay rise."

6.2 Time

"What I struggle with... I mean, marking reports, parents' evenings, that's the worst. And actually... the emotional turbulence of having the most incredibly intense times."

Teacher working hours was voiced as a major concern for the participants of this study. It was referred to as unmanageable, never-ending, and seriously impeding on their work-life balance and on their mental health. This study found that overall additional hours worked contributed to an overwhelming sense of workload as did the lack of a reduced timetable. UK literature on the subject of the impact of workload on working hours is thin and mainly concentrated around strategies to reduce workload (Pearsall, 2018; McGill et al., 2017 etc) rather than studies looking at the origins and impact of workload on time. The issue of workload was investigated for the first time by the Department of Education in 2015, via a Workload Survey. Two such surveys have been published since.

Although the government's latest Teacher Workload Survey (2019c) showed a fall in working hours from the previous survey in 2016, teachers' working hours were still well above the expected level. These were reported as an average of 49.5 hours per week for teachers and middle leaders, primary teachers recorded an average of 50 hours, and secondary teachers recorded 49.1 respectively. This included an average of 12.8 hours

worked at weekends, out of school hours, and evenings. Lee scoffed at the idea of teachers being able to work within their contracted hours:

“Something's got to give because you know otherwise it's just too much, but I often say I suppose that the contract that we have as teachers must have been written on the back of a cigarette packet because like 37 and a half hours [working week] - it's just ludicrous. I don't know any teacher that does 37 and a half hours.”

The government's survey (DfE, 2019c) also reported that the majority of their respondents could not complete their work within the given time frame:

“Most respondents reported that they could not complete their workload within their contracted hours, that they did not have an acceptable workload, and that they did not achieve a good work-life balance.”

Worth et al., (2018, n.p) concluded that even with holiday time taken into consideration, teachers' working hours were far greater than other professions in the public sector:

“Teachers work as many hours as police officers each year, but in fewer weeks. Teachers work the longest hours at 50 hours per week during term time, followed by police officers (44) and nurses (39). Even after taking account of school holidays, full-time teachers still work the equivalent of 45 hours per week.”

This sentiment was equally present amongst my own participatory cohort, who expressed anguish at the hours worked and how they overlapped with their own personal time and holidays. One teacher from my study reported that she worked 10 and a half hours every day and in addition, had to perform boarding duties through the evening. Tammy shares with us:

“I work 8:00 until at least 6:30 every day. So with rehearsals and yeah, with my teaching. And then I do boarding duties. And actually, that is a lot of time. Mm hmm. A lot of time to be working really.”

Reduced Timetable

Despite its protected status, Teachers also reported that they were not receiving a reduced timetable which is a statutory requirement in local authority schools and is a requirement of the new ECT framework for all schools. When asked if participants received a reduced timetable or not, 55 respondents reported that they did not. That represents 35% of the teachers surveyed. Of these participants, 33 had already considered leaving teaching, a higher proportion, than the overall cohort. Some teachers, particularly those in practical subjects intimated that they were well over the maximum requirement for teaching contact hours. Tammy tells us: “I was actually teaching 120% timetable. And I'm sure that as an NQT I am meant to be on 90%.” Kat simply said: “I'm supposed to have a reduced timetable to do some personal development. I've not had that at all. At all.”

When asked what would be most helpful to them, a survey participant explained: “sticking to a reduced timetable to effectively manage planning, portfolio, essays, and observations.” Another said: “Release time being honoured.”

A further interview participant, Liana explained that whilst she had a few ‘free’ periods, she was often placed on the cover list, meaning that her reduced timetable was not protected at all:

“I have four frees a week, but a lot of those were actually cover as well. So I would kind of like not expect that I'm free, but then on the day in the morning you get the cover sheet. Yeah. A lot of the times I would be like where are my four frees?”

This data is at odds with what was found in the Teacher Workload Survey (2019c). The survey stated that senior leaders protected non-teaching time for teachers on an induction programme (p119):

“Senior leaders report that schools use a range of different strategies to try to manage and plan professional time, such as protecting blocks of non-teaching time and encouraging staff to work collaboratively to plan schemes of work.”

When Liana was asked why teachers are leaving the profession, the answer was clear:

Liana

"I think probably because of the amount of stress that they're experiencing during their careers."

Researcher

"And what is it that causes the stress, do you think?"

Liana

"Workload. Yeah. [pause] Unmanageable workload."

Researcher

"So the next question is... describe your work life balance."

Liana

"Work life balance. What is life?" [laughter]

Although this was delivered with humour, the underlying message is of concern as it suggests that the balance of work-life is highly weighted down by the aspect of work. The suggestion that teacher workload, also contributes to stress and teachers leaving the profession was a finding that was echoed by Tammy who spoke of the stress caused by excessive work: "It's so turbulent, you're so stressed, and you've got SO (emphasised) much work... you don't get time off in teaching, you just go go go."

These findings are consistent with those of the government's Teacher Workload Surveys. There was also a mention of working out of office hours through lunchtime in this study. Lee intimated: "I don't have a lunchtime... I just mark every single lunchtime, every single day. And that's sort of antisocial in itself because I just sit in my classroom all day."

This suggests that the participant is isolated,; missing out on lunch breaks is arguably unhealthy and can impact well-being.

The workload was referred to by participants as 'gruelling' and 'thankless'. One interview participant commented that she had worked at both private and state schools and that both brought different workload challenges to the fore. Workload also was reported as being never-ending:

“I mean, our responsibilities are outrageous, and they don't ever seem to plateau and stay the same because you feel like you're on top of everything, but then they introduce something else for you to do.” (Tammy)

Another similar response was noted from a survey participant:

“It constantly feels that there is always more to do. The goal posts are constantly moving so you will never get to the finish line for one thing, and then a new task/area for improvement crops up as well.”

Teachers also explained that they worked through their holidays.

“Yeah. I think you've got to. I think if you want to stay on top of things, if you want to make sure that they're [students] getting the feedback to the quality that they need and the time scale that they need, but also to what is expected of you. It's really difficult to stay on top of everything, especially if you do a subject that is heavy in extracurricular.” (Tammy)

Another way that teacher's working hours permeated into teacher's home lives was by interfering with the time they had to build relationships with others. One interview participant, Liana reported that she had split up with her partner during her teacher training year, but that actually, it was for the best, as (currently in her induction year), the teaching and workload commitment meant that she didn't have time for relationships.

“After I started teacher training, like in November, I broke up with my boyfriend at the time and since then I've been single. So that's great for me [laughter] No time for anyone. You know, it's nice to be with somebody every now and again. But I just don't have the time.”

Another survey participant simplified their needs as: “Less workload and a better work-life balance.” This sentiment was found to be a thread throughout the study and contributes to the reason why new teachers leave the profession. One particular survey respondent stated:

“Being told from the start that you will not be the teacher you hoped you'd be as there are twice as many demands on your personal time as your university prepare you for. You won't be the mother you were either, as you'll be spending all your time

planning, marking and researching. We should be told what it's really like and not given a sanitised version. I've left teaching now, without completing my NQT year."

This is yet another example of teaching affecting personal time- home life and relationships.

6.3 Resources

Teacher Training and Resources

Teachers were asked to rate their satisfaction according to a Likert scale where 5 is the highest rate of satisfaction and 1 is the lowest.

How do you rate your ECT experience so far?

	N	%
1	6	3.8%
2	10	6.4%
3	27	17.2%
4	71	45.2%
5	42	26.8%
Did not answer	1	0.6%

The majority of teachers rated their induction experience as either Good (4) or Excellent (5). There were however 16 teachers who were either extremely dissatisfied or dissatisfied with their experience, totalling 10.2% of the cohort – the figure for those rating their experience as average or below average is much larger, 43 participants and 27.4% of respondents. This is significant as the number of newly qualified teachers entering the profession has decreased year upon year since 2016 and the percentage of teachers still in service after their first year of qualifying has also been on the decrease since 2011. In line with this, my research asked participants if they had considered leaving teaching. Almost half of the respondents replied that they had. Out of the four interviewees, one has already left teaching (Tammy – change of career) and one other (Lee) has considered teaching abroad (Lee). I was not able to get back in touch with Liana at the end of her induction period. As the contact email that I had for her was a work email address, it is possible that

Liana could have left her current workplace too. Kat was still working in her current school after induction.

Have you thought about leaving teaching?

	N	%
No	82	51.9%
Yes	76	48.1%

When probed further and asked why they felt that way, the following sub codes emerged:

They have been divided into positive and negative reflections.

Positive	
<i>Code</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Support from mentors and colleagues	60
Altruism	14
Preparedness	9
Good training	6
Freedoms	4
Negative	
<i>Code</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Lack of Resources	25
Lack of support from mentors and colleagues	21
Performativity	14

Of those participants who were satisfied with their experience, 60 cited supportive colleagues or supportive mentors as a leading factor in their satisfaction. The ‘love’ of the job and other altruistic factors also featured highly. Examples include: “it allows me to shape the future” and “I enjoy helping children”. Other positive responses relate to being well prepared for the role, due to previous training; preparedness (9) and, good training (6). 4

teachers also spoke of the new freedom and responsibility that they now experience as a positive contributor to their overall experience.

Conversely, negative experiences largely associated with lack of resources (25), the vast majority of teachers complained about 'time' pressures in a job with high workload and lack of dedicated time to learn: "Not enough time to reflect and limited time from mentor." One participant even referred to themselves as "cheap labour". Other areas of dissatisfaction included lack of support from colleagues and lack of mentoring support (21) and, a negative relationship with performativity such as the stress of "excessive observations" and mentors only interested in "box ticking" (14). Other observations included:

"My mentor just comes into my classroom unannounced, and it often feels like an observation, which provoked unnecessary stress. I also rarely have a TA, which makes targeted teaching and focus grouping almost impossible!"

The 2-year induction period

When interview participants were asked about the 2-year induction period, none of the interview participants were keen on the extension of the induction year from one to two years. Survey participants were also asked if they would welcome a two-year induction period and a substantial majority (66.2%) answered 'no'. Those participants who were interviewed elaborated that a two-year induction would be of little value to them as it seemed repetitive and perfunctory. Some participants who were interviewed earlier, were not even aware of the new plans.

One survey respondent shared that the new Early Career Framework was adding to the workload of teachers. One can surmise therefore an additional year of induction would simply add to the burdens of the new teachers:

"I am a part of a local ECT group and at our last meeting, the other 4 second-year ECTs all passionately agreed that it is excruciatingly burdensome and a waste of time."

Most fundamentally, it repeats what we already know and covered ad nauseum on the PGCE; so for this reason it can't be passed off as useful consolidation of our knowledge."

This echoed the thoughts of other participants who argued that the programme was already repetitious at one year. Lee suggested that it would hinder career progression and hold talented new teachers back:

"I think it'd be completely pointless, because I feel like it would be more of a hindrance. In a sense, if you're coming into teaching later, like I am, then it's another two years, no sorry, an additional year, where you can't climb that ladder of progression. So if you're a really competent member of staff, you're kind of being held back in that sense."

As a means of supporting new teachers, The Early Career Framework Reform (2019b) extended the induction period for new teachers from one year to two years, this came into force in September 2021 with the early roll out of the new framework taking place in September 2020. However, analysis of the details of the government consultation reveals that the decision to extend the induction was not based on the responses received by that same consultation. It also showed that the participants were largely non NQTs. The Early Career Framework Reform was based on a Consultation that received 1,932 responses. Of these only 196 came from early career teachers (formerly known as NQTs).

Professional	Total
Secondary Teacher (Not NQT)	427
Other (Deputy/Assistant Head, Head of Department, retired teacher, etc.)	351
Primary Teacher (Not NQT)	298
Headteacher/Executive Headteacher/Principal	242
Newly Qualified Teacher (NQT)	196
Trainee Teacher	160
Initial Teacher Training (ITT) Representative	136

Sector Professional/Academic	85
Local Authority Representative	56
Not answered	32

During the government consultation, when asked directly if the induction period should be extended to two years, 39.74% of all respondents answered ‘yes’, 8.15% answered ‘another amount of time’, 47.63% were in favour of keeping it at one year, and 4.48% did not know. Less than 40% of the respondents reported that they would welcome a two-year induction which suggests that the respondents’ views were overlooked.

Regardless of whether or not teachers experience a one or two year programme, the question of support remains an issue. When asked directly, if teachers received enough support, the majority answered “yes” (103), 52 answered “no” and 3 chose not to answer.

Do you think that you receive enough support in your NQT year?

	N	%
No	52	32.9%
Yes	103	65.2%

When teachers were asked what would make their experience better, the responses were varied and ranged from subject specific support to observing others. Interestingly, the answers were marked more by what they wanted to remove from their current training programme (performative aspects) as opposed to what they wanted to add to it. Although many codes featured, below are some aspects of interest that feed directly into the three themes of Performativity, Mentoring, and Resources.

One particular free text answer, encapsulated the general feeling:

“For the government to recognise that the profession cannot sustain ongoing assessment requirements and budget cuts. I spend so much of my own money on school resources and work many, many extra hours. Ongoing support for mental health and well being. A mentor who recognises that even when someone is doing

well and coping they still need help and support to cope with the challenges of the role.”

Code	Frequency
Less observation	4
More observations	2
Observing others	9
Better observations	1
Observation- additional time	2
Trust	1
Less Paperwork/Portfolio	12
No Tick Box Exercise	6
Less Ofsted	2
More mentoring	19
Less Mentoring	1
Better Mentoring	12
Subject Specific Support	17
Support with Planning	20
External Training	3
External Network	2
Lack of reduced timetable	3
Further reduced timetable needed	5
Less contact time (teaching)	4
Lack of time- workload issues	15
Better pay	8
More funding for education	2
Help with Student Assessment	9
Help with Behaviour Management	8

The vast array of answers suggests that teachers would benefit from a personalised induction approach and not a homogenous induction diet. As the government continues to seek different routes into teacher recruitment and continues to change statutory guidance concerning teachers, we have an ever-changing cohort of new teachers, with ever changing needs. Since each new teacher enters their induction training at a starting point unique to them, we should be looking at giving them a training programme that is also unique to them and their needs.

This approach is consistent with Rousseau’s beliefs that mentees ought to be given what they need: “One must aid them and supplement what is lacking to them” (Rousseau, 1979,

p.64). In addition, Rousseau tells us that the decision as to what the mentee learns should be the mentees decision only: “You should be well aware that it is rarely up to you to suggest what he should learn. It is up to him to desire it, seek it, to find it. (Rousseau, 1979, p.179). One participant specifically referred to personalised support and suggested that a uniform approach was not of use: “Support tailored to my year group and way of teaching. I teach Y1 and most NQT support info was for whole of primary which I often did not find useful.” The request for more personalised support was commonplace amongst the respondents: “More targeted support from my subject mentor.” Was a frequent remark. Some alluded to the fact that not all knowledge was explicit, suggesting perhaps a need for an initial knowledge audit. This would also effectively cover the discrepancies that have been noted about the multiple routes in to teaching via the Initial Teacher Training programmes. The participant said: “No assumptions made about what is and isn't already known by us as an NQT. I feel like there are some things I haven't been told but then expected to know.” A further participant referred to the genericism of the induction training and suggested that a university style approach, that teetered on the autodidactic could be of some interest:

“The sessions were so generic to all subjects that not a lot of guidance was given. I would have almost preferred a more university style approach where they give you a text to read to then try out and discuss.”

There were however some areas of agreement. And this was also noted in the ranking order of the training tools task, which uncovered that the top three desired training tools were reduced timetable, observing others, and mentoring.

Ranking	Training tool	Mean
1	Reduced Timetable	4.28
2	Observing Others	4.04
3	Mentoring	3.91

Reduced timetable or a further reduced timetable was mentioned frequently, as was the general umbrella term for 'more support'. Other than that, the sub theme of wanting to observe others was strong amongst this group of participants.

Observing Others

The majority of participants were keen to observe other teachers more, particularly those who had more experience in teaching. One survey respondent echoed the autodidactic approach by saying that they wanted: "More team teaching and observing others. I learn more by seeing and experiencing rather than being told."

Rousseau's thoughts are aligned with this participant – he speaks of the wonder of observation of one's surroundings and how lessons are there to be discovered slowly over time and are not there to be taught: "Teach your scholar to observe the phenomena of nature; you will soon rouse his curiosity, but if you would have it grow, do not be in too great a hurry to satisfy this curiosity. (Rousseau, 1979, p.91)

Observing others was also a hugely popular request with participants. This is interesting as it confirms that this is something desired yet the earlier data shows that it is not always something that is part of their current induction programme. 44 participants stated that they had never had the opportunity to observe others. This was a real pity as it featured second in the overall rankings of popularity with a mean score of 4.04 out of 5. Respondents expressed the view that they would like to observe others more and this was a popular view. This was apparent even in free text unprompted answers. One survey participant said: "Being able to observe other teachers during term time." Others mainly suggested that more opportunities needed to be made available. Another survey participant told us that they would welcome more time team teaching and observing others.

One teacher stated: "I learn more by seeing and experiencing, rather than being told." This idea specifically ties in with Rousseau's autodidactic approach to learning: "Let him know it, learn it, feel it." (Rousseau, 1979, p.91).

Tammy talked in detail about observing others and how teachers should be matched with other teachers who have similar teaching styles:

“If I was looking at this stuff [observing others], and I felt this when I did lesson observations too in both my ITT and NQT, I really, really went out of my way to try and find somebody that had the same teaching style as me. Because, again, how much can you learn from going and sitting and watching someone who's really like a completely different personality? And I said this very recently to someone who's really struggling with their ITT, and in the end, they didn't even finish it... And they said [to me]: ‘Can I observe you? I'm just really scared of the children. And I'm quite quiet.’ And I said, I'm the worst person to come and observe. I rely so much on being loud, and just kind of getting them up and doing fun things... go and find this lovely art teacher who's very quiet, and very calm. And they adore her... I said, that was the person you need to be observing because she can teach you within your own style.”

This was an interesting comment because it tied back to Hopwood and Bradbury's (2021) ideas about matching teachers according to their personalities. Although arguably, it should be possible to learn from observing any personality type. Potentially, this teacher reached out to her fellow early career teachers because she wanted to see something different. I would argue that who the new teacher wants to observe should be a decision made by the new teacher. Rousseau tells us that: “You should be well aware that it is rarely up to you to suggest to him what he should learn. It is up to him to desire it, seek it, to find it.” (Rousseau, 1979, p.179). This wends its way back to the overarching theme of autodidacticism with the teacher at the heart of the learning process, and the driving force behind how and what is learned.

Although freedom in the learning process was important to the teachers, the main findings that this theme uncovered were that teachers needed both time and money to be satisfied in their roles. By allowing teachers freedom in their work and in the learning process, this could impact positively on reducing workload, and would be an immediate solution to their needs. Financial reward and funding for education is an area that needs to be addressed by the government. Below is a summation of the findings:

Resources	
Money	
Survey and Interview Data	Rousseau
Teachers see teaching as a vocation but one which warrants better pay.	Rousseau sees teaching as the most noble of professions and callings.
Teachers compared their work to slave labour.	
The cost-of-living crisis is having a sizeable impact on teachers' lives.	
Teachers are concerned about the impact of underfunding in schools.	
Workload	
Survey and Interview Data	Rousseau
Teachers are experiencing high levels of stress.	Mentees should be given the freedom to choose what they do and how they work.
Teachers are working far more than their allocating hours. They work through lunchtimes, evenings, weekends, and holidays.	This will be liberating and therefore increase levels of satisfaction.
Many teachers are not receiving a reduced timetable.	
Teachers are not keen on the extension to a 2-year induction period.	
Training Resources	
Survey and Interview Data	Rousseau
Reduced timetable, observing others, and mentoring were the training tools that teachers valued the most.	Rousseau tells us that we need to supplement the needs of the mentee.

Teachers wanted to observe more teaching.	Rousseau advocates learning through observation.
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Chapter 7 – Conclusion

"Experience anticipates lessons." (Rousseau, 1979, p.62)

This chapter will bring the three themes together, summarising the findings and explaining how they connect to Émilian Autodidacticism. It will then make suggestions and recommendations for future research and practice. Following on from this there will be a reflection on the challenges of the PhD and an overview of lessons learned..

7.1 A summary of the findings

7.2 Emilian Autodidacticism

7.3 Recommendations

7.4 Reflections

Whilst typically conclusions are meant to simply answer research questions (Creswell, 2017) this conclusion is unconventional as it also includes reflections. In a way this is befitting of Rousseau, whose iconoclastic rebellious approach extends to my own thesis. I began this thesis citing Maxwell's (2013) theory on aims. Maxwell (2013) refers to aims as goals: personal, intellectual and practical. These aims, although still in motion, have been met and in some ways, the research has exceeded my expectations, although not in the way that I had imagined. The exploration of teacher induction needs has led to a thesis that can inform both researchers and decision makers; and explaining, informing, and improving understanding is one of the fundamental aims of educational research (Opie, 2004). The findings further supplement the research that is already available on this subject and fills in gaps where it is found to be lacking – this is most evident in the context of the autodidactic led approach and in the smaller details of areas such as the bureaucratic elements of evidence collecting, observing others, reduced timetable discrepancies, and pay concerns etc. The research also led to the creation of new terminology: Émilian Autodidacticism. Furthermore, the process encouraged my exploration of thought and difficult lessons were learned throughout the process both about myself and my research.

7.1 A summary of the findings

A reminder of the research questions:

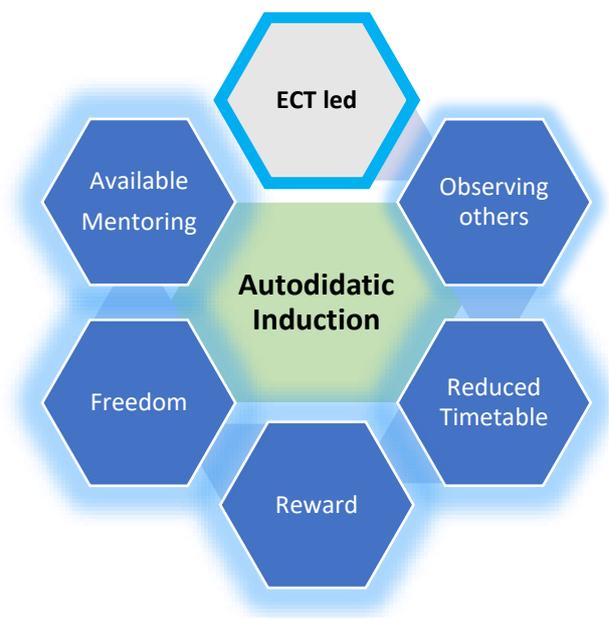
1. What do newly qualified teachers need to support them in their induction?

A summary of the key findings linked to this research question can be found below.

2. Would an Émilien autodidactic approach be of interest to newly qualified teachers.

Yes, but due to the limitations of the data, further research is needed to explore this idea and explore the approach in practice.

Figure 23: graphical representation of the findings. A summary of the key findings can be represented graphically as:



Freedom

The findings supported the idea of an informal autodidactic induction, far removed from the current approach that focuses on the formalities of bureaucratic paperwork and performative assessment. Teachers found the performative aspect of the induction

programme constraining and of little value. Teachers wanted a programme that allowed them the freedom of choice in their learning experiences. These freedoms would allow for them to have a personalised induction programme that is tailored to their own individual needs. In education we practise the pedagogy of adaptive teaching (Westwood, 2018). We recognise that no two students are the same, and that therefore the way that we teach needs to adapt to individual needs.

“Researchers recognize adaptive teaching as a component of effective instruction. Educators adjust their teaching according to the social, linguistic, cultural, and instructional needs of their students.” (Parsons et al., 2018, p.1)

Training teachers is no different. Their learning should also be adapted to suit their learning needs and learning styles, and this will in turn accelerate and support better learning outcomes. Squires (2019, p.9) tells us that: “The needs of early career teachers are myriad and complex.” Acknowledging that each new teacher has varied needs, and that each workplace has a unique culture that represents them, means recognising that a one size fits all national programme is not suitable for the needs of an individual teacher embarking on their induction journey. Generic training resources, such as those available via the new Early Career Framework are therefore not fit for purpose. As educators do not create generic resources for their students, why would a generic programme be suitable for our teachers who are also learners, albeit in a different context.

Cowley (2018, p.1) defines differentiation as “using different approaches with our learners, so that they can make the maximum progress in their learning”. In the same vein, if we are to maximise the learning potential of our newly qualified teachers, we need to empower them with the ability to lead and design their own programme. Doing this would give them the choice to learn in the way that they feel is best suited to them, it would also give them the opportunity to bypass any areas of the induction programme that they find to be perfunctory and time consuming.

This study found that paperwork and collecting evidence for the teacher’s standards and/or the evidence folder were two elements of the induction programme that the teachers

wished to remove. These formalities are unnecessary and add to the stress and workload that teachers experience. By removing these formal bureaucratic elements, this would impact positively on work life balance for teachers and their mentors and tutors, and consequently could improve well-being, potentially having a positive impact on retention rates. Removing unnecessary bureaucratic paperwork would also free up the time that newly qualified teachers and their mentors need. It would create a more informal non performative environment for learning, which would empower our new teachers.

Reduced Timetable

Many of the issues found in this study relate specifically to time issues – lack of time was a major concern. This study provides some initial evidence to claim that many teachers are not receiving the statutory reduced timetable. The reduced timetable was originally designed to allow teachers time to fulfil their induction and to give them the space needed to learn and cope in the new role and setting (DfE, 2019a), if they are not receiving this allocated time, this presents a direct threat to their learning, workload, and wellbeing. Reduced timetables need to be protected. Furthermore, there is an argument to suggest that mentors should also receive a reduction in their timetable to allow them the time needed to fulfil their mentoring duties effectively. Shanks et al.'s (2022 p.1) study echoed these findings and discovered that time for both mentor and mentee was of significant importance: “based on our findings we propose that both mentors and NQTs need time away from their teaching commitments to devote to their mentoring relationship.” Participants in my study agreed that the mentoring relationship was key, suggesting that this ought to be nurtured, and more value assigned to developing the mentor/mentee relationship.

Available Mentoring

Another time related issue was that teachers were concerned that their mentors did not have enough time to support them adequately. There is currently no incentive for mentors

to take on the important role of mentoring early career teachers, no pay incentive, and little time release incentive. This again draws our attention to the importance of considering a reduced timetable for both mentor and new teacher and assurances that this time would be protected for both parties. Although a recent update from the Department for Education (DfE, 2023a) now suggests that mentors should be allocated 36 hours of time over the period of two years. This allocation does not cover the time needed for weekly meetings in the first year of the induction programme. This study suggests that weekly meetings with the mentee are beneficial and therefore, 78 hours release time for mentors over the two-year period, should be the bare minimum offered.

Additional pay for mentoring is currently being trialled by the government and research is being undertaken in this area by the NFER (2023). This could be a welcome incentive for mentors. This study found that teachers wanted mentors to be rewarded appropriately for undertaking the role of mentor. Mentoring was seen as an important induction resource by the teachers who participated in this study. Mentors should be available and consistent in their approach. The study discovered that mentors should be a good match for the early career teachers, both in subject specialism and in personality. This tied in with the findings of Hopwood and Bradbury's study on mentoring (2020) which suggests that careful thought must go into matching mentor and mentee together and that the forging of this relationship is key to the success of the mentee.

Observing Others

The area of training that teachers wanted the most of was to observe others. This resource was at the top of the teachers' needs' list, yet this resource was not offered at all in some schools and was one of the resources least offered in the majority of schools. Autodidacticism promotes the benefits of learning from observation above all other forms of learning. This training tool should be offered regularly to all early career teachers. It would allow them to learn about different teaching styles and approaches and help guide

and inform their learning and understanding of teaching, potentially uncovering areas of needs that they would like to focus on.

In terms of the observation of newly qualified teachers themselves, overall, the teachers were happy with being observed as long as there was a purpose to the observation. There was no suggestion that removing observation would be of benefit to the new teacher. However, removing the paperwork and formality that is associated with the observation of teachers, would be of benefit. This however changed with age. The older the newly qualified teacher, the less satisfied they were with lesson observations. A direct link was also noted with Ofsted rating – the higher the Ofsted rating the more satisfied teachers were with lesson observations.

Reward

It was found that pay was a significant concern for participants in this study. Adequate pay would help retain teachers in the profession (UK Office of Manpower Economics, 2021) and therefore it is vital that decision makers take this aspect seriously. Teachers expressed that they would be happier dealing with the high workloads, long hours, and demands of the job if they were remunerated appropriately. Mentoring should be viewed as an ‘additional teaching and learning responsibility’ (TLR) and should also be remunerated appropriately as is the case for all other TLRs.

Émilian Autodidacticism

In the performativity chapter we saw how performative measures which are the antithesis of autodidacticism can be harmful to newly qualified teachers and we noted how important freedom is to them in their work and how important it is to Rousseau. This is best encapsulated by the quote "...the only one (instrument) that can succeed: well regulated freedom." (Rousseau, 1979, p.92).

In the resources chapter we found out that teachers wanted to observe others more often, observation and learning from one's environment is one of the key learning principles of autodidacticism: "Let him know it learn it feel it." (Rousseau, 1979, p.91)

In the mentoring chapter we discovered that teachers participating in induction need a mentor to be present and available. They do not want to complete induction on their own, but they do want to complete it in their own way. This ties in with Rousseau's philosophy on mentoring, where the mentor is the guide and not the leader: "To feed his curiosity, never hurry to satisfy it. Put the questions within his reach and leave them to him to resolve." (Rousseau, 1979, p.168).

When interview participants were asked if an autodidactic induction programme would be of benefit, they agreed that it would.

7.3 Recommendations

In the spirit of Rousseau's maxims, this thesis presents its own Maxims in relation to the needs of newly qualified teachers. They are as follows:

1. Let the NQT lead.
2. Provide the NQT with freedom.
3. Give the NQT and Mentor time together.
4. Allow the NQT to observe.
5. Reward the NQT and Mentor.
6. Protect the Reduced Timetable.

This study has identified that an autodidactic induction approach would be of value to new teachers. A further study could assess the long-term benefits of such an induction by comparing outcomes of a control group against an experimental group. More broadly, further research is needed to assess the benefits of an autodidactic approach.

Further research should also focus on determining how many teachers receive the required reduced timetable, a large-scale study would be beneficial in clarifying this, and solutions need to be made at policy level to look at ways in which this time can be properly protected.

In the future it will be important to assess the potential benefits of a substantial pay increase for early career teachers, and other financial rewards and benefits regardless of specialism. Future studies should also explore the impact of shifting the balance from teachers being observed to observing others more. It would be interesting to learn more about why older teachers are less satisfied with lesson observations than young people, and this could be a new area of exploration.

Part of the issue for newly qualified teachers is the ever changing political, social, cultural, and financial landscapes that shape their work environments. Jordan (2016, p.2) states:

“Teachers must serve the values, needs, and constraints of local systems, as well as their own sense of curriculum coherence — yet the results of their decisions are never completely predictable. Rather, the effects of any action are dependent on others, including policy-makers, administrators, parents, students, and other teachers. Social and political fluctuations also create shifting educational trajectories to which teachers must respond. There is a need then to help beginning teachers develop adaptive expertise, linking efficiency with innovation to meet these complexities.”

I believe that autodidacticism is the innovative approach needed for new teachers. It creates independent, adaptive individuals, that can respond easily to changing environments and even learn from them.

What is certain is that greater emphasis needs to be placed on the needs of teachers participating in an induction programme and the only way that this is achievable is to listen to their voices and concerns. A key policy priority for the government should be to bring back the return of an newly qualified teacher survey (now an ECT survey), which should

focus on teachers needs, and less on their routes into teaching. There should be ample space for open text answers so that their thoughts are not guided by questions but allows for them to decide (autodidactically) for themselves what is of importance. In addition to this, I would also recommend that an NQT (ECT) led focus group be formed, charged with the necessary powers to have access to inform policy makers.

Although listening and reporting is helpful, policy makers need to act. I will leave you with this final thought: "...and remember that in everything your lessons ought to be more in actions than in speeches. (Rousseau, 1979, p.100)

7.4 Reflections

"Without reflection, we go blindly on our own way, creating more unintended consequences, and failing to achieve anything useful." (Wheatley, 2002 cited in Bassot, 2016 p.1)

Reflective practice has the ability to create knowledge (Tovey and Archibald, 2023). It is a tool that is often used in education with teachers and students reaching for popular reflective models such as Kolb's (1984) experiential learning model. It is an important part of the learning process – Taggart and Wilson (2005) suggest that the learning doesn't happen because of the experience, but only through reflecting on the experience. It is because of this that I felt it was important to reflect on the PhD experience and discuss the ideas that emerged from this process. This process itself helped me arrange my thoughts and assisted my learning experience.

Completing a PhD was an exercise that was filled with massive highs and massive lows and very little in between. It was a task of endurance and determination, and rather appropriately, one of autodidacticism. There were no taught sessions, no didactic teachings, no forced decision making; and I was fortunate to work with supervisors that trusted me and afforded me with the same freedoms that I would hope for any PhD student and equally any newly qualified teacher. These freedoms come at the cost of time that

needs to be invested in the process of learning. Epistemological understanding is gained at another cost of time. This for me pointed towards a process heavily steeped in reading and acquiring knowledge. Although Rousseau famously said: "I hate books; they only teach us to talk about things we know nothing about." (Rousseau, 1979 p.207), I have personally learned a great deal from books, and this includes Rousseau's own.

However, initially I admit that I was sceptical about spending a large proportion of my doctoral time reading and researching. Naively the lure of the excitement of data collection seemed too enticing and what I really wanted to do was to put my books down and pursue this instead. Reflecting back on this now, without the reading, effective data collection could not even have taken place. I soon discovered that reading was an integral part of the process and that this was also a self-directed autodidactic method of learning. I discovered that the choices that I made and the decisions that followed on from this, although guided by prior research were firmly set by me, and this became palatable and stimulating.

Reading providing me with all the tools I needed, it helped shape my understanding and it helped shape the process of the research (Ravitch and Riggan, 2016). This process of researching literature was a valuable autodidactic experience that should also be afforded to new teachers to help them explore their teaching interests and gain further knowledge in their specialism but also their pedagogy.

Reading not only guided my methods and methodology, but it also helped me find my own personal writing style and gave me the confidence to use it.

Weatherall (2019 p.102) questions if there is a need for writing conventions for doctoral submissions. She talks about writers as individuals that "...refract multiple aspects of our identities and our intellectual and political commitments. How we write is just as important as what we write." Parker (2014) suggests that the writing style of a PhD is rarely discussed. Why therefore is there an assumption that a set of rules exist that govern the way doctoral theses are expected to be written and that there is only one legitimate approach? My own

University 'research degree submission requirements' guide, has no mention of expected writing conventions or requirements of a specific writing style. The turning point in my thinking came through reading the work of Braun and Clarke and Ravitch and Riggan. These writers, although academic, have arguably a personal writing style that differs from the expected norm. Rousseau's iconoclastic nature is also evident in his writing style. Scott (2012) comments on the personal and direct nature of Rousseau's writing style in *Émile*. His writing was unusual for the time, but captured the public's attention, not only because of the content, but because of the peculiarity of his direct address. This personal, first-person approach is also evident in Rousseau's work, *The Confessions* (Rousseau, 1953), which could arguably be called the very first celebrity autobiography.

It is because of this that I made the choice to write in more of a personal manner, at times in first person, whilst still (I hope) maintaining the standards expected at doctoral level. It is also a way in which the lens of Rousseau fully permeates my own work, not just through the use of his philosophy and theory, but also through the influence of his written word.

a) Appendices

Glossary of Terms and Acronyms

ASCL	Association of College Lecturers
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
DDTA	Data Driven Thematic Analysis
DFE	Department for Education
ECF	Early Career Framework
ECT	Early Career Teacher
INSET	In service education of teachers
NEU	National Education Union
NFER	National Foundation for Educational Research
NQT	Newly Qualified Teacher
Ofsted	Office for Standards in Education
PGCE	Post Graduate Certificate in Education
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status
RTA	Reflexive Thematic Analysis
TA	Thematic Analysis

Examples of Transcriptions – initial noticings

Researcher

So what do you understand by the term needs?

Lee

What do I need in relation to teaching?

Researcher

Yeah. I guess in relation to well, actually in relation to anything related to teaching. You can answer this in any way you want to.

Lee

Well, my first thought when you said needs was the needs of pupils or students. So support whether that's within their learning... so needs is a learning style or perhaps a level of attainment. Yeah, sort of a measure of what they require to learn so they can thrive within the classroom. *assessment*

philanthropic

putting student needs first

Researcher

You didn't think about your own needs as a teacher?

Lee

Yeah. No. If I was to answer that, I'd need a lot of time. I don't even know where to start with that to be quite honest with you.

Researcher

Can you think of maybe three things that are most important in terms of teacher needs.

Lee

For me as a teacher... what I need? Okay. *hasn't considered this!*

from mentor?

It's probably the most I've thought in about two months! The word circling in my head is support. I would say I need support. But then it's kind of contradictory to what I've said previously. So some support, but like some kind of validation of what I'm doing. Just to make sure that I'm going in the right direction. I think that's what I often want to hear - that I'm doing the right thing. So I'd say that's a need. Also, being free. I think freedom too. Which I've been very fortunate to have this year as they just give me the freedom to grow. And then the third one I'd say is a good relationship with the pupils. Definitely... definitely relationships with the kids. I'm teaching because that's kind of everything.

autonomy

relationships

Researcher

That's fascinating. So validation, freedom, and good relationships with pupils. How about relationships with staff... is that important?

Lee

In my current context, like this is weird this year. So I went off and was really stressed in the summer, after the first like year of teaching. I was really wired. And with that level of

worklife / stress?

Researcher

What about the rest of the quality of the training?

Liana

So at the start we would have meetings with all the NQTs and somebody from the senior leadership team who would kind of like lead different sessions or school policies, you know, to do with the behaviour policy, marking, the whole school kind of thing. Yeah. And that was good because, you know, it's, it's so different. In every school, it's just nice to sort of be in that same room with other people who are experiencing this exact same thing and they can just learn from each other as well. So I found those were good, but again, they would be quite quick, you know, just a lunch time. Grab your lunch, come in. Let's have a chat, quite informal and quick.

General training sessions

networks

Researcher

So you said that at the beginning you had that. Does that mean that it stopped?

Liana

Yes. It was just until Christmas. And we had some observations. The first time, I had one observation by an SLT (senior leadership team) member and I had a couple from my head of department and my mentor as well. So I think in total I had about six for the whole year.

obs

Researcher

Okay. So that's, that's less than normal... How did you feel about that?

Liana

Well, I would have liked to have more. And I'm sure that towards the end of the year there was an opportunity, like an open-door policy that kind of thing. An email got sent around and they said that we were going to be a part of it. And I think only two teachers came in the whole week and I was like, actually, they can come in and any time yeah, I don't mind, I just want any feedback and that will be really helpful and you know, even if it's for five minutes at the start of the lesson and yeah they only came in two times. So I think again it's down to time because I think I also only went to see two or three teachers myself. So I couldn't, you know, pop into other lessons. So I guess, it all comes down to managing your time and making sure that you're not there for 12 hours.

more observations - learning walks.

time issues

workload / observing others - hours why? / time?

Researcher

Did you find the feedback helpful?

Yeah. And it was so helpful to hear feedback, but it was almost like you get the feedback and you move on... so you don't really get that much of a chance to act on it and to change things. I just felt during my teacher training, it was kind of like a full circle and it felt really like there was a point to it. Whereas my own NQT year, it was a bit like a box ticking kind of exercise where we've got to do it. You've got to do it. Give me a date. You fill in your form and I'll fill in my form (laughs).

opinion

beaurocracy.

Researcher

Tell me about the quality of training that you've had so far.

Tammy

I felt really grateful to be given the opportunity because I didn't actually apply to be a teacher. I applied for a different job at the school, as a director resident. I had to teach a lesson as part of my interview. And they said, look, how about we make you a full-time position with teaching hours and put you through your teacher training. So I thought... Oh, okay. I'll try it. So I'm grateful to go through it and I would really really recommend doing it on the job with a school paying you instead of having to pay out for a PGCE. (Discusses ITT)

Researcher

How about what you like about your NQT training...what you're getting now?

Tammy

Um.. I mean... It's a hard one. I think right now it's... I'm not sure how much I'm getting out of it. If I'm being completely honest. It feels a bit too tick boxy rather than actually helping me very much.

needs something different? → bureaucratic elements

Researcher

If you were going to run an NQT induction course, for example. And you were actually put in charge of it. What would you change? What would you add to it?

Tammy

Well... what would I change what would I change. [long pause]

performance

It's just they give you.. from my point of view, they give you things to do which aren't always necessarily that helpful. So they say you have to set this many targets so that you have to set a target on your ADP (Academic Development Plan). And I'm thinking, oh, my goodness, I'm just not really sure what I need to do right now. And instead of allowing me the time to work it out. And that's a bit difficult. And then with the ones I set to begin with, it's actually my mentor who pretty much set them for me, but I'm not really sure that I agree with them sometimes. And it's like he doesn't really know what I'm up to. Yeah, he doesn't really know what I'm doing. And so he said, Hey, you need to get better at that area of marking the GCSE. And then I spent a year of doing so much coursework marking you know... and I was quite neurotic about it but I came out of it and thought, okay. I actually feel really experienced in that. But he keeps going on about it. He keeps on saying you need to improve your GCSE marking. Actually, I feel like. Huh? know what I'm doing now. (long pause)

time + autonomy

disagreements

self awareness

the mentor's actual practice

personalisation

I think it's a case of just trying to make it slightly more individualised, trying to make it so it's not...[pauses] because I don't think one size fits all. So try to make it so that people feel like they are getting something out of it and they are in charge of getting something out of it. So I know that there have to still be kind of milestones, but I wonder if the milestones could be slightly more personalised for you and you get to be involved in doing that. So it's like actually right now I'm not sure what my target is. So what I'd rather do is organise a lesson observation and then I'll come back to you with a target from that."

autonomy

Researcher

And do you have a mentor then that you can go to for support?

Kat

I have a mentor, but she's also the year five teacher, so she can't come and see my lessons, or kind of support me as such.

Kat

So you don't have any regular meetings?

Kat

We don't at all... we're trying. But it's not good enough, because it's not happening.

Researcher

So what would you ideally want from a mentor?

Kat

So from a mentor I would like a one to one meeting at least once a week. And I'd like a... (thoughtful pause) no, that's pushing it... but I'd like an observation every two weeks or once every week, just to see me in different subjects just to see if I'm actually, you know, hitting my targets and that I want to make sure that, you know, the learning is being done, and that the tasks are being done. I would like feedback though and support in English, because I know that I struggle with English, English is the one thing that I struggle with the most. And I have made that very apparent to all the staff and my mentor. And that's where I struggle, whereas maths, I can just fly through. And I know exactly where I'm going with it. And English, it's just the whole school strategies - I just don't understand them, I've never had any training on them.

Researcher

What I find really interesting is that, despite the fact that you haven't had as much support as you've wanted, or needed, you have an idea of what your needs are. How can you be sure that is what you really need?

Kat

Because in my training [ITT] year, my training year - that was so hardcore, they were making sure that every single bit of detail was added into lesson plans, and they were always making sure that my mentors, were having to, you know, pick up on those tiny little things, such as you know, how you pronounce things. I knew what good teaching looked like. And now I've noticed a drop in myself, whereas I know that I need to be at a certain standard. I feel like I've... I've dropped in a sense (pause) if that makes sense.

Researcher

Do you feel like that when you're in the class teaching? Or is it something that comes to you after you finish teaching that class?

Kat

Both. Yeah, both like today I was teaching English. And it was absolutely fine. And I kind of know what I'm doing. But you know... you sometimes think - I should have done it this way, or I need to do that. And I kind of make a note of it, to make sure that I can do it

Knowledge self awareness but some hesitancy.

Time. (mentor) more time.

needs not fulfilled.

time (more). observation more.

reformativity

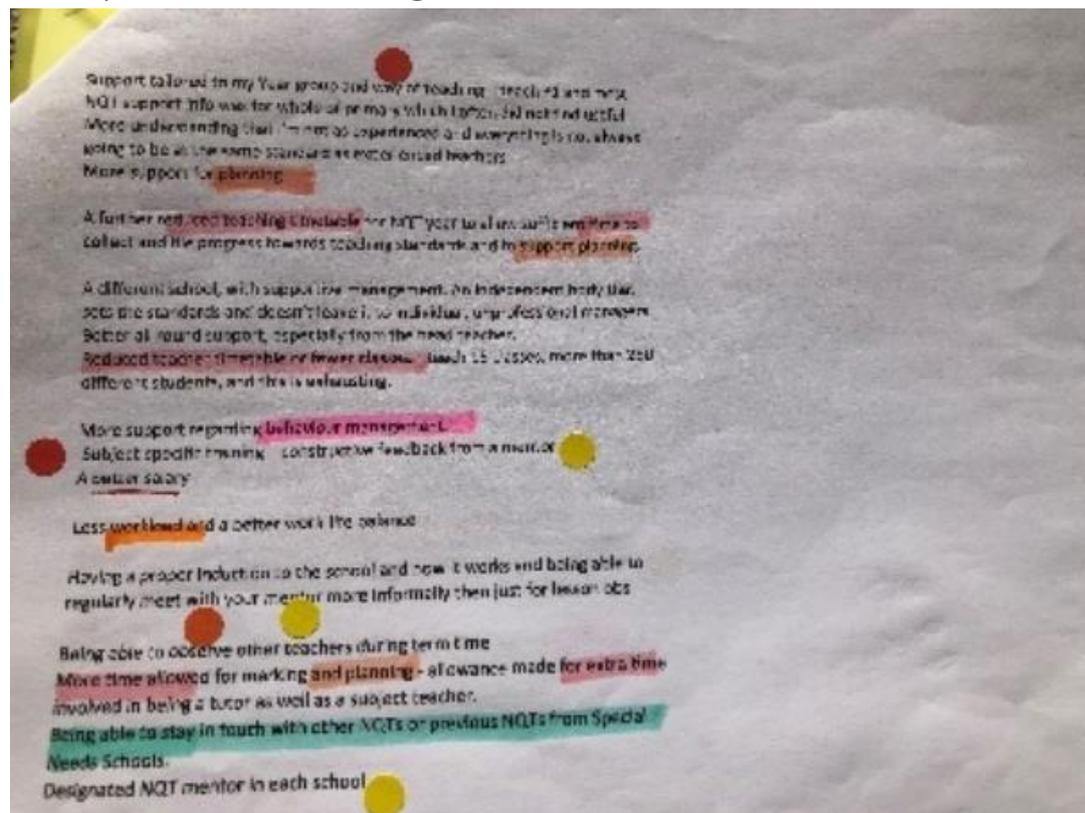
obs. general.

understands strengths + weaknesses

self awareness / autonomy

self improvement.

Example of initial coding – Part 1



List of initial codes – raw/unrefined – Part 1

Absent mentor
Additional responsibilities
Assessment
Attainment
Autodidactic mentoring
Autodidacticism
Autonomy
Awareness
Bureaucratic mentoring
Behaviour management
Behaviour of mentor
Being watched
Better observations
Better pay
Boarding duties
Boyfriend
Bullying
Burden
Chaotic environment
Children (teacher's own)
Classroom layout
Consistency
Constructive mentoring
Cost of Living
Cover
Cover supervisors
Development for students
Divisions
Economic climate
Evenings
Exercise
External network
External training
Extra curricular activities
Family life
Fear
Feedback
Folders
Formal
Forms
Freedoms
Frustration

Further qualifications
Further reduced timetable needed
Girlfriend
Governance
Head Teacher
Help with behaviour management
Help with student assessment
high expectations
Hobbies
Holidays
Informal
ITE
Judgements
Judgmental
Kindness
Knowledge of teaching
Lack of reduced timetable
Lack of time - workload issues
Lack of trust
Learning on the job
Learning styles - students
Learning through doing
Leaving teaching
Less contact time
Less intrusive Mentoring
Less Mentoring
Less Observations
Line Manager
Lunch time
Masters
Meetings
Mentor pay
Mentoring Style
Money as motivation
Morale
More funding for education
More mentoring/time
More observations
Network/Community
New induction programme
New mentor
No Mentor
No mentoring
No reduced timetable
NQT group

Observation - additional time
observations stopped
Observing other teachers
Ofsted
One to ones
Online
Other jobs
Paperwork
Part time
Pay for mentors
Performance
Performative Mentoring
Personal development
Personalisation
Philanthropy
Portfolio
PPA
Progression
Promotion
Pupil needs
Relationship with HT
Relationships staff
Relationships students
Relationships with mentor
Relationships with others
Repetition
Repetition of ITE
Responsibilities
School initiatives
Self directed learning
Self improvement
Self-awareness
SEND
SLT
Special measures
Stress
Student learning
Subject Knowledge
Subject specific support
Support (general)
Support with Planning
Surveillance
Targets
Targets - students
Targets - teachers

Teacher incentives
Teaching Assistants
Team support
Team teaching
Tick Box Exercise
Time
Travel
Trust
Understanding
Union
Unnecessary Mentoring
Validation
Visits to other schools
Vocation
Waste of time
Weekends
Well-being
Whole school policies
Whole school training
Workload

Refined Codes- Part 2

Codes	Sub Theme	Overarching Theme
Less Observations	Observation	Performativity
More observations	Observation	
Observing others	Observation	
Better observations	Observation	
Ofsted	Observation	
Observation - additional time	Observation	
Freedoms	Autonomy	
Autonomy	Autonomy	
Autodidactic/Self directed/through doing	Autonomy	
Trust	Autonomy	
Paperwork/Portfolio	Beaurocracy	
Tick Box Exercise	Beaurocracy	
Ofsted	Beaurocracy	
More Mentoring/Time	Mentoring/Time	Mentoring
Less intrusive Mentoring/Constructive	Performative Mentoring	
Judgmental	Performative Mentoring	
Performative/Bureaucratic Mentoring	Performative Mentoring	
Relationships	Mentoring	
Less Mentoring	Mentoring	
No Mentor	Mentoring	
Mentoring Style	Mentoring Practice	
Consistency	Mentoring Practice	
Bullying	Mentoring Practice	
Autodidactic Mentoring	Mentoring Practice	
Subject Knowledge/Specific Support	Training	Resources
Support with Planning	Training	
Observing other teachers	Training	
Student Assessment	Training	
Behaviour Management	Training	
External Training	Training	
Network/Community	Resources	
Lack of reduced timetable	Time	
Further reduced timetable needed	Time	
Less contact time	Time	
Stress - Workload/Time	Time	
Lack of time - workload issues	Time	
2 year induction	Time	
Economic climate/Cost of Living	Money	
Better pay	Money	
More funding for education	Money	
Other codes of interest		
Feedback		
Support (general)		
Philanthropy		

Vocation
Frustration
Whole school policies
Student learning
Relationships mentor/staff
Relationships students
Teacher incentives
Pay for mentors
Repetition of ITE
Team support
Targets (general)
Personalisation
Self-awareness
Self-efficacy
Further Qualifications
Visits to other schools
Well-being
Surveillance/Lack of Trust
Unnecessary Mentoring
Family life

Refinement of codes, sub themes, and themes – Part 3

n.b These codes also include quantitative data from surveys – e.g. Usefulness of observations.

Performativity		
1. Bureaucracy	2. Autonomy	3. Observation
Paperwork	Freedom	Frequency of observations
Portfolio	Autonomy	Usefulness of observations
Ticking Boxes	Lack of Trust	Observing Others
Ofsted	Autodidacticism	Ofsted
Mentoring		
1. Time	2. Performativity	3. Mentoring Practice
Lack of time	Performative mentoring	Bullying
No mentor	Bureaucratic mentoring	Unconstructive criticism and Judgmentoring
		Consistency
		Relationships
		Autodidactic Mentoring
Resources		
1. Money	2. Workload	3. Training Resources
Pay	Working Hours	Training resources
Cost of Living	Reduced Timetable	Observing Others
Funding for Education	2-year induction	

Informed Consent

Participant Information and Consent Form

My name is Ania Atkinson, I am a PhD student and Teacher at Nottingham Trent University and I am conducting a research project in education. I am investigating the needs of Newly Qualified Teachers. You have been invited to participate in my study - should you agree to participate, your participation in this study should take approximately 15 - 30 minutes and could contribute to make work life better for future Newly Qualified Teachers.

Data collected from this study will be confidential and anonymous. The data will be used to inform my research and will not be used for any other purposes. This consent form will be stored separately from your data and in order to protect your anonymity, you are asked to provide a code name. This code name will be used to identify your data. Your participation is entirely voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw at any time and for any reason (though one need not be specified). If you would like to withdraw from the study at any stage, please contact me by phone, email or post (see contact details below).

Research will be conducted as per the guidelines of BERA (The British Educational Research Association) 2019. <https://www.bera.ac.uk/>

If you have any questions regarding the nature of the research, please feel free to ask at any time.

I can be contacted via email ania.atkinson.2018@ntu.ac.uk or aniaatkinson@gmail.com

Or by phone: 07581 146 750

Or by post: Nottingham Trent University, 50 Shakespeare Street, Nottingham, NG1 4FQ

My supervisor's details are: Andrew Clapham, andrew.clapham@ntu.ac.uk,

+44 115 84 83261

Agreement to consent

I voluntarily consent to participate in this study. In completing this form I certify that I am 18 years of age or older. I shall be given a copy of this consent form to keep.

Participant's code name

date

I certify that I have presented the above information to the participant

Researcher's signature

date

Thank you very much for taking the time to read this sheet, and for your interest in my research.

The NQT needs survey

Page 1: About you and your school.

1. Your gender.

- Female
- Male
- Non Binary
- Prefer not to say

2. Your age group.

- 20 - 29
- 30 - 39
- 40 - 49
- 50 - 59
- 60 +

3. Your school (tick all that apply).

- Local Authority

- Academy/Trust
- Free School
- Grammar
- Independent
- Special School
- Secondary Modern
- Comprehensive

4. Ofsted or ISI rating.

- Outstanding
- Good
- Requires Improvement
- Special Measures
- Excellent
- Sound
- Unsatisfactory

5. Your teaching age group.

- Early Years
- Primary
- Middle School
- Secondary
- Further Education

6. Your teaching specialism.

- Early Years
- Primary
- Special Education
- Mathematics
- English
- Science
- Humanities
- Languages
- Music/Arts
- Physical Education
- Computer Science
- Classics
- Economics/Business Studies
- R.E
- Other

6.a. If you selected Other, please specify:

7. Your route into teaching (tick all that apply).

- PGCE (postgraduate route)
- Degree (undergraduate route)
- SCITT
- School Direct (salaried)
- School Direct (unsalaried)
- Teach First
- eQualitas

- Now Teach
- Troops to Teachers
- Researchers in Schools
- HMC
- Other

8. Why did you decide to become a teacher?

Page 2: Your NQT experience.

9. How do you rate your NQT experience so far?

- Excellent
- Good
- Average
- Poor
- Very Poor

9.a. Why?

10. Do you think that you receive enough support in your NQT year?

- Yes
- No
- Unsure

10.a. What support is available to you at your school?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Tick all that apply
Lesson observations	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mentoring	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teacher training/workshops	<input type="checkbox"/>

Subject specific training	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reduced timetable	<input type="checkbox"/>
Observing other teachers	<input type="checkbox"/>
Team teaching	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mastership (Further qualifications)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Common planning time	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have joined a Union	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. How useful are the following? 5 being extremely useful and 1 being not useful at all.

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	n/a	1	2	3	4	5
Lesson observations	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Mentoring	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Teacher training/workshops	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Subject specific training	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Reduced timetable	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Observing other teachers	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Team teaching	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Mastership (further studies)	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Common planning time	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Union support	<input type="checkbox"/>					

12. How often are your lessons observed?

- More than once a week.
- Weekly.
- 3 - 4 times a half term
- 1 - 2 times a half term
- Every half term or less

13. How often do you have an opportunity to observe other teachers?

- I never have an opportunity to observe others
- Once a year
- Once a term
- Once every half term
- More than once every half term

14. Have you received any of the following training?

- Understanding school policies and procedures
- Child protection training
- Completing paperwork and data analysis
- Working with parents
- Understanding curriculum content
- Planning lessons
- Assessment and marking techniques
- Behaviour management
- Teaching students with EAL
- Teaching students with SEN
- Differentiation

Subject specific training

15. What percentage of a 'normal teaching' timetable do you teach?

- More than 90%
- 80%
- 70%
- Less than 70%

15.a. Do you work part time or full time?

- Part time
- Full time

16. Do you have additional responsibilities such as a Teaching and Learning Responsibility (TLR)?

- Yes
- No

17. Have you thought about leaving teaching?

- Yes
- No

18. Would you support a two year NQT induction?

- Yes
- No

19. This is the final question. What would make your NQT experience better? *
Required

20. If you do not mind being contacted to participate in an interview to talk further about your specific teaching experiences and needs, please leave your email details here:

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