UNDERSTANDING AND SUPPORTING
RURAL SASKATCHEWAN
BEGINNING TEACHERS’
PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR
PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACTS:
A PATHWAY TO
FLOURISHING IN SCHOOLS

A Dissertation Submitted to the
College of Graduate Studies and Research
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
In the Department of Educational Administration
University of Saskatchewan
Saskatoon, Saskatchewan

By
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ABSTRACT

As teachers begin their careers they develop a psychological contract with their organization (Rousseau, 1995); beginning teachers have expectations about what supports will be available and what they will give the organization in return. To ensure that the most effective teachers are working in classrooms it is important to identify and provide the necessary induction supports that beginning teachers need to reach their potential and ensure that they are flourishing in our schools.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract with their organizations, the induction supports received, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools. The main objective of this research was to answer the following research questions: 1) How do rural beginning teachers describe the actual induction supports they are receiving from their organizations? 2) How do rural beginning teachers perceive and understand the reciprocal elements of the psychological contract with their organizations? 3) How do rural beginning teachers perceive their flourishing in schools? 4) What relationship exists among beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract, induction support provided and beginning teacher flourishing in schools?

A mixed methods approach was used. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected from 110 beginning teachers in 21 rural Saskatchewan schools divisions using the Supporting the Psychological Contract toward Flourishing (SPCF) survey.

Rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers acknowledged receiving positive induction support in the areas of: administrative support, procedures and protocols, consultation with experienced teachers, support with collegiality and belonging, resources, and professional development. They required more support with mentorship, levels of extra-curricular
involvement, classroom management, and first year meetings. Beginning teachers perceived that they were strongly committed to their organization and that their employer was generally fulfilling their obligations to them as employees. Beginning teachers in elementary schools, and in some cases K-12 schools, felt better support than those in middle/high schools. Beginning teachers perceived a low degree of flourishing as they began their careers; however, after one year, they experienced growth. Finally, relationships were noted among beginning teachers’ psychological contract and induction, their psychological contract and flourishing, and between induction and flourishing.

Implications for theory and practice are presented regarding beginning teacher induction constructs, gender and type of school influences, and the relationship among induction, psychological contract, and flourishing. Future research is required in the areas of beginning teacher induction, psychological contract, flourishing and the relationship among all three concepts.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

As I submit this dissertation I must acknowledge several individuals.

To my gifted, patient advisor, Dr. Michelle Prytula, thank you for your encouragement. You have an incredible capacity to put the student first. Whenever I set a deadline for myself, you were always there with guidance to ensure that I would meet my goal. I am forever grateful for your mentorship and support.

To my committee members Dr. Pat Renihan, Dr. Michael Cottrell, Dr. Jay Wilson and Dr. David Burgess, your feedback and suggestions have been most helpful. Thank you for your experienced insights; you challenged me to consider alternate ways of thinking that added to my writing and to my learning experience. Additional thanks are extended to my external examiner, Dr. Susan Elliott-Johns. Your suggestions were most welcomed and improved the quality of my final document.

Thank you to my employer, Sun West School Division for the opportunity to take an educational leave this past year. This educational journey has been very rewarding, and I am privileged to work in an environment that supports professional development opportunities. Special thanks to colleagues (Tony, Shari, Shelley, Darren and Guy) who took on an extra workload so that I could attain this life-long goal.

Special thanks to Jennifer Briere, a talented academic scholar whose expertise on survey design and statistical analysis was invaluable throughout this journey. Our meetings together motivated me to keep going; I could not have succeeded without your support. You will be a fine professor in the years to come.

Finally I would like to thank my family and friends for their support during these past few years. To my parents, whose continual love and support for my education throughout the
years has remained constant. Since the day I was born, you always made education a priority in my life. To my children, Steven and Lisa, whose own educational accomplishments have made me proud, I thank you for your continual encouragement. Thank you especially to my husband, Wayne, whose enduring support has been instrumental to my success. I know that you have made sacrifices over the past many years so that I could go to school again and specifically during the time required to finish this work, thank you for your patience and understanding. I feel truly blessed to have you in my life. And one cannot forget Meggie, who sat patiently on my lap or at my feet through long hours of reading, writing and editing. Hard to believe that the journey is complete!
This dissertation is dedicated to my father, Clarence A. Collins (BSA, 1954), who was the first member of our family to attain a degree from the University of Saskatchewan. Dad exemplifies what it means to work hard to attain goals in life, and his encouragement of my educational and professional career has been unwavering.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Teaching is challenging work, especially for beginning teachers who are entering the classroom for the first time. Research supports the need for providing induction support for beginning teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Huling-Austin, 1986, Wang, Odell, & Schwille, 2008) so that they may achieve success and ultimately flourish in schools. As teachers begin their careers they have expectations about what supports will be available and what they will give the organization in return. They have developed a psychological contract with their organization (Rousseau, 1995).

The passion for this study is rooted in the researcher’s nearly thirty years of teaching in rural Saskatchewan schools and numerous observations of beginning teachers. Beginning teachers’ experiences are varied, with some experiencing success in the classroom and others facing struggles. To ensure beginning teachers reach their potential and ultimately thrive in our schools, it appears essential that appropriate induction supports are provided. This study, entitled Understanding and Supporting Rural Saskatchewan Beginning Teachers’ Perceptions of Their Psychological Contracts: A Pathway to Flourishing in Schools investigated rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions regarding their needs and expectations for induction support. The study provides an understanding of the relationship between beginning teachers and their school organizations, and offers perspectives on how to conceptualize and support induction to ensure rural Saskatchewan beginning teacher flourishing.

1.1 Background to the Problem

Research supports that the effectiveness of a student’s teacher is an important factor in producing consistently high levels of student achievement (Darling-Hammond, Holtzman,
Gatlin, & Heilig, 2005; Wong, Britton, & Ganser, 2005). In fact, the difference between a good teacher and a bad teacher can be a full level of achievement in a single school year (Hanushek, 1992, p. 107). Good teachers organize activities, materials, and instruction based on students’ prior knowledge and level of development so that students can be successful. Competent teachers explain clearly, are well-prepared, implement effective assessment strategies, and make topics easy for their students to understand. Ultimately, effective teachers engage students in active learning and set expectations for their students (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2005).

1.1.1 The Rural Teaching Context

As rural beginning teachers enter the profession, they have expectations of the rural or remote teaching experience. They may have vague understandings of what teaching and working in a rural community will involve, including some romanticized images of friendly locals in a warm community (Sharplin, 2002). The rural environment provides beginning teachers with many benefits, advantages and positive experiences, as well as challenges associated with working in a rural school. Recruiting, retaining, and supporting teachers in rural schools are issues prominent in conversations about today’s rural teaching environment that require our attention.

There are distinct advantages to teaching in rural schools. A substantial proportion of rural education research is driven by a belief that there is a quality inherent in rural communities and schools that should be preserved (Arnold, Newman, Gaddy, & Dean, 2005). Researchers claim that rural teachers will experience fewer discipline problems, less red tape, more personal contact, greater chance for leadership, small class size, individualized instruction, greater student and parent participation, and greater teacher impact on decision making (Boylan & Bandy, 1994;
Collins, 1999). Collins (1999) stated that schools and communities should publicize the advantages of teaching in a rural community.

Challenges exist for beginning teachers who choose to teach in rural schools. Rural beginning teachers described several concerns about teaching in rural schools including aspects of loneliness and isolation (Sharplin, 2002). They expressed professional concerns about access to resources, teaching in multigrade classrooms, and lack of professional development opportunities; and personal concerns around isolation within the school and community, socializing opportunities, dislocation from family and friends, and developing new support networks (Sharplin, 2002). Rural beginning teachers were also apprehensive about finding appropriate living accommodations, excessive travel expenses, access to resources, and lack of cultural and recreational opportunities (Ralph, 2003); all challenges unique to the rural teaching environment. Providing grade and subject-alike mentors is difficult in rural schools, and rural beginning teachers expressed the need for assistance with supportive interaction to adjust to working with their mentor partners (Harris, Holdman, Clark, & Harris, 2005). New teachers noted that collegial isolation, low salaries and lack of familiarity with rural schools provided challenges for beginning rural teachers (Barley, 2009). Rural beginning teachers want to work in schools that are neat, tidy, safe, and offer a balanced work load and fair class sizes, but they are reluctant to accept teaching positions in remote rural communities that offer few personal and family amenities (Kono, 2012). Understanding these challenges and supporting beginning rural teachers in these areas provides opportunity to strengthen their initial and future teaching experiences.

Recruiting, retaining, and supporting teachers present challenges for those in rural schools (Stelmach, 2011). Beginning teachers may be reluctant to apply for rural teaching
positions, particularly as most have had no rural teaching experiences (Hudson & Hudson, 2008). Social, cultural, and professional isolation may be reasons for losing rural teachers (Collins, 1999). Geographical isolation combined with strong cultural differences such as recent immigrants, Indigenous people, or isolated rural dwellers may present issues for retaining teachers in rural schools (Watson & Hatton, 1995, as cited in Hudson & Hudson, 2008).

In 2003, Ralph indicated that a pressing need to recruit rural teachers would result from the number of veteran teachers who would reach retirement age over the following years and the many graduating teachers who would be seeking positions in larger city centers. To address rural retention issues, Boylan (2004) advocated for supporting beginning rural teachers’ psychological preparedness as well as pedagogical skill, through focusing on conditions of living and teaching in rural places and establishing mentorship programs to help beginning teachers cope with the social and personal adjustments with living in a rural location. Rural teacher recruits must not only have the required credentials but they must also be aware of the nature of small schools in small communities (Barley, 2009), thus emphasizing the need to educate those entering rural schools prior to their arrival. Barter (2008) expressed that rural teachers referred to teaching in smaller towns as stepping stones to future urban work. Knowing, understanding, and addressing the concerns of rural beginning teachers result in situations where those who begin their careers in rural schools will stay.

Declining enrolments in rural school communities and the rural teacher shortage contribute to the rural school crisis (Kono, 2012). When the low beginning teacher retention rates are combined with a growing teacher shortage in small towns and fewer new teachers are willing to move into remote rural towns far away from larger centers, small town schools face an inadequate teacher supply (Kono, 2012; Lowe, 2006). As schools become at risk of closure,
communities suffer. Toner (2004) claimed that the state of the local school often serves as a barometer for the health of the community. Therefore, maintaining a strong instructional staff is an essential element of the health and vitality of the school and the community itself (Kono, 2012). During this time of educational uncertainty it has become increasingly important for rural schools to consider incorporating comprehensive teacher induction programs that support beginning teachers so that they are encouraged to begin their careers in rural schools and remain there for the duration of their careers. Comprehensive teacher induction programs are required that address the social, personal, and family needs of new teachers starting their education careers in rural schools (Kono, 2012)

The issues in rural education, particularly in teacher recruitment, retention, and support point to the need for research to better understand the conditions of rural teaching. In 2013, 22 of the 28 school divisions in Saskatchewan are considered to be rural school divisions; those with non-city schools. Approximately 57,600 students (35% of the total provincial enrolment population) attend rural Saskatchewan schools (Saskatchewan Ministry of Education, 2013). In order to ensure rural students are supported, there is a distinct need for recruiting and retaining good teachers in our rural schools.

The issues described by beginning rural teachers have prompted more beginning teacher research, where the emphasis is on hearing the voices of those who enter the profession in rural schools. Those responsible for supporting beginning teachers can benefit by attending to beginning teachers’ needs and gaining insights through listening to their concerns. This study provided an opportunity to better understand how to support rural beginning teachers as they develop their potential to be effective teachers. The study attended to beginning teacher induction experiences, beginning teachers’ psychological contracts with their organizations, and
beginning teacher flourishing in schools. Information was garnered through the perceptions of rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers.

1.1.2 Beginning Teacher Induction

Effectively implemented induction programs provide support for beginning teachers (Huling-Austin, 1988; Wang et al., 2008). Induction programs assist beginning teachers with the knowledge, skills and strategies which allow them to be successful (Gold, 1996; Glazerman, Dolfin, Bleeker, Johnson, Isenberg, Lugo-Gil, Grider, Britton, & Ali, 2009). Induction programs improve teaching performance (Huling-Austin, 1986; Strong, 2006)), which is ultimately connected to improved student learning. Effective induction programs increase the retention of promising beginning teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004) and transmit the culture of the system to beginning teachers (Wood, 2005).

Induction programs promote and support the personal and professional well-being of beginning teachers (Feiman-Nemser, Carver, Schwille, & Yusko, 1999). Personal well-being is addressed when beginning teachers are supported in building relationships with others and in finding a sense of belonging within the school community (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). Professional learning communities provide the environment necessary for a sense of belonging to develop (Dufour, 2004) as beginning teachers work collaboratively with others and find common areas of interest. Induction programs provide support required to attain a strong sense of efficacy and well-being, which enhances instruction in the classroom (Snyder, Lopez, Sharey, Rand, & Feldman, 2003). Induction programs provide assistance in establishing and maintaining a work/life balance as they often find it difficult to do anything past preparing for teaching (Brock & Grady, 2007). As beginning teachers are often ‘shocked’ into the profession (Gordon & Maxey, 2000; Veenman, 1984), they find it difficult to find a balance between managing
classroom challenges and life outside of school, so providing personal support is essential to ensure success.

Beginning teachers require support as they develop their professional practice (Veenman, 1984). Beginning teachers become familiar with the language and concepts of good practice through meeting standards or domains of professional competencies (Danielson, 2007). They require support in planning and preparation, managing the classroom environment, instructional strategies, and establishing their professional responsibilities. Clearly articulated standards of professional practice are essential in helping the beginning teacher communicate effectively about high-quality teaching and increased student learning (Moir & Gless, 2001). Effective induction programs provide support for beginning teachers as they develop their teaching skills.

Induction support may be provided through quality mentoring (Darling Hammond, 2003; Hellsten, Prytula, Ebanks, & Lai, 2009). The mentor is the most important feature of a high quality induction program and the assignment of a support teacher may well be the most powerful induction practice available to program developers (Huling-Austin & Murphy, 1987). The best induction programs pair beginning teachers with mentors from the same grade and subject area (Huling-Austin, 1988), resulting in beginning teachers who are less likely to leave after their first year (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). Mentors compatible with their beginning teachers in areas of educational training, common interests, and/or educational philosophy are essential for program success (Hellsten et al., 2009). No technology, no curriculum, no standardized structures can substitute for the power of a knowledgeable and skillful veteran to move a novice teacher to ambitious levels of teaching (Moir & Gless, 2001).

Quality mentoring is facilitated through networking (Ferguson & Morihara, 2007; Moir, 2003; Moir & Gless, 2001; Sweeny, 2008). When networking opportunities are provided,
including professional development activities, beginning teachers are better able to move from
novice to expert status (Lovo, Cavazos, & Simmons, 2006). Effective professional development
activities include opportunities for beginning teachers to work collaboratively with others and
begin setting goals through professional growth plans (Dufour, Dufour, Eaker, & Many, 2010).

Effective induction programs consider beginning teachers’ stages of development
experienced throughout their first year in the classroom. Beginning teachers progress through
various stages of development as they learn to be teachers (Berliner, 1988; Fuller, 1969; Katz,
1972; Lortie, 1975; Moir, 1990). They move from a stage of anticipation where they look
toward making a difference in the lives of their students, through a survival stage where they
recognize the realities and challenges associated with having their own classroom. After
overcoming their disillusionments, they begin to rejuvenate; they think about what they have
learned about teaching and how they are beginning to feel a part of the school community. They
are self-reflective about what they have learned and begin to focus less on themselves and more
on their students’ needs (Moir, 1990).

Throughout their first year of teaching beginning teachers will encounter many
challenges. Gordon and Maxey (2000) claimed that many of the difficulties beginning teacher
encounter are grounded in the culture of the teaching profession and the conditions of the school
as a workplace. Beginning teachers often struggle with difficult work assignments; unclear
expectations from administrators, other teachers, parents, and students; inadequate resources;
feelings of isolation; role conflict between the role of teacher and young adult; and the reality
shock of entering the classroom for the first time. Beginning teachers describe concerns about
classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing
students’ work, relations with parents, organization of the class work, and others (Veenman,
Effective induction programs provide opportunity for beginning teacher challenges to be addressed.

### 1.1.3 Beginning Teacher Psychological Contract

Beginning teachers have expectations about induction supports they will receive from their organization. They also have beliefs about what they are willing and able to give the organization in return. Schein (1980) described these expectations as a psychological contract; “an unwritten set of expectations operating at all times between every member of the organization and the various managers and others in that organization” (p. 22). Beginning teachers develop a psychological contract between themselves and the school organization. This is a complex arrangement as the beginning teacher may have established relationships with a multitude of hosting agents (Rousseau, 1995) including the director of education, superintendents of education, school-based administrators, learning coaches/consultants, teachers, support staff, students, parents, and perhaps others.

The type of relationship between individuals and their organization is considered when describing the psychological contract. How individuals respond to their organizations is dependent upon how they are treated. When organizations support their members, the members value their jobs and wish to commit to the organization (Etzioni, 1961). Getzels and Guba (1957) stressed the importance of organizational socialization, a process where the relationship between the individual’s needs (idiographic dimension) and the organization’s needs (nomothetic dimension) are in constant interaction. When both dimensions are aligned, the expectations of the organization and the individual are realized. Therefore when beginning teachers’ needs are satisfied and aligned with that of the school organization, beginning teachers should experience success.
Rousseau (1995) described the psychological contract content as fitting into two categories: transactional (specific, time-bound, economic conditions) and relational (emotional involvement as well as economic exchange). The contract terms can be thought of as being at two ends of a contractual continuum, where the optimal relational contract focuses on open-ended relationships involving investment by both employees and employers. Based on the needs of the beginning teacher, it would seem important for organizations to develop and fulfill relational contracts with teachers, focusing on supporting personal growth and development.

Researchers have studied psychological contract violation; the situation that exists when both employee and employer are not fulfilling their obligations (Rousseau, 1995). The failure of one party to comply with its obligations within the psychological contract will erode feelings of trust, beliefs in good faith, and fair dealing (MacNeil, 1985; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994). Psychological contract violation has been found to be associated with lower employee contribution, where employees are not involved with the organizations’ goals. However, if the psychological contract is fulfilled, individuals demonstrate commitment to the organization (Rousseau, 1995). Attending to the beginning teachers’ psychological contract seems to be one way to ensure fulfillment in work and a commitment to the school organization.

1.1.4 Beginning Teacher Flourishing

As the teacher is the most important factor in student achievement (Wong et al., 2005), a critical goal for rural Saskatchewan education is for beginning rural teachers to experience success and flourish in our schools. The desire is for beginning teachers to experience the highest possible quality of life, where their bodies, minds, and spirits are engaged in behaviours resulting in lifelong growth and achievement.
Definitions referring to *flourishing* in the educational workplace appear to be just emerging. In the literature many terms such as *happiness, wellness,* and *well-being* are used synonymously with flourishing (Diener & Seligman, 2004).

The importance of an individual’s happiness was discussed by early philosophers such as Aristotle and Epicurus as far back as 350 B.C.E. Aristotle believed that happiness was the central purpose of human life; the ultimate purpose of human existence (Ross, 2009). Epicurus suggested that happiness is not a private affair: it can be more readily achieved in a society where like-minded individuals band together to help inspire one another’s pursuit of happiness (Konstan, 2012). More recently, Averill and More (2004) stated that happiness is “the emotional state associated with full engagement or optimal performance in meaningful activity” (p. 664).

Happiness is defined as it relates to individuals living a good or happy life (Seligman, 2004b). Sackney, Noonan, and Miller (2000) emphasized the importance of attending to teacher wellness. Wellness is an integrated and dynamic level of functioning oriented toward maximizing potential. Wellness is dependent upon self-responsibility, where there is a shift in thinking and attitude that results in lifelong growth and achievement. It is a lifestyle where individuals put forth continuous efforts to reach their full potential (Powers, 1994; Robbins, Powers, & Burgess, 1999). Logically, beginning teachers who are well, will flourish in our classrooms.

Various researchers have described the dimensions of wellness (Adams, Bezner, Drabbs, Zambarano, & Steinhardt, 2000; Morris & DeVane, 1994; Myers, Sweeney, & Witmer, 2000; Robbins et al, 1999). Robbins et al. (1999) described seven dimensions of wellness: physical, intellectual, emotional, social, spiritual, environmental, and occupational (p. 6). They viewed
wellness as a combination of all seven dimensions, where the individual strives for growth in each dimension.

Well-being theories have been proposed including those in the areas of eudaimonia and positive psychology. Eudaimonic theory prescribes that well-being is attained through satisfying specific needs, or consists of specific content. When the specific needs described are present, individuals strive for things in life that are inherently meaningful and thus experience well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryff & Singer, 1998). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) spoke of positive psychology theory, the belief that focuses on the pursuit of employee happiness and health. Positive psychology attends to mental wellness, rather than illness or weakness (Bakker & Schaufeli; 2008) and fosters performance through developing human strength, self-efficacy, optimism, resilience, hope and vitality (Cameron & Caza, 2004).

Policy development around well-being and flourishing is prevalent in conversations in the political and education forums. World nations are considering something more than the gross domestic product when describing success (Osberg & Sharpe, 2005; Stiglitz, Sen, & Fitoussi, 2009). The focus is on the well-being of the people, a valuable concept when considering supporting beginning teachers.

This study addressed the relationship among the concepts of induction, beginning teachers’ psychological contracts and flourishing as they pertained to rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers.

1.2 Researcher’s Perspective

As an educator I have had the opportunity to experience beginning teacher induction and the role of the psychological contract from a number of perspectives. My first teaching position was in a small rural Saskatchewan school, with a staff of ten teachers, in a grade two classroom.
of 11 students. I entered the profession with expectations of my educational organization: a permanent contract with salary, sufficient resources, professional development opportunities, recognition for work well done, and a safe working environment, among others; all expectations that were fulfilled. Although at that time I would not have understood the concept of the psychological contract that I had with my educational organization, I can now recognize how and when the organization fulfilled their obligations. I was fully engaged with teaching and worked consistently to fulfill my obligations as well. I recall a reciprocal arrangement in which both parties benefited. Highlights during that period of time were the support from the school principal and the collegial atmosphere available in the small rural school environment. The personal, professional, and community support received was remarkable, and my first year of teaching was a positive experience.

I spent the following fifteen years as a classroom teacher in rural community schools in the same Saskatchewan school division, although it eventually amalgamated into a larger entity. I continued to feel supported and experienced success throughout my journey, but over the years I began to observe teachers who were struggling. It was during this period of time that my interest in working with beginning teachers developed. I enjoyed the rewards of mentoring those new to the profession and fondly remember conversations in classrooms at the end of the teaching day on topics of classroom management, dealing with parental concerns, and lesson planning.

After a rewarding period as a classroom teacher I entered the field of school-based administration and for the following ten years was able to become actively engaged with supporting beginning teachers as they entered the classroom for the first time. I was able to watch them grow; to support the professional practice and personal development of these
beginning teachers. As my years as a mentor progressed, I began to see the importance of effectively supporting beginning teachers in order to retain them in our schools and ensuring that our students had the quality teachers they deserved. When beginning teachers encountered challenges I was able to reflect upon previous experiences to support them when they required assistance.

For the past four years, as Superintendent of Education, my role with our beginning teachers has been in a supportive, yet supervisory capacity. I have witnessed amazing teaching; beginning teachers who are thoroughly engaged with their students, the curriculum, their colleagues, and the community. It has been a distinct pleasure to observe and share in their successes and achievements. However, along the way there have been some stumbling blocks: beginning teachers, who have not succeeded and in some cases have left the profession, some voluntarily, others through mutual termination. This can be a devastating time for all involved, especially for some young teachers, who are disillusioned about the profession that they spent their previous four years preparing for academically and in some cases, their entire lives dreaming about.

From my perspective, superintendents of education, as senior administrators are self-reflective about the unsuccessful journeys, asking ourselves what can be done better to support these inexperienced and in many cases, young beginning teachers. As school division leaders we provide induction programs for our teachers, establish mentorship relationships within the schools, provide a listening ear when needed, and offer resources and other professional development supports when necessary. Most of the supports offered come from what we believe beginning teachers need in areas such as planning and preparation, classroom management, instruction, and professional responsibilities. All support is given with the greatest of intentions.
However I believe that we need to pay more attention to what the beginning teachers say they need from us. In conversations with teachers who were unsuccessful in their first year, many spoke of feelings of isolation, loneliness, lack of attachment with students, fear of parents, and the lack of time to complete the required workload. All these issues are connected to more than classroom practice; they require personal support. Interestingly, those beginning teachers who experienced success often described how they were effectively supported within their schools. In particular, successful teachers spoke of support received from administrators and fellow teachers. Supported teachers seem to be flourishing in our schools. Perhaps it is time to ask beginning teachers what they need from us, what they are able to give us, and what supports can be provided to ensure that all have the opportunity to flourish.

As senior educational leaders we have the opportunity to make policy decisions about how we want to support our beginning teachers. I contend that it is important that educational organizations prioritize teacher induction, both philosophically and financially, and create induction policy. Good policy can succeed in changing teaching and learning. Conversations at board room tables must include beginning teacher induction, as ultimately the teacher is the most important factor in student achievement.

Finally, I return to why this study is of personal importance and immediately reflect on the lives and professions of my own children. When in conversation with them about their careers, I always hope to hear that they are excited about where they go to work each day and are fulfilled in the work that they do—that they are flourishing. My desire is for them to be challenged, to grow, to achieve success, and ultimately to thrive. I believe that this is what we wish for our beginning teachers as well.
Having spent the past 30 years in rural Saskatchewan education, in various capacities, I have observed beginning teachers transition into the profession with varying degrees of success. Some beginning teachers were fully engaged in the teaching experience, thriving in their work, while others experienced debilitating situations, at times resulting in them leaving the profession. I believe that gaining insight into what supports are available and accessed by our flourishing teachers, as well as by those who struggle, will provide insight into designing and implementing effective induction processes.

The intent of this study was to enhance my understanding of the beginning teachers’ perspectives on their psychological contracts, the induction process and teacher flourishing. I wished to hear what they had to say, as I posited it might interest those of us in educational administrative roles. If we are good listeners, then we will take their perceptions about induction, their psychological contracts, and their degree of flourishing, and allow that data to drive what is needed to be done to ensure that beginning teachers flourish in schools.

1.3 Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract with their organizations, the induction supports received, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools. This study accessed rural beginning teachers’ perceptions in order that beginning teacher needs could be heard, understood, and addressed.

1.4 Research Questions

The research questions which guided the study were:

1. How do rural beginning teachers describe the actual induction supports they are receiving from their organizations?
2. How do rural beginning teachers perceive and understand the reciprocal elements of the psychological contract with their organizations?
   a) What do beginning teachers expect from their organizations?
   b) What do beginning teachers expect to give to their organizations?
3. How do rural beginning teachers perceive their flourishing in schools?
4. What relationship exists among beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract, induction support provided and beginning teacher flourishing in schools?

1.5 Description of the Study

Understanding and Supporting Rural Saskatchewan Beginning Teachers’ Perceptions of their Psychological Contracts: A Pathway to Flourishing in Schools is a mixed methods study which explored the relationship among rural beginning teachers’ psychological contract with their organization, the induction support received, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools. Participants were selected from rural Saskatchewan schools and had completed their first year of teaching the 2012-2013 school year. Information was collected using the Supporting the Psychological Contract toward Flourishing (SPCF) instrument (see Appendix C), which provided quantitative data through Likert-scale measurement and qualitative data through open-ended questions. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to describe and analyze the quantitative data (using SPSS). The qualitative data was organized, categorized, coded, and interpreted (using NVivo).

1.6 Delimitations

This study was conducted in the fall of 2013 with rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers. This study is delimited to data collected from the survey of rural Saskatchewan teachers from 21
school divisions who had completed their first year of teaching. This study used beginning teachers’ perceptions of the psychological contract; it did not seek perceptions of others in the school organization. Survey data was collected in September 2013.

1.7 Limitations

This study was subject to the following limitations:

1. Beginning teachers in First Nation Schools were not included in this study; therefore this study may not be generalizable to those teaching on First Nation Schools.

2. The study was limited by the participants’ willingness and ability to identify their own beliefs about their psychological contract, their inductions supports and their flourishing in schools. Participants may have been reluctant to share negative information about their employers’ degree of support. Beginning teachers concerned about receiving tenure may have been apprehensive about responding to the survey as a result of such pressures.

3. This study was limited to beginning teachers who completed their first year of teaching; it did not seek information from teachers who were unsuccessful in their first year.

4. The study required a retrospective analysis by the participants; they were required to remember events, thought processes, and perceptions from the previous year of teaching, thus were limited by their ability to remember details from the previous year of teaching.

5. The researcher is currently a Superintendent of Education, and as such, had a role of providing induction for beginning teachers. The researcher’s self-perceptions of effective induction might have influenced qualitative data analysis, when coding
themes. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) suggested asking peers who are familiar with qualitative research and the research topic to examine the data. Therefore fellow colleagues familiar with teacher induction were asked to review the survey data themes to ensure validity.

6. The survey data is limited by the questions proposed in the study. Question quantity was determined based on relevance to the rural beginning teacher context and following considerations of survey tool length.

7. The study provided survey data, which makes it generalizable, however only provided a snapshot in time.

1.8 Definitions

The following terms were used in this study:

1. Induction. Induction is a process by which educational organizations support, train and retain beginning teachers as they progress towards life-long learning (Wong, 2005). Induction occurs as the beginning teacher transitions into schools and classrooms; it is the “period of transition from student to professional” (Blair-Larson, 1998, p. 602).

2. Mentoring. Mentoring is a component of the induction process (Wong et al., 2005) by which a more experienced or knowledgeable teacher offers assistance to a beginning teacher. The support may or may not be structured in a full-or part-time capacity. Mentors provide both personal and professional support for the beginning teacher (Feiman-Nemser et al. 1999; Gold, 1996).

3. Psychological Contract. The psychological contract is a component of employment relationships and is defined as “the individual’s beliefs, shaped by the organization,
regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals their organization” (Rousseau, 1995, p. 9).

4. Flourishing. Flourishing is viewed as an optimal state of health or well-being; the highest possible quality of life, where the individual’s body, mind and spirit are engaged in behaviours resulting in lifelong growth and achievement. Flourishing would therefore be the ultimate aspiration for beginning teachers working with students in schools.

5. Professional Learning Community (PLC). A professional learning community exists when teachers work collaboratively with others to ensure student learning. Professional learning communities judge their effectiveness on results; all members of the team work toward improving student achievement (Dufour, 2004).

6. Rural or Rural Teachers. For the purposes of this study, rural, or rural teachers refers to those teaching in non-city schools. First nation schools are not included in this rural population.

1.9 Significance of the Study

Literature on the psychological contract of beginning teachers is only just emerging; however the psychological contract has been previously studied in the educational context in Saskatchewan. Research completed by Propp (2004) addressed the psychological contract that rural Saskatchewan beginning administrators have with the school organization and noted implications for practice and policy development connected to how school divisions might better support beginning administrators. Hrabok (2003) researched the psychological contracts of experienced college instructors. Knowledge attained in this study will contribute to the literature
around the importance of attending to the psychological contract of rural Saskatchewan educators, specifically beginning teachers.

Various researchers affirm the importance of understanding beginning teachers’ needs and supporting them through effective induction programs (Huling-Austin, 1992; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Moir & Gless, 2001). Induction programs attempt to meet several goals: improving teaching performance, increasing the retention of promising beginning teachers, promoting and supporting the personal and professional well-being of beginning teachers, and transmitting the culture of the system to beginning teachers (Huling-Austin, 1988). However, for some beginning teachers, who struggle in the first year, the support is either not enough, or simply not targeting precisely what is needed. This study provided insight into beginning teacher’s perceptions about their experiences during their first year of teaching, specifically the lived induction experience.

In the world of education it is important to have “teachers who have the energy, health, and passion to inspire, motivate, and educate” (Lauzon, 2003, p. 146). The goal for beginning teachers is to maximize their potential within the environment where they are functioning; to reach an optimum state of well-being (Dunn, 1961). This study generated an understanding of how beginning teachers are flourishing in our schools and offered educators recommendations about how to best create and support environments conducive to flourishing.

This study provided information for schools divisions so that they many better understand rural beginning teachers’ psychological contracts and their induction needs. Knowledge gained may supplement policy discussions at the boardroom and senior administrative tables. This study may provide insight for universities to more effectively prepare their students for entrance into the teaching profession in rural schools.
Finally, this study provided information on the relationships among beginning teacher induction, the psychological contract between beginning teachers and their organizations, and flourishing in schools. The research provided information in terms of policy development, theory and practice for those responsible for supporting rural beginning teachers.

1.10 Organization of the Dissertation

This study provided insight into perceptions of rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers on their psychological contract with their educational organizations, their expected and realized induction supports, and the relationship between the psychological contract, induction and beginning teacher flourishing in schools.

This chapter presented an introduction, background to the problem, the researcher’s perspective, the purpose, the research questions, and a description of the study. The delimitations, limitations, definitions and the significance of the study were also included. Chapter two reviews the literature relevant to the topics of beginning teacher induction, the psychological contract, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools. Chapter three outlines the methodology used including the research design, data collection, data analysis, and ethical considerations. Chapter four details the research results in relation to the questions presented in this chapter. Chapter five concludes with the discussion, conclusions and implications of the study.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

For the purposes of this study it is important to understand the concepts of beginning teacher induction, beginning teachers’ psychological contract, and flourishing as it pertains to schools. The literature is presented in three sections: Part I: Beginning Teacher Induction; Part II: The Psychological Contract; and Part III: Flourishing.

2.1 Part I: Beginning Teacher Induction

The effectiveness of a student’s teacher is the most important factor in producing consistently high levels of student achievement (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Wong et al., 2005). With student achievement as the ultimate goal of educational organizations, beginning teacher induction is a process by which organizations can support beginning teacher development. Induction programs ease the transition of teachers into schools and classrooms and provide a support structure that new teachers can access for assistance and guidance (Laitsch, 2005). When a comprehensive, coherent professional development program such as an induction program is provided, there is an increased likelihood of beginning teacher success (Wong, 2004).

2.1.1 Defining Induction

Wong (2005) purported that beginning teacher induction is a highly organized and comprehensive form of teacher development, involving many people and components that ought to continue as a sustained process for the first two to five years of teacher’s career. Wong stated that the beginning teacher induction process is organized by a school district to train, support, and retain new teachers, which then seamlessly progresses teachers into a lifelong learning program. Simplified, induction is defined as the “period of transition from student to
professional” (Blair-Larson, 1998, p. 602). Induction should be considered part of the education continuum which includes preservice, induction, and inservice (Huling-Austin, 1990).

When defining induction, it is useful to consider the concept of teacher mentoring. Although the terms of mentoring and induction are at times used synonymously, mentoring is not induction: it is a component of the induction process (Wong et al., 2005). Mentoring is a process by which a more experienced or knowledgeable individual offers assistance to a less expert individual. The support may or may not be structured in a full-or part-time capacity. A mentor is a single person, whose basic function is to help a new teacher. Mentors are very important, when they are a part of a comprehensive induction process aligned to the district’s vision, mission, and structure (Wong, 2005). In short, mentoring alone is not enough to ensure induction success. Mentoring, when done well, can provide an important component of induction, but it is only one piece of what should be a system of induction (Fulton, Yoon, & Lee, 2005).

Prior to induction planning and implementation, support from an educational organization with a strong vision is required (Moir & Gless, 2001).

**2.1.2 Requisite Supports for Induction: An Organization with a Vision**

When induction becomes a priority and commitment for the organization, beginning teachers receive the supports necessary for success.

**2.1.2.1 Organizational commitment and support.** States, provinces, districts, schools and higher educational institutions all have a stake in ensuring that every new teacher becomes a great teacher (Fulton et al., 2005). Leaders at all levels have important roles to ensure that new teachers are inducted into strong learning communities that support their continued growth.

Induction policy is necessary to ensure program and teacher success. In responding to questions posed by California teachers, and after analyzing the California Beginning Teacher
Support and Assessment Program (BTSA), Lovo et al. (2006) determined that the most successful induction programs are those that have the commitment from the district level of all those involved in development and support of beginning teachers, including university presidents, faculty, trustees, and policy makers. Exemplary induction programs consist of an administrative group that oversees, coordinates, sets policy, provides goals, and rigorously monitors the induction program to ensure effective teacher performance (Paine, Pimm, Britton, Raizen, & Wilson, 2003). In their case study analysis, Carver and Feiman-Nemser (2009) emphasized the “relationship among induction programs, policies, and practices, including the various ways they inform and shape one another in the context of new teacher support” (p. 296). They went on to state that “policy can succeed in changing teaching and learning when that policy affords teachers meaningful and ongoing opportunities to learn what the reform asks of them, and when there is coherence among policy instruments and within organizational structure” (p. 322). When local teacher organizations, top-level district administration, and site administrators all hold new teacher support as a high priority, they can work as partners to design policies which will assist beginning teachers (Moir & Gless, 2001).

Induction support prioritized in policy, contract negotiations, and budget allotments reflects an understanding of new teacher needs. Funds need to be in place to provide full-time administrators to implement the programs and to support mentor teachers monetarily by providing release time and/or through other forms of professional recognition (Huling-Austin & Murphy, 1987). Finally, organizations with clear communication between all departments including curriculum and instruction and human resources, will contribute to the success of the induction program (Moir & Gless, 2001).
2.1.2.2 Program vision. Huling-Austin (1986) suggested that induction programs improve the teaching performance of beginning teachers if the teachers are provided with ongoing support and assistance grounded in a clearly articulated, context-specific vision of what the program should be. Induction programs must aspire to more than retention; instead, they must seek to promote a vision of the highest quality of instruction possible (Moir & Gless, 2001). The program should set high professional expectations and standards and should support the beginning teacher in meeting such levels of accomplishment. The vision should consider how quality induction can create professionalism among all teachers. The question should be asked, “What is the vision for our teachers and students and how will this program help reach this vision?” (Moir & Gless, 2001, p. 111). The program should not simply prepare teachers for minimum survival, but should be directed toward building the beginning teachers’ greatest leadership capacity and potential from the moment they enter the classroom. The vision of the successful beginning teacher should be clear. Induction programs have the potential to become the focus for educational change and professional renewal and leaders must recognize this potential.

The literature on beginning teacher induction appears to answer three questions: the “Why” of induction, the “What” of induction, and the “How” of induction. Answering “why” provides the goals of the induction process. Supporting professional and personal growth is considered when reflecting on “what” is addressed during the induction process. Finally, the “how” of induction includes mentoring supports and professional development.

2.1.3 The “Why” of Induction: Goals of the Process

The beginning teacher induction process supports the learning and growth of new teachers. The purpose of induction is to build something desirable: effective teachers, a strong
teaching force, a vital profession, and optimum learning for students in schools (Paine et al., 2003). Huling-Austin (1988) identified five goals of an effective teacher induction program. Other researchers (as noted below) have also written about the various aspects of the induction goals which include:

1. to improve teaching performance (Strong, 2006),
2. to increase the retention of promising beginning teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Darling-Hammond & Berry, 2006; Ingersoll & Perda, 2009; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004; Strong, 2006),
3. to promote and support the personal and professional well-being of beginning teachers (Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999; Gold, 1996),
4. to satisfy mandated requirements related to induction and certification (Lovo et al., 2006), and
5. to transmit the culture of the system to beginning teachers (Wood, 2005).

Ultimately, beginning teachers experience a smoother transition into teaching when induction supports are in place (Huling-Austin, 1986).

When acknowledging the importance of Huling-Austin’s (1988) initial goal of improving teacher performance it is worthwhile to consider effective teaching behaviours and the teacher’s relationship to student achievement.

2.1.3.1 Effective teacher behaviours. Good teachers display specific behaviours or practices as they help students to succeed (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2005; Eble, 1988). Darling-Hammond and Baratz-Snowden (2005) described a numbers of characteristics associated with effective teaching behaviours. They claimed that those teachers, whose students demonstrate achievement, do more than simply stand at the front of the classroom and lecture. Students experience success because their teachers implement many different tools to assess how their students learn, as well as what their students know. Teachers use this information to help all
students advance from where they are to where they need to be. They carefully organize activities, materials, and instruction based on students’ prior knowledge and level of development so that all students can be successful. They explain clearly, are well-prepared, and make topics easy to understand. They adapt the curriculum and adjust instruction to meet individual needs. Effective teachers engage students in active learning and set expectations for high quality work (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2005). They plan for and create a well-functioning and well-managed classroom, where students feel safe taking risks and where learning occurs.

In a three-year study Hildebrand, Wilson, and Dienst (1971) developed a teacher description scale which describes the characteristics of effective teachers. They concluded that good teachers demonstrate good individual and group interaction with their students. They can stimulate, direct, and pace interaction with the class and encourage independent thought. They are perceived as fair, especially in their methods of evaluation and are viewed as approachable and a valuable source of advice even on matters not directly related to the course being taken. Effective teachers also maintain regular contact with parents to ensure that students have the supports required to be successful.

2.1.3.2 Teachers affecting achievement. Research supports the view that good teachers make a difference in student achievement and that learning is significantly impacted by having quality, experienced teachers interacting with students (Marshak & Klotz, 2002; Wayne & Youngs, 2003). Wong et al. (2005) stated that “an effective teacher is perhaps the most important factor in producing consistently high levels of student achievement” (p. 1). Studies completed by Sanders and Rivers (1996) and Haycock (1998) claimed that as teacher effectiveness increases, lower achieving students are the first to benefit and the top quintile of teachers facilitate
appropriate to excellent gains for students of all achievement levels (Sanders & Rivers, 1996, p. 2). In fact, in the seminal studies completed by Sanders and Rivers (1996) in Dallas, and confirmed by Jordan, Mendro, and Weersinghe (1997) in a longitudinal study in Tennessee, differences in teacher effectiveness were found to be “strongly related to actual, unadjusted student outcomes” (p. 6). Haycock (1998) noted that the difference between a good teacher and a bad teacher can be a full level of achievement in a single school year. In fact, Fulton, Yoon, and Lee (2005) stated that students who have ineffective teachers for three or more consecutive years may never catch up to peers who have had stronger teachers. Sanders and Horn (1998) confirmed the effectiveness of the teacher is the major determinant of student academic progress, recognizing that race, socioeconomic level, class size, and classroom heterogeneity are poor predictors of student academic growth. Darling-Hammond (2000), who has written several articles about effective teachers and induction over the past years, stated that the effects of well-prepared teachers on student achievement can be stronger than the influences of student background factors, such as poverty, language background, and minority status. She claimed that while smaller class sizes appear to contribute to student learning, particularly in fields like elementary reading, the gains realized by smaller classes are most likely to be realized when they are accompanied by the hiring of well-qualified teachers.

In addition to teachers who effectively deliver content, Jennings and Greenberg (2009) spoke about how socially and emotionally competent teachers also affect student achievement. Socially and emotionally competent teachers set the tone of the classroom by developing and encouraging relationships with their students, designing lessons that build on student strengths and abilities, establishing and implementing behavioural guidelines, and coaching students through conflict situations. They also make more responsible decisions in the classroom and are
able to manage relationships with others. Competent teacher behaviours are associated with optimal classroom behaviour, connected to positive student outcomes and achievement. Student learning depends substantially not only on what teachers know, but also what they can do with the students in their classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

2.1.4 The “What” of Induction: Supporting Professional Practice and Personal Growth

Induction programs support both the professional and personal growth of beginning teachers (Huling-Austin, 1986). In Australian case studies completed from 1997-2001, Manuel (2003) emphasized the importance of attending to both the professional and personal needs of beginning teachers. Jorissen (2003) conducted interviews of beginning urban teachers who also described the importance of supporting their professional and personal well-being, particularly through effective mentorship.

2.1.4.1 Attending to professional practice. Gold (1996) focused on the problems associated with beginning classroom teaching; the skills necessary to be successful in the classroom. In a review of eighty-three studies detailing the challenges experienced by beginning teachers, Veenman (1984) emphasized the need to support beginning teachers as they perfect their professional practice. Clearly articulated standards of professional practice are essential in helping both the novice teacher communicate effectively about high-quality teaching and increased student learning (Moir & Gless, 2001).

Danielson (2007) posited that emphasis should be placed on the standards of practice. When standards are communicated through both supervisory visits and conversations with mentors, beginning teachers become familiar with the language and concepts of good practice. Further, Danielson provided a framework for professional performance which includes four
domains by which teachers can strive for proficiency: *Planning and Preparation, Classroom Environment, Instruction,* and *Professional Responsibilities.*

The domain of Planning and Preparation describes the critical, behind-the-scenes work of organizing for classroom instruction where the teacher transforms the curriculum so that it is accessible to students. Teachers must set instructional outcomes, demonstrate knowledge of resources, and design coherent instruction and assessments. The Establishing a Classroom Environment domain includes a critical aspect of a teachers’ skill-building, as students cannot concentrate if they do not feel comfortable in the classroom. Proficient teachers create an environment of respect and rapport and establish a culture for learning where they manage classroom procedures and student behaviours. The Instruction domain describes the critical interactive work that teachers undertake as they bring the content to their students as teachers question and discuss with students to ensure they are engaged in the learning. The domain of Professional Responsibilities provides teachers with opportunities to demonstrate their commitment to high ethical and professional standards and seek to improve their practices (Danielson, 2007). Induction programs which focus on supporting beginning teachers’ professional practice encourage beginning teachers to become proficient at their craft.

### 2.1.4.2 Attending to personal growth

Huling-Austin (1986) contended that a profession has the responsibility for the well-being of its members, and that it is professionally irresponsible not to provide beginning teachers with personal support when it is needed. Huling-Austin claimed that a healthy personal well-being is integral to classroom success. Based on the cognitive motivational model of *hope theory,* hopeful thinking is positively associated with perceived well-being, confidence and self-esteem, and that higher hope is also correlated with social confidence (Snyder et al., 2003). When considering the model, high-hope teachers were
clear about their objectives, emphasized preparation and planning and remained enthusiastic about the way they taught. Ultimately, schools with beginning teachers who demonstrate high academic optimism provide an atmosphere conducive to learning.

When discussing the literature on supporting beginning teachers’ personal growth it is useful to explore the following areas including; 1) building relationships; 2) establishing work/life balance; 3) finding belonging; 4) experiencing independence; and 5) developing efficacy.

2.1.4.2.1 Building relationships. Ingersoll and Smith (2004) contend that if beginning teachers develop strong relationships with members of their organization, they are more likely to succeed. Such relationships may be with individuals or with groups within the school. One way by which these relationships can develop is when beginning teachers are assigned a competent mentor, preferably who teaches the same grade level (Huling-Austin, 1988) and within the same subject matter (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). Positive relationships develop with the mentor who can be of real help to a new teacher as a safety net and source of emotional support at times of great stress and many challenges (Wong, 2005). Beginning teachers who reside in schools with effective professional learning communities (Dufour, 2004) work collaboratively with others and find common areas of interest both personally and professionally.

2.1.4.2.2 Establishing work/life balance. Interviews with beginning teachers, as described by Brock and Grady (2007) reveal “they feel overwhelmed with the realities, complexities and workload of teaching” (p. 28). They often find it difficult to do anything past preparing for teaching. Moir (1990) described teachers who progress through stages of development including the survival stage where they struggle with the realities associated with having their own classroom. During the survival stage beginning teachers are consumed with the
daily routines and have little time to reflect on teaching. Particularly overwhelming is the time required for planning and preparation, as well as completing assessment. In addition, many volunteer for extra-curricular activities that consume after-school and weekend time. A phenomenon commonly referred to as transition shock (Gordon & Maxey, 2000) or reality shock (Veenman, 1984) describes where beginning teachers experience the “collapse of the missionary ideals formed during teacher training by the hard and rude reality of everyday classroom life” (Veenman, 1984, p. 143). Beginning teachers are shocked into the profession and require assistance to find a work-life balance so that they are able to manage classroom challenges and find time for other interests in their everyday lives. Supports are required to ensure that beginning teachers are aware of the need for a work/life balance in order to remain in the profession long term.

2.1.4.2.3 Finding belonging. Teaching can be a lonely job. Beginning teachers desire belonging; they want to feel included in their school organization, but may spend a majority of their day in their classrooms with students, and have few opportunities to engage with fellow colleagues. They may feel like the new kid on the block (Brock & Grady, 2007) as “many faculties are close-knit groups that have a shared history and close friendships” (p. 21). In fact, some teachers go so far as to deliberately exclude the newcomer from the group. In a 2004 longitudinal study of fifty beginning teachers, Johnson (2004) claimed that in some cases veteran colleagues hoarded books or lesson plans, dismissed or even ridiculed new teacher’s ideas, sabotaged improvement efforts and constantly complained and criticized beginning teachers. If the staff is composed of experienced teachers, beginning teachers are often challenged to find common interests with staff members, or experience difficulty in engaging in conversations. They struggle to find their place in the school social structure (Brock & Grady, 2007). Beginning
teachers, including those who work in small rural schools, may feel a sense of isolation (Dussault, Deaudelin, Roywer, & Loiselle, 1997; Schlichte, Yssel, & Merbler, 2005). They may live long distances from other communities and may in some cases be the only teacher on staff. It is important for organizations to pay careful attention to belonging issues as teachers who do not fit in may struggle in the classroom and eventually end up leaving the profession.

2.1.4.2.4 Experiencing independence. Many beginning teachers are experiencing independence for the first time. They feel anxieties associated with living on their own, dealing with their financial situation, and perhaps fulfilling the role of a spouse in new relationship. Where identity was previously associated with their role a student or family member, they are now establishing and becoming comfortable with a new identity; that of a teacher. They must now exemplify what it means to be a teacher through their behavior, dress and lifestyle. New teachers look to colleagues in their school to help them find this identity (Brock & Grady, 2007). When studying the effectiveness of established beginning teacher programs in the Netherlands, Stokking, Leenders, DeJong, and Van Tartwijk (2003) stated that supporting a gradual increase in beginning teacher independence was a relevant factor in reducing beginning teacher shock and attrition.

2.1.4.2.5 Developing efficacy. A strong sense of efficacy and well-being will enhance instruction in the classroom (Snyder et al., 2003). When reflecting on three teachers, whose work had been the subject of a long term inquiry into the study of teaching, Hansen (1998) concluded that teachers' attitudes, dispositions and beliefs associated with their sense of self-efficacy influence their thinking and behaviours and are critical to classroom success. In a 2011 mixed method study of teacher effectiveness Lewis (2011) stated that having a strong sense of self-efficacy was one of the most cited attributes of an effective teacher.
Recent research around teacher well-being references the importance of teacher hopefulness. Teachers, who describe a strong sense of efficacy, solid virtues and emotional commitment, demonstrate happiness, are optimistic about their work and have an emotional sense of well-being (Hoy & Tarter, 2011). Beginning teachers with a sense of hopefulness will develop a resiliency to rebound from difficulties, failures and conflict, and will be better able to adapt, improvise and adjust (Walker, 2006). In fact, individuals with a strong sense of self-efficacy demonstrate hopefulness which in turn, enables confidence and risk-taking (Bandura, 1993).

Beginning teachers with a strong sense of self-efficacy tend to develop resilience and determination. Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk-Hoy, & Hoy (1998) also emphasized that “self-efficacy beliefs influence thought patterns and emotions that enable actions in which people expend substantial effort in pursuit of goals, persist in the face of adversity, rebound from temporary setback, and exercise some control over events that affect their lives” (p. 210). Findings from Lewis (2011), indicated that beginning teachers, with a strong sense of self-efficacy, referred to having high expectations, being self-motivated, experiencing life-long learning, being positive, optimistic, reflective, confident conscientious and observant. When beginning teachers have a strong understanding of themselves and their beliefs, plus a sense of responsibility for students’ outcomes, they may have a better chance of developing into experts (Roehrig, Turner, Grove, Schneider, & Liu, 2009).

After the determining why induction is important, as well as what induction involves, the implementation of the induction process, or the “how” of induction is considered.
2.1.5 The “How” of Induction: Mentoring and Professional Development

Effective induction is supported through mentorship and professional growth and development opportunities.

2.1.5.1 Support through mentorship. Several researchers (Ferguson & Morihara, 2007; Moir, 2003; Moir & Gless, 2001; Sweeny, 2008) suggested effective induction programs should incorporate quality mentoring (focusing on the importance of the mentor) facilitated through networking (classroom-based learning, role/support of the administrator, regular meetings, observation of/by teachers, and professional learning communities).

2.1.5.1.1 Quality mentoring. The mentor is the most important feature of a high quality induction program (Hellsten et al., 2009; Huling-Austin & Murphy, 1987; Moir & Gless, 2001). Moir and Gless (2001) stated that no technology, no curriculum, no standardized structures can substitute for the power of a knowledgeable and skillful veteran to move a novice teacher to ambitious levels of teaching. Huling-Austin and Murphy (1987) claimed that the assignment of a support teacher may well be the most powerful and cost-effective induction practice available to program developers.

Beginning teachers rely on their mentors. In fact, “first-year teachers who were assigned designated support teachers consistently reported that those persons were who they relied upon most heavily for assistance” (Huling-Austin & Murphy, 1987, p. 35). Huling-Austin and Murphy stated that those who participated in the program indicated that substantial amounts of change in teaching were attributed to the assistance received from mentors through the induction program. Most of those changes were of an instructional nature that led directly to student improvement. Induction programs which were deemed successful in France, China, New Zealand, and Switzerland included new teachers who discussed individual lessons with their
mentors and sometimes others and were encouraged to talk about particular pupils (Paine et al., 2003).

Hellsten et al. (2009) stated that the compatibility of the mentor and beginning teacher must be considered when designing an effective induction program. This could include educational training, common interests, and/or educational philosophy. Huling-Austin (1988) stated that having a mentor who teaches the same grade level or subject matter as the new teacher is desirable. Ingersoll and Smith (2004) concurred that the best programs paired beginning teachers with mentors from the same field and went further to state that these teachers were less likely to leave after their first year.

However, as described earlier, Wong (2005) proposed that the mere presence of a mentor is not enough. A good mentor can be of real help to a new teacher as a safety net and source of emotional support at times of great stress and many challenges. But a poorly prepared or over-extended mentor can be of little assistance, and in some situations where mentor selection is haphazard, mentors may even reinforce bad practice (Wong, 2005). Ferguson and Mohihara (2009) claimed that supporting new teachers is complex and demanding work, and the mentor fulfills a diversified role which requires skills that regular teachers do not usually possess. Simply having years of teaching experience is insufficient to be a mentor. Quality mentoring requires careful selection, training, and on-going support. Mentors should receive training in how to fulfill the role, including how to work with another adult in a supportive fashion (Huling-Austin & Murphy, 1987; Stanulis & Ames, 2009), providing both emotional and informational support (Katz, 2011). The mentor’s knowledge of how to support new teachers and skills at providing guidance are crucial (Evertson & Smithey, 2000; Garvey & Galloway, 2002). Mentors must have strong interpersonal skills, credibility with peers and administrators, a demonstrated
curiosity and eagerness to learn, respect for multiple perspectives, and outstanding instructional practice. They must have an in-depth understanding of teacher development, professional teaching standards, performance assessment, and student content standards, along with strategies for classroom observation and a variety of coaching techniques (Moir & Gless, 2001). Bickmore, Bickmore, and Hart (2005) suggested that it is important that mentors must want to be leaders in the process, and that careful selection of the mentor is important so as not to have a negative effect on the new teacher.

2.1.5.1.2 Facilitating mentoring through networking. Various researchers state that mentoring, through effective networking is important to successful induction. Although not meant to be exhaustive, the literature illustrates that mentoring through networking can be facilitated through the concepts presented in the following table (see Table 2.1).

2.1.5.2 Professional growth and development. Professional development is a necessary component in a comprehensive system of beginning teacher induction (Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999). Lovo et al. (2006) stated that when teachers are provided professional development, they are better able to move from novice to expert status over time.

Effective professional development includes opportunity for beginning teachers to create professional growth plans which focus on goal-setting. Dufour et al. (2010) claimed that SMART goals, which are specific, measurable, attainable, relevant and timely, should form the basis of the professional growth plan. Eaker, Dufour, and Dufour (2002) suggested that when setting goals, teachers reflect on what they want the students to learn, how they will know if they learn it, and what to do if they do not learn it. Beginning teachers need to be expected to set clear, reasonable, and achievable goals, reflect upon and articulate successes and challenges, identify effective practices in their own classroom and in others’ classrooms, and recognize the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mentoring/Networking Concept</th>
<th>Supporting Literature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classroom-based learning</td>
<td>Brooks (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gordon &amp; Maxey (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shidler (2009)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wang, Odell, &amp; Schwille (2008)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wong (2005)</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Johnson (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Larabee (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive administration</td>
<td>Algozzine, Gretes, Queen, &amp; Cowan-Hathcock (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alliance for Excellent Education (2004)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Armstrong (1984)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feiman-Nemser &amp; Parker (1992)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Glickman (1984)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Littrell, Billingsley, &amp; Cross (1994)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Smylie &amp; Hart (1999)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wayne, Youngs, &amp; Fleishman (2005)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wong (2005)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Professional learning communities</td>
<td>Andrews &amp; Lewis (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conzemius &amp; O’Neill (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dufour (2004)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eaker, Dufour, &amp; Dufour (2002)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Eick (2002)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, &amp; Yoon (2001)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Hollins, McIntyre, DeBose, Hollins, &amp; Towner (2004)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Johnson, &amp; Birkeland (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kardos, Johnson, Peske, Kauffman, &amp; Liu (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prytula, Makahonuk, Syrota, &amp; Pesenti (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rolheiser &amp; Hundey (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vescio, Ross, &amp; Adams (2008)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
complexity of good teaching and the need for career-long professional development (Moir & Gless, 2001). As part of the goal-setting process, beginning teachers should also be expected to complete professional practice portfolios, which document the work being done (Sweeney, 2008). Portfolios allow beginning teachers to celebrate their successes and focus on areas for improvement and growth.

2.1.6 Additional Considerations When Contemplating Induction

Beginning teachers’ stages of development and their challenges experienced during their initial years of teaching may be valuable concepts to consider when invoking policy makers and educators involved in supporting beginning teachers into thinking about effective induction.

2.1.6.1 Beginning teachers’ stages of development. Various researchers (Berliner, 1988; Fuller, 1969; Katz, 1972; Lortie, 1975; Moir, 1990) have acknowledged beginning teachers’ stages of development (see Table 2.2). They suggest that those responsible for induction consider the beginning teachers’ stages of development when planning effective programs.

Table 2.2 Beginning Teachers’ Stages of Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Stage 1</th>
<th>Stage 2</th>
<th>Stage 3</th>
<th>Stage 4</th>
<th>Stage 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fuller (1969)</td>
<td>Survival</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>Impact</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Stages of Concern</em></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katz (1972)</td>
<td>Survival</td>
<td>Consolidation</td>
<td>Renewal</td>
<td>Maturity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lortie (1975)</td>
<td>Compliance</td>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>Internalization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Enculturation</em></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moir (1990)</td>
<td>Anticipation</td>
<td>Survival</td>
<td>Disillusionment</td>
<td>Rejuvenation</td>
<td>Reflection</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * levels not experienced by beginning teachers
In earlier research, Fuller (1969) described the *stages of concern* where teachers experience the stages of survival, master, and impact. Each stage carries with it concerns regarding self (survival concerns), task (teaching situation concerns), and pupil (teaching impact concerns). In 1972, Katz stated that the growth of teachers generally occurs in four stages associated with survival, consolidation, renewal, and maturity. He indicated that training needs of teachers change as they gain experience over time and move through the stages. Training and support needs to be appropriate for the specific stage, and experience alone is insufficient for a teacher’s growth.

Lortie (1975) spoke about the teacher socialization framework where *enculturation* into the profession occurs either through overt efforts by the administration or accidentally, but included in Berliner’s model enculturation by the teaching situation itself, their colleagues or students. Lortie claimed that new teachers pass through stages of compliance (behave as they are expected to), identification (recognize the difference between how they are expected to behave and how they feel they should behave), and internalization (they personalize their role as teacher, resolving the perceived differences of the earlier stage).

Berliner (1988), who created a model describing the development of teacher expertise in five stages, speculated that the novice stage, where teachers make decisions by simple and context-free rules might last for the first year of teaching. Classroom teaching at this level requires purposeful concentration. When teachers reach the advanced beginner stage, experience becomes melded with personal theoretical knowledge. An advanced beginner starts to realize the limitations of rules, but still has difficulties in discriminating between what is important and what is unimportant. Beginning teachers may reach the third stage which is described as
competent but stages 4 (proficient) and 5 (expert) are realistically reached by teachers in their fifth years of teaching and beyond.

Moir (1990) determined that first year teachers experience five distinct phases over the course of a school year. These phases include the Anticipation Phase, the Survival Phase, the Disillusionment Phase, the Rejuvenation Phase and the Reflection Phase.

The Anticipation Phase begins as teachers enter the teaching profession after completing their teacher in-service. There is anticipation as they look toward making a difference in their students’ lives. The excitement of this phase carries teachers through their first few weeks in the classroom. Moir’s Survival Phase begins as teachers recognize the realities associated with having their own classroom. They focus on survival in addressing the problems that they begin to encounter. Teachers are consumed with the daily routines and have little time to reflect on teaching. Particularly overwhelming is the need to develop year, unit and lesson plans connected to the curriculum. However, most beginning teachers remain enthusiastic even throughout the long hours of work. After eight weeks of hard work and stress, Moir stated that beginning teachers enter the Disillusionment Phase. They question their commitment and competence as they encounter and adjust to their first experiences with evaluation and parent contact. Teachers are often exhausted during this phase and find less time for family, with all energies being needed to prepare for teaching. The Rejuvenation Phase is connected to winter break, as teachers have made it through the Disillusionment Phase, have become rested and are feeling better about the work they have done. They are self-reflective about the first half of the year and are feeling more comfortable as part of the school community. Finally, during the Reflection Phase, usually around May, teachers are now able to reflect on their first year in their classroom.
They begin to plan for the next year and start to create a vision of what the following year will look like. This results in a new phase of anticipation (Moir, 1990).

Recognizing the phases new teachers go through provides a framework within which support programs can be designed that make the first year of teaching a more positive experience (Moir, 1990).

2.1.6.2 Challenges for beginning teachers. The challenges faced by beginning teachers are likely to be considered when discussing induction. With limited experience and practical knowledge to draw on, many beginning teachers feel overwhelmed and uncertain (Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999). Veenman (1984) described the 24 most frequently perceived problems of beginning teachers including concerns about “classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing students’ work, relations with parents, organization of the class work, insufficient materials and supplies, dealing with problems of individual students, heavy teaching load resulting in insufficient prep time, relations with colleagues” (pp. 154-155). Effective induction processes address the same kinds of challenges for beginning teachers described by Veenman.

Beginning teachers encounter many challenges which are environmental in nature; they are grounded in the culture of the teaching profession within the school. Specifically, Gordon and Maxey (2000) and others as noted in Table 2.3, indicated that new teachers may be challenged by the following: a difficult work assignment, unclear expectations, inadequate resources, a feeling of isolation, a lack of classroom ‘savvy’, role conflict, and reality shock. Supports provided through effective induction have the capability to diminish or alleviate such challenges.
Table 2.3 Beginning Teachers’ Environmental Challenges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environmental Challenges</th>
<th>Supporting Literature</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Difficult work assignment</td>
<td>Feiman-Nemser, Carver, Schwille, &amp; Yusko (1999)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Kurtz (1983)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Romatowski, Dorminey, &amp; Voorhees (1989)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unclear expectations</td>
<td>Corley (1998)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inadequate resources</td>
<td>Glickman (1984)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A feeling of isolation</td>
<td>Bell &amp; Sigsworth (1987)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bennett &amp; LeCompte (1990)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Bullough (1989)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Dufour (2004)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Dussault, Deaudelin, Roywer, &amp; Loiselle (1997)</td>
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<td>Gratch (1998)</td>
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<td>Hargreaves (1994)</td>
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<td>Houston &amp; Felder (1982)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Johnson (2004)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Newberry (1978)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A lack of classroom ‘savvy’</td>
<td>Corley (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role conflict</td>
<td>Braga (1972)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gehrke (1982)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reality shock</td>
<td>Cooper &amp; Stewart (2009)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Corcoran (1981)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Veenman (1984)</td>
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2.1.7 Summary

Part I, Beginning Teacher Induction presented a definition of induction and the prerequisites necessary prior to engaging in the induction process to ensure program success. The why or goals of induction were outlined. What is supported through induction processes, including the professional and personal development of beginning teachers, was discussed.
Mentorship and professional growth and development opportunities were offered as options for how induction can be accomplished. Other considerations such as beginning teachers’ stages of development and their experienced challenges were presented.

Fry (2009) summarized it well when stating that “teacher educators and K-12 personnel responsible for induction need to consistently and effectively provide research-based support, rather than leaving novices to find it on their own, lest we leave the success of new teachers and their students to trial and error” (p. 109). Fostering a supportive environment through a well-planned induction program may ensure that beginning teachers have the supports necessary to overcome the challenges faced early in their careers.

Part II provides literature on the psychological contract, a concept to be considered when planning and implementing beginning teacher induction supports.

2.2 Part II: The Psychological Contract

The concept of the psychological contract has recently received attention when discussing organizational behaviours. This attention is because the psychological contract offers an account for the difficulties in the employment relationship experienced by many organizations and possible ways to address them (Herriot, Manning, & Kidd, 1997). When addressing teacher induction, it is essential to consider the beginning teacher’s psychological contract to ensure that their needs and expectations are fulfilled. This section of the review will define the concept of psychological contract and discuss the relationships between individuals and contract partners, as well as the content of the contract. The need to fulfill the contract and avoid contract violation will be deliberated. Finally, reasons for studying the psychological contract and methods for measuring the contract will be presented to gain an appreciation of how the psychological contract might pertain to beginning teachers.
2.2.1 Creating a Definition

The idea of a ‘psychological contract’ originated in the work done by Argyris (1960), Levinson (1962) and Schein (1980) and is summarized by Rousseau (1995) as “the individual’s beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization” (p. 9). Psychological contracts are a component of employment relationships (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Psychological contracts emerge when “one party believes that a promise of future return has been made, a contribution has been given and an obligation has been created to provide future benefits” (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994, p. 246).

Schein (1980) described the psychological contract as “an unwritten set of expectations operating at all times between every member of the organization and the various managers and others in that organization” (p. 22). Employees have expectations for such things as salary, working hours, benefits and privileges. Many of these expectations are implicit and connected to the individual’s sense of self-worth (Schein, 1980). Individuals seek fulfilling work with opportunities for growth and further learning, and feedback on how they are doing. Schein also referred to the role of the organization, in that the organization also has expectations of the employee where the employee will enhance the image of the organization, remain loyal, and do his or her best.

In response to Guest’s (1998) aggressive commentary on the psychological contract, Rousseau (1998b) defined psychological contract theory as,

individual beliefs comprising the contract involve sets of reciprocal obligations and not expectations alone in which both the individual and the other party are believed to have committed themselves. Obligations arising from the exchange of promises constitute the building blocks of the psychological contract (p. 668).
Rousseau (1998b) claimed that although obligations are a form of expectation, they need not all entail a belief in mutuality or reciprocity. But, by definition, a psychological contract must be based on a reciprocal exchange which is mutually understood. The psychological contract is more than simply expectations.

In combing a number of perspectives, it appears that psychological contracts involve individuals’ beliefs about reciprocal arrangements made between themselves and their organization in which both parties fulfill their obligations.

2.2.2 Psychological Contract Relationships

Beginning teachers develop relationships with a multitude of individuals within their educational organization. Understanding psychological contract relationships will provide insight for those supporting beginning teachers in schools.

2.2.2.1 Involvement of individuals. When describing the psychological contract, the type of involvement between individuals and their organization is considered. In 1961, Etzioni determined three types of involvement where individuals were defined as 1) alienative, where the person is not psychologically involved, but is coerced to remain as a member; 2) calculative, where the person is involved to the extent of doing a fair day’s work for a fair day’s pay; and 3) moral, where the individual intrinsically values the organization’s mission and is personally involved and identified with the organization. Etzioni (1961) also stated that how individuals respond is dependent upon how they are treated by their organizations. Organizations described as coercive typically create alienative members, who are discontent at work. Utilitarian organizations tend to generate calculated members who expect economic rewards for their work and may or may not like their job or their employers. Finally, normative organizations tend to have moral members who value their jobs and the organization, wish to belong and are
supportive of its members. Whatever type of relationship exists between individuals and their organizations determines the type of psychological contract that will exist.

Getzels and Guba (1957) described the relationship between individuals and their organization; a theory known as organizational socialization. In organizational socialization both the individual and the organization have certain roles and expectations. Getzels and Guba identify the nomothetic dimension, as the organization’s roles and expectations. The nomothetic dimension refers to the organization’s purpose, structure, norms and roles expected of organizational members. They identify the idiographic dimension, which describes the needs and personalities of the individual with the organization (p. 424). The idiographic dimension refers to how individuals act within the organization. The two dimensions are assumed to be in constant interaction, where the organization strives to socialize the individual to its needs and the individual strives to socialize the organization to meet his or her expectations. Conformity to the institution, its roles, and its expectations leads to organizational effectiveness, while conformity to individuals, their personalities, and their need dispositions leads to individual efficiency. It seems likely that when members within the organization feel their established role is being satisfied and the individual feels their needs are met, the psychological contract is fulfilled. Expectations of both the organization and the individual are therefore realized.

2.2.2.2 Psychological contract partners. The question of determining with whom the psychological contract exists is one of importance. Rousseau (1998b) described this as an agency problem (p. 669). Agency theory is based on the belief that the psychological contract or incentive contract is made between employee and firm where managers are viewed as agents acting on behalf of the firm (Rousseau, 1998a). In agency theory, the incentive contract is made between the employee and firm and the agent is simply a go-between.
Rousseau’s research (1995; 1998a) determined that some confusion still exists for employees regarding with whom the contract exists: an agent such as a manager, or the principal contract-maker-such as the organization. Research on the psychological contract reveals potential for employees to misconstrue commitments made by the boss acting as the principal contract maker in the supervisor-subordinate relationship to reflect commitments made by the firm, when the boss was acting in his or her own interests (Rousseau, 1995). It appears important that all parties understand how the contract terms being portrayed by the agents are being interpreted by all members of the organization.

Finally, it is important to recognize that the psychological contract changes over time as both partners’ needs (employer and employee) change (Schein, 1980). Rousseau (1995) described the change as contract drift, where the partners themselves change and have different understanding of the contract’s terms. Therefore, employees who are early on in their career may have vastly different contracts with the organization than the experienced employee. And reciprocally, the organization will have different expectations for a beginning employee than one who has been with the organization for a period of time.

The psychological contract that forms between the teacher and the organization is likely to be a complex arrangement. The psychological contract involves a reciprocal understanding between the beginning teacher and a multitude of hosting individuals which may include the director of education, superintendents of education, school-based administrators, learning coaches/consultants, teachers, support staff, students, parents, and perhaps others. However, once the relationship is established, it is the best interest of both parties that the beginning teacher engage with the educational organization.
2.2.2.3 Organizational citizenship behavior. In a quantitative study of 126 MBA alumni, Robinson and Morrison (1995) described the concept of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). OCB refers to employee behavior whereby the employee commits to the organization beyond the literal contractual obligations (Organ, 1988, p. 22). It refers to any behavior that exceeds the contractual agreement between the employee and employer; that which moves beyond the written to the unwritten contract. OCB theory attends to the exchange relationship between the employee and employer and to notions of reciprocity and equity. Individuals engage in OCB to the extent that they feel empowered (Bogler & Somech, 2004) and believe that the organization is treating them fairly (Robinson and Morrison, 1995).

An individual’s OCB is affected by the degree to which the organization is fulfilling the individual’s psychological contract. Organ (1988) designated civic virtue as one of the dimensions of OCB. Based on a large scale quantitative study, civic virtue was defined as “behavior on the part of an individual that indicates that he/she responsibly participate in, is involved in, or is concerned about the life of the organization” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990, p.115). Fulfillment of the psychological contract influences the employee’s civic virtue behavior, that is, how they will contribute to their organization (Robinson & Morrison, 1995).

2.2.3 Psychological Contract Content

Common terms tend to be used when describing the content of psychological contracts. The terms incline to cluster together and fit into two categories: transactional and relational (Rousseau, 1995). The formation of content or building blocks of the psychological contract is also identified.
2.2.3.1 Transactional and relational contracts. The terms used to describe the psychological contract are transactional or relational (Herriot et al., 1997; MacNeil, 1985; Millward and Brewerton, 2000; Robinson et al., 1994; Rousseau, 1995). Transactional contracts involve specific, monetizable exchanges between parties over a finite and often brief period of time, whereas relational contracts involved open-ended, less specific arrangements that establish and maintain a relationship (Robinson et al., 1994). Rousseau (1995) outlined the following contract terms, which can be thought of as being at two ends of a continuum.

Transactional contract terms include:

- Specific economics conditions (e.g. wage rate) as primary incentive.
- Limited personal involvement in the job (e.g. working relatively few hours, low emotional investment).
- Closed-ended time frame (e.g. seasonal employment, 2 to 3 years on the job at most).
- Commitments limited to well-specified conditions (e.g. union contract).
- Little flexibility (e.g. change requires renegotiation of contract).
- Use of existing skills (e.g. no development).
- Unambiguous terms readily understood by outsiders.

Transactional terms, exemplified by a fair day’s work for a fair day’s pay, are generally created between employment agencies and services and their workers (Rousseau, 1995).

Relational contract terms include:

- Emotional involvement as well as economic exchange (e.g. personal support, concern for family well-being).
- Whole person relations (e.g. growth, development).
- Open-ended time frames (e.g. indefinitely).
• Both written and unwritten terms (e.g. some terms change over time).
• Dynamic and subject to change during the life of the contract.
• Pervasive conditions (e.g. affects personal and family life).
• Subjective and implicitly understood (e.g. conditions difficult for third party to understand). (Rousseau, 1995, pp. 91-92).

Relational terms involve a high degree of mutual interdependence by both the organization and the employee. Both transactional and relational psychological contracts require obligations to be fulfilled. The failure of one party to comply with its obligations will erode the relationship between the parties (Robinson et al., 1994).

2.2.3.2 Psychological contract building blocks. Rousseau (2001) described the building blocks of the psychological contract; what is necessary for the contract to develop: schema, promises and mutuality (p. 511). The content of the psychological contract is influenced by previous mental schema held by individuals regarding employment and the promises employment conveys. The contract can be determined by either the employee and employer’s philosophical beliefs, or what each believes are their legal rights and entitlements. Psychological contracts are created to a large extent from pre-employment experiences, recruiting practices, and in early on-the-job socialization. Rousseau advocates that contracts are also developed based on promises conveyed through words and action. Both parties involved in the contract respond to promises established by the competence in which the promise is made and under the context in which it is delivered. Finally, Rousseau claimed psychological contracts are created based on the understanding that the parties involved hold the same beliefs regarding their obligations to each other. She stated that perceived agreement, shared information between the parties, having the
power or the right to ask for terms deemed in one’s own interest, and having the right to consent to or reject the terms of the agreement are necessary conditions to achieve mutuality.

Rousseau (2001) claimed that as new recruits enter the workplace, they have limited or incomplete information regarding the nature of their employment relationship. The employer and its agents also have a lack of incomplete information regarding the new employee. Rousseau stated that the concept of schema is useful in conceptualizing how psychological contacts can form and function when incomplete information exists. She emphasized the importance of trust in sharing clear and consistent information so that both employee and employer have a mutual understanding regarding promises and obligations. Frequent interaction between parties with a common frame of reference promotes perceived and actual contract agreement. “Higher level beliefs regarding the nature of the employment exchange (relational or transactional) impact how individuals interpret and understand the contract commitment” (pp. 537-538). In addition, the issue of power difference needs to be considered as the contract develops between new recruits and the employer. The issue is whether a mutual psychological contract can develop and operate when employees are extremely low in power relative to their employer (Rousseau & Schalk, 2000).

2.2.4 Psychological Contract: Fulfillment or Violation

Psychological contract fulfillment seems to be the ultimate goal for both employee and employer. Understanding the concepts associated with both fulfillment and violation may be valuable when addressing the beginning teacher psychological contract with their educational organization.

2.2.4.1 Contract fulfillment. Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2000) researched the importance of psychological contract fulfillment in a longitudinal study of over 1400 public
sector employees and 84 managers. They described a reciprocal arrangement which supported the view that when employees feel that the psychological contract is fulfilled, they “cognitively adjust their obligations to the employer” (p. 18). They also noted a “bi-directionality of the norm of reciprocity” (p. 18) whereby as each party fulfilled their obligations within the psychological contract, the other responded, creating a cyclical process of exchange reciprocity. Fulfilled promissory obligations predict an employee’s behaviour in the organization in that there is a greater organizational commitment to the organization when the psychological contract is fulfilled (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002).

2.2.4.2 Contract violation. Various researchers have studied the consequences of the violation of the psychological contract; when both employee and employer are not fulfilling their obligations. In fact, any violation of the psychological contract by the organization erodes feelings of trust, beliefs in good faith, and fair dealing (MacNeil, 1985; Robinson & Morrison, 1995).

After conducting a qualitative study of 21 participants in the finance sector, Conway and Briner (2002) stated that the most important construct in psychological contract theory is that of breach. Breach, or violation of contract, is defined as occasions where an employee believes that their organization has failed to fulfill its promises (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). It is one of the main ways by which the psychological contract affects the employment relationship and employee behavior. Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler’s (2000) study confirmed that perceived contract breach results in a sense of discrepancy between what is promised and what is fulfilled.

Employer violations of transactional and relational contracts may affect what the employee feels he or she is owed and also what the employee feels obligated to offer in return (Robinson et al., 1994). Violations of transactional contracts create inequity in economics and
may reduce the benefits the employee receives. Transactional contract violations may be resolved by restoring the balance between inducements and contributions. Such repairs may be easier than those of relational contracts, where the damage may be irreparable (Robinson et al., 1994) due to the length of time required to repair damaged relationships.

Herriot et al. (1997) noted the consequences of psychological contract violation, stating:

they are so dangerous as to make it necessary for organizations to devote resources to discovering and agreeing what the psychological contract is, and then keeping it wherever possible. If it is essential to change the contract, then the attempt should be made to involve the employees in that renegotiation and to explain why the change is necessary (p.161).

Herriot et al.’s (1997) study results also refer to the benefits of exceeding the terms of the psychological contract in a transactional rather than relational manner to ensure that employees feel that the contract is fulfilled.

The consequences of violating the psychological contract or exceeding its terms appear to be immediate and predictable (Parks & Kidder, 1994) and associated with certain behaviours or outcomes. Psychological contract violation has been found to be associated with lower levels performance by various researchers (see Table 2.4). Cullinane and Dundon (2006) acknowledged Schein’s (1978) earlier contribution to the psychological contract literature when stating that labour unrest, employee dissatisfaction and worker alienation came from violations of the psychological contract. Turnley and Feldman (2000), in a quantitative study of over 800 managers, also noted that psychological contract violations were significantly related to employee’s efforts to find another job and the extent to which employees intentionally neglect their duties and responsibilities.
Morrison and Robinson (1997) provided a conceptual framework for psychological contract violation and emphasized the importance of responding appropriately to violation when it occurs. They offer implications for practice for both the employee and the organization regarding how to reduce the violation incident and the emotions that result. They suggest explicit discussions about obligations to ensure that both parties have a clear understanding of expectations.

2.2.4.3 Leader’s role. The leader or manager’s role in the organization influences how employees view whether or not the psychological contract is being fulfilled or violated. A key feature of the psychological contract and the expectations it encompasses is the way in which the expectations, as part of the psychological contract, are influenced by management rhetoric (Grant, 2011). Employees should have a belief that what management says is actually possible. Employees feel psychological contracts are violated when management rhetoric does not reflect
the reality that surrounds them. Grant (2011) believed that achieving rhetoric and sustaining its appeal might be a difficult task.

Leaders who fulfill psychological contracts are actively engaged and immersed in them. Effective leaders demonstrate their side of the psychological contract by their actions (Morrison, 1994). They contribute to healthier psychological contracts by behaving in ways consistent with their promises. Organizational supervisors play a critical role in minimizing violation by their actions (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). They provide realistic job previews to new employees, minimize reneging by exercising caution when they convey promises, and always provide clear feedback to employees (Morrison & Robinson, 1997, p. 252). In an exploratory longitudinal study of business school alumni, Robinson et al. (1994) emphasized the need for managers to pay more attention to managing beliefs regarding mutual obligations. Their study acknowledged an essential relationship between leaders’ actions and employees’ perceptions and fulfillment of their obligations.

2.2.5 Studying the Psychological Contract

There is current interest in studying the psychological contract from academics and practitioners alike, as both search for the factors likely to contribute to sustained employee motivation and commitment (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006; Rousseau, 2001). The psychological contract provides opportunity to reexamine the central aspects of organizational life; the employee–employer relationship (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000).

The intensified pressures facing organizations have generated major challenges in managing the employment relationship and “the psychological contract has been put forward as a framework for understanding the changes occurring in the exchange relationship between employees and employers” (Herriot et al., 1997, p. 904). Guest (2004) acknowledged
organizational pressures when he articulated the view that workplaces look different now than they did in the past considering the need for contract flexibility for part-time workers; thus requiring a framework such as the psychological contract as an option for studying people at work. Trends such as restructuring, downsizing, increased reliance on temporary workers, demographic diversity, high unemployment, and foreign competition are also influencing employees’ psychological contracts (Hiltrop, 1995; Morrison, 1994). The psychological contract appears useful when addressing a changing workplace considering that economic and formal aspects of employment in the organization are inevitably influenced by informal social interactions (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006).

The psychological contract is studied to gain a better understanding of human needs and reactions in the workplace (Morrison, 1994). Morrison presented the psychological contract as a useful tool in understanding and managing human responses to change. He stated that the psychological contract can be used to:

1. diagnose where to intervene or help,
2. explain to people what is happening to their feelings,
3. know where to look for inconsistencies in the strategy or plan, and
4. help see what everyone has implicitly agreed to ignore (p. 372).

Morrison encouraged employees and employers to work together to determine what the changes might have done to the psychological relationship and negotiate how both parties might proceed in solving issues.

Within the province of Saskatchewan, the psychological contract has been studied in the educational context. In a mixed method survey of 48 participants, Propp (2004) examined the employer-employee relationship as it pertained to rural Saskatchewan vice principals. His study
addressed the need for attention to the job description, skill enhancement, and overall “well-being” workplace obligations for employees and employers. Hrabok (2003) also examined the psychological contracts of educators when studying employment relationships that exist between college instructors and their employer, stating that such examination can “provide a more accurate comprehension of the idiosyncratic and inherently perceptual dimensions of the employment contract” (p. 1).

### 2.2.6 Measuring the Psychological Contract

Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998), along with others, have emphasized the importance of assessing the psychological contract. Early researchers (Argyris, 1960; Levinson, 1962) used employee interviews to create descriptions of psychological contracts. Two decades later, empirical assessment began appearing in the research, placing greater emphasis on quantitative assessments (Rousseau, 1994; Robinson et al., 1994). By 1998, Rousseau and Tijoriwala proposed a methodology which combined both qualitative and quantitative methods. They suggested that the psychological contract is, by definition, an “individual’s perception” and that “an individual can have a unique experience regarding his or her exchange relationship with the employer” (p. 680). The individual is therefore the direct source of information about what constitutes the psychological contract.

Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) concluded that:

- subjective or self-reported measures are the most direct source of information on the nature and content of the psychological contract;

- assessment focusing on promises, resulting obligations, and reciprocal exchanges are preferred forms of measures when operationalizing the psychological contract and its terms; and
• measures of ‘expectations’ are not direct operationalizations because they are contaminated by content unrelated to promissory interpretation (p. 681).

Measurement of the psychological contract can be considered in three forms: 1) **content-oriented** (specific terms focusing on individual elements such as job security; composite elements where items are grouped to create scales; and nominal classifications such as relational or transactional types); 2) **feature-oriented** (whether the contract is implicit/explicit or stable/unstable over time); and 3) **evaluation-oriented** (degree of fulfillment, change or violation experienced) (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998, pp. 784-785). Psychological contract content has been measured through both qualitative (Argyris, 1960; Levinson, 1962; Rousseau, 1995) and quantitative methods (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Feature-oriented measures in areas of contract scope and emergence and ratings of informality have been studied (Lusch & Brown, 1996; Parks & Van Dyne, 1995). Various researchers have implemented evaluation-oriented measures on the topic of contract violation (Conway & Briner, 2002; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Herriot et al., 1997; Nicholson & Johns, 1985; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

Research on the psychological contract has been limited by a number of common weaknesses, which result from a misunderstanding about the nature of the phenomena under investigation and the methods and designs used to examine these phenomena (Conway & Briner, 2002). Conway and Briner’s study results suggest that research on the psychological contract can benefit from methods beyond the questionnaire survey. Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) supported a mixed method approach when stating that “the promissory beliefs arising within the framework of a psychological contract comprise both person- and organization-specific content (typically assessed via qualitative methods) as well as theoretically meaningful domains.
generalizable across individuals and firms (usually operationalized through quantitative measures)” (p. 693). Because the psychological contract is ongoing, unfolds over time, and is involves individual experience, it appears that it can be studied through both qualitative and quantitative methodology.

2.2.7 Summary

Understanding the beginning teachers’ psychological contract with their organization will assist those who support beginning teachers by providing a greater understanding of beginning teacher needs. When the psychological contract is carefully studied, measured, understood, and fulfilled, individuals are more committed to their organizations, and both the individual and the organization are more likely to experience success.

The final section in the literature review provides insight into flourishing, with consideration for beginning teacher flourishing in schools.

2.3 Part III: Flourishing

Educational researchers have long studied the conditions for flourishing in learning, especially regarding the ways and means for children to flourish (Cherkowski & Walker, 2012). However, it appears that less information is available on how teachers flourish in their schools and what the organization can do to support their journey to flourishing. Before discussing beginning teacher flourishing it is necessary to define flourishing and understand the concept, as it pertains to well-being, wellness dimensions, theories, attainment, policy development, and measurement.

2.3.1 Defining Flourishing

Merriam-Webster’s dictionary defines flourishing as an “intransitive verb which means to grow luxuriantly (thrive); to achieve success (prosper); to be in a state of activity or production;
or to reach a height of development or influence” (Flourishing, Merriam-Webster, 2013, n.p.) The Merriam-Webster definitions might likely be descriptors of beginning teacher flourishing.

When referring to *flourishing* in the workplace and more specifically in the educational context, the literature and subsequently definitions, appears to be just emerging. However, a variety of terms are defined, which appear to be synonymous with flourishing (Diener & Seligman, 2004) including *happiness, well-being, and wellness*. In defining and conceptualizing these terms as they pertain to flourishing in the educational context, flourishing might inherently mean something more than merely happiness, well-being or wellness.

**2.3.1.1 Happiness.** As far back as 350 B.C.E. Aristotle discussed the importance of an individual’s happiness (*eudaimonia*). Aristotle believed that happiness depended on ourselves; that it was the central purpose of human life and a goal in itself. For Aristotle, happiness is the ultimate purpose of human existence; it is that end or goal for which we should direct all of our activities. He described searching for the *good life* (Ross, 2009). In studying Aristotle, Vanier (2012) claimed that happiness is “the great concern of our life….the great desire of every man and woman” (para. 2).

Epicurus (341–270 B.C.E.) believed that we should do our best to make our lives happy; to search for an inner tranquility. He claimed that happiness is not a private affair: it can be more readily achieved in a society where like-minded individuals band together to help inspire one another’s pursuit of happiness (Konstan, 2012).

More recently, Averill and More (2004) concluded that happiness is “the emotional state associated with full engagement or optimal performance in meaningful activity” (p. 664). They claimed that happiness is episodic, lasting varying lengths of time, organized toward a *goal or end state* (p. 665), and is both intrinsically and extrinsically driven.
Happiness is defined as it relates to individuals living a good or happy life (Seligman, 2004b). The happy life includes three dimensions: the pleasant life (having the most positive emotion possible), the good life (being engaged with others), and the meaningful life (using strengths to belong to and be engaged in something bigger than individual).

2.3.1.2 Well-Being. Well-being was defined by Dunn (1961) to mean a method of functioning oriented toward maximizing the individual’s potential within the environment where he is functioning. A working definition of well-being refers to “the presence of the highest possible quality of life in its full breadth of expression focused on but not necessarily exclusive to: good living standards, robust health, a sustainable environment, vital communities, an educated populace, balanced time use, high levels of democratic participation, and access to and participation in leisure and culture” (Canadian Index of Well-being, 2012).

2.3.1.3 Wellness. Van Sant (1991) (as cited in Sackney et al., 2000) defined wellness as the ability to clarify values, find purpose in life, and enhance the quality of everything we do. Wellness is influenced by events and circumstances in our private and professional lives. Wellness is considered a way of life focused toward optimal health and well-being in which body, mind and spirit are united, allowing the individual to live more fully within the human and natural community. “Ideally, it is the optimum state of health and well-being that each individual is capable of achieving” (Myers et al., 2000, p. 252).

Robbins et al. (1999) defined wellness as an integrated and dynamic level of functioning oriented toward maximizing potential, dependent upon self-responsibility, where there is a shift in thinking and attitude that results in lifelong growth and achievement. They also suggested that wellness is a lifestyle where individuals put forth continuous efforts to reach their full potential. When completing a study of wellness education, Poulin (2009) defined wellness “in the broadest
sense to include the physical, social, emotional, ecological, vocational, mental and spiritual dimensions of human existence” (p. 24). Finally, in an educational context, Lauzon (2003) spoke of teachers who are well as those who have the “energy, health and passion to inspire, motivate and educate” (p. 146).

In considering the many definitions of wellness or well-being, it seems that flourishing might describe an optimal state of health or well-being; the highest possible quality of life, where the individual’s body, mind and spirit are engaged in behaviours resulting in lifelong growth and achievement. Flourishing would therefore be the ultimate aspiration for beginning teachers working with students in schools.

2.3.2 Dimensions of Wellness

Wellness is commonly conceptualized as having many dimensions. The dimensions function separately, however there is a strong interdependence between dimensions (Robbins et al., 1999). Morris and DeVane (1994) outlined dimensions of wellness: social, mental, emotional, spiritual and physical dimensions. In a study of undergraduate college students, six dimensions of wellness were determined: physical, social, psychological, intellectual, emotional and spiritual (Adams et al., 2000, p. 166). Adams et al. determined the importance of the spiritual and psychological dimension as related to wellness in suggesting that an optimistic outlook for life will enhance a sense of overall wellness.

The Wheel of Wellness, developed by Myers et al. (2000) outlined wellness dimensions, or life tasks. The Wheel of Wellness includes five life tasks of spirituality, self-regulation, work and leisure, friendship and love, and 17 subcomponents of wellness (p. 252). Spiritually refers to the personal and private beliefs that transcend the material aspects of life and give a deep sense of connectedness to the universe. Self-regulation is a process that enables individuals to regulate
and direct daily activities as they pursue long-range goals. Work serves economic, psychological, and social purposes, and leisure activities provide opportunity for intrinsic satisfaction. Friendship considers all social relationships that involve connection with others either individually or in community, but do not have a marital, sexual, or familial commitment. Love includes those long-term relationships that are intimate, trusting, self-disclosing, cooperative, and compassionate; usually few in number from family and significant others (Myers et al., 2000, pp. 252-257).

Robbins et al. (1999) described seven dimensions of wellness: physical, intellectual, emotional, social, spiritual, environmental, and occupational (p. 6). As there is a strong interdependence between dimensions, growth in one area often is a catalyst for interest in another. Each dimension is regarded as having certain characteristics (see Table 2.5). Robbins et al. (1999) view wellness as “a combination of all seven dimensions, where the individual strives for growth in each dimension. Neglecting any one dimension may destroy the balance critical to high-level wellness” (pp.7-8).

2.3.2.1 Supporting dimensions of wellness. Researchers advocate that the workplace should be a place where dimensions of wellness, as outlined by Robbins et al. (1999), would be supported. It seems likely that these dimensions can be supported in an educational context in schools.

Employees who experience physical wellness are less obese, less likely to be absent from work, and more likely to have a positive influence on productivity (Proper, Hildebrandt, Van der Beek, Twisk, & van Mechelen, 2003). Workplaces that support intellectual (positive, psychological, and cognitive) well-being provide opportunities for individuals to work to
<table>
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<th>Wellness Dimension</th>
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| Physical           | • Functional operation of the body; health related components of physical fitness (muscular strength, muscular endurance, cardiorespiratory endurance, flexibility, and body composition)  
                      • Includes medical care                                                                                                                                 |
| Intellectual       | • Use of the mind as it contributes to well-being                                                                                                          
                      • Includes acquisition of knowledge through life experiences as well as school learning                                                              |
| Emotional          | • Ability of the individual to maintain a healthy mental state: emotional awareness, acceptance and management                                               
                      • Includes ability to laugh, enjoy life, adjust to change, cope with stress                                                                              |
| Social             | • Ability to get along with others                                                                                                                         
                      • Concern for humanity as a whole                                                                                                                        
                      • Involves having good friends, close family ties, community involvement, trusting relationships                                                           |
| Spiritual          | • May or may not involve a religious component                                                                                                             
                      • Involves experiencing life; discovering personal meaning and purpose for existence                                                                    |
| Environmental      | • Consideration for the preservation of resources; recycling and conservation practices                                                                    |
| Occupational       | • Ability to derive personal well-being from your vocation; deriving satisfaction from work                                                              
                      • Ensuring work and life/leisure balance                                                                                                                    |

improve themselves and to become lifelong learners (Ardell & Tager 1981). In schools, this can be provided through professional development opportunities for teachers (Lovo et al., 2006). Emotional wellness is supported when employees are able to speak openly regarding feelings and worries about work (Sackney et al., 2000; Ardell & Tager, 1981; Robbins et al., 1999). Social wellness requires opportunities for individuals to work with others, such as those provided by professional learning communities at schools (Ardell & Tager 1981; Dufour, 2004; Hellsten et al., 2009). In referring to the spiritual dimension, individuals strive for meaning and purpose in their existence, where wellness is not limited to religious beliefs, but rather it refers to broader concepts such as character education or moral education. (Myers et al., 2000; Townes, 1984). When organizations support spiritual needs, individuals are allowed to find balance, meaning, satisfaction, and happiness in their everyday lives (Purdy & Dupey, 2005). Employers would want to promote employee’s spiritual beliefs in order to encourage optimal wellness (Sackney et al., 2000). The environmental dimension is supported when facilities are such that employees work in safe and comfortable surroundings, and environments are not stress-provoking, but stress-eliminating (Sackney et al., 2000). Finally, the occupational dimension is supported when organizations provide jobs with creativity, daily challenge and autonomy, as well as an environment with minimal stress (Robbins et al., 1999).

2.3.3 Theories of Well-Being

A number of theories have been proposed when considering approaches to well-being, including those in areas of positive psychology and eudaimonic thought.

2.3.3.1 Positive psychology theory. Positive psychology is a facet of well-being that is studied because it offers a complement to the large amount of literature on negative emotion and has a high intuitive appeal (Forgeard, Jayawickreme, Kern, & Seligman, 2011). Recent emphasis
on positive organizational psychology focuses on the pursuit of employee happiness and health (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Wright, 2003). Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) claimed that organizational psychology builds on the strengths and virtues that attend to mental wellness rather than mental illness or weakness. The emphasis is on fostering performance through developing human strength, self-efficacy, optimism, resilience, hope and vitality (Cameron & Caza, 2004). Within the positive organizational theory, people who flourish live within an optimal range of human functioning, one that simultaneously connotes goodness, generativity, growth, and resilience. They demonstrate positive character, positive cognitions, and positive relationships; all mechanisms that seem to nurture human flourishing (Fredrickson, 2006).

Froman (2010) advocated for understanding the importance of positive psychology in the workplace. He acknowledged the impact stressors have on the day-to-day lives of people and suggests that the concepts of positive psychology have a role in helping people to cope more effectively and also open their minds to move forward with newfound confidence, resilience, determination, hope and vision for a better future (Froman, 2010, p. 59). Froman stated that hope is the starting point and is essential for nurturing the human spirit. In discussing hope, Fredrickson (2009) noted that people who have hope, believe that things can change, that no matter how uncertain things are at the moment, things can turn out better. In the context of the workplace, Youssef and Luthans (2007) found individuals with hope tend to overcome adversity and respond in ways that strengthen their effectiveness. Froman (2010) also reiterated the role that experiencing joy, gratitude, pride, and inspirations can play in motivating individuals. Research has shown a strong relationship between positive psychology and a productive, innovative and virtuous workplace (p. 61).
With a focus on positive psychology, Seligman (2011a) proposed Well-being Theory, which delineates the well-being construct into five domains: Positive emotion, Engagement, Relationships, Meaning, and Accomplishment (known as PERMA). Seligman’s theory posits that well-being consists of the nurturing of one or more of the five domains. No one element defines well-being, but each contributes to it. Some aspects of the five elements are measured subjectively by self-report and others are measured objectively. Seligman views the endpoint of his theory as well-being rather than happiness in order to stress the multifaceted nature of human flourishing and to prevent the usual confusion that is often made between happiness and cheerfulness. For Seligman, flourishing is the goal of positive psychology.

However, the positive organizational theory does not ignore the presence of negative, challenging aspects within organizations (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). In fact, some of the most significant examples of flourishing are often found within challenging and difficult situations. Positive organizational theory therefore considers both the positive and negative conditions and focuses upon how the challenges are interpreted, merged, and transformed to reveal the positive outcome. The emphasis is on trying to uncover what is affirmative for the individual within the organization.

2.3.3.2 Eudaimonic theory. Two theories in particular have become associated with an eudaimonic approach to well-being (Steger, Kashdan, & Oishi, 2007). The self-determination theory (SDT) outlined that eudaimonic well-being is attained when the psychological needs for relatedness, autonomy and competence are met (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The second theory, proposes that individuals reach well-being when they demonstrate six constructs: relatedness, autonomy, personal growth, self-acceptance, purpose in life, and environmental mastery (Ryff & Singer, 1998). Both theories prescribe that well-being is attained through satisfying specific
needs (SDT), or consists of specific content. Both contend that when the characteristics described are present, individuals strive for things in life that are inherently meaningful and thus experience well-being.

2.3.4 Attaining Happiness and Well-Being

How does one attain a sense of happiness and well-being? Robbins et al. (1999) attested that growth in wellness is influenced by many factors. They claim that attaining wellness is self-responsibility. Once individuals become aware that wellness is an option, they may then assess their lifestyle and make decisions about changes necessary to accomplish their goal. The individual’s own motivation and supports available influence their ability to attain well-being.

Vanier (2012) claimed that man’s greatest aspiration is to attain happiness. For Vanier, humanity’s eternal question is “Why is a human being created? For what happiness?” (p. x). He believed, like Aristotle, that happiness has social or civic dimension; that man who wishes to be fully human cannot remain a stranger to city life. Thus, in order to attain fullness in life, or happiness “every person, at some time or other, needs others” (Vanier, 2012, p. 180). He emphasized that “ethics help us to clarify what is a truly human act, what justice is and what the best activities are –those that render us more human and happiest” (p. xiii). Vanier highlighted the links between psychology, spirituality, and morality in giving meaning to our lives in the search for attaining happiness.

People have attained abundant well-being when they feel many pleasant and few unpleasant emotions, when they are engaged interesting activities, when they experience many pleasures and few pains, and when they are satisfied with their lives (Diener, 2000). There is some evidence that people who are happy and have attained a feeling of well-being participate more in community organizations, are more liked by others, are less likely to get divorced, tend
to live slightly longer, and perform better at work (Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994, p.41). Seligman (2004a) went so far as to state that happiness or well-being can be increased or taught, so it seems possible that well-being could be supported and attained in an educational setting.

2.3.5 Establishing Well-Being Policy

The following section refers to world-wide political discussions regarding policy making around the concept of flourishing. There appears to be an explicit recognition that there is more to well-being than economics (Osberg & Sharpe, 2005). In addition to economic issues, urgent global challenges of sustainability and equity are being addressed through policy to ensure well-being throughout the world (United Nations Development Program Report, 2011). David Cameron (2010), current Prime Minister of the United Kingdom spoke of dire economic times, where there was a need to redirect toward empowering the people; to advance their well-being. He claimed that a change in thinking is needed in the United Kingdom and that success should be measured on more than merely the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Former President of France, Nicholas Sarkozy appointed a committee in 2008 to report on economic performance and social progress (Stiglitz et al., 2009). Increasing concerns had been raised about the adequacy of measures of economic performance, in particular those based on GDP figures. Concerns had been expressed regarding the relevance of GDP figures as measures of societal well-being, as well as measures of economic, environmental, and social sustainability.

The Canadian government is also attending to the issue of quality of life for Canadians. The second Canadian Index of Well-being (CIW) Report (2012) addresses well-being from 1994 to 2011. During that time, Canada’s GDP grew a robust 28.9%, but quality of life improved a modest 5.7%. Further, it reveals Canadian well-being dropped by 24% between 2008 and 2010 and the decline in our well-being continues despite subsequent economic recovery. Governor
General David Johnston claimed that “this index helps us to determine trends in our overall quality of life, giving us a powerful tool for action” (Canadian Index of Well-being, 2013).

Roy Romanow and Monique Begin, (co-chairs of CIW, 2013) stressed that the CIW provides a broader depth of understanding that, when partnered with GDP, gives us the evidence needed to help steer Canada forward. Those who are closest to policy-making table in Canada appear to be considering policy focused on improving Canadian well-being.

Nussbaum (2011) proposed an option for governments considering more than the GDP as a measurement of a country’s success. Nussbaum demands an approach to social justice which asks, What does a life worthy of human dignity require? She advocates that the task of government is to ensure that people are able to pursue a dignified and flourishing life. A “decent political order must secure to all citizens at least a threshold level on the ten Central Capabilities:

1. Life;
2. Bodily health;
3. Bodily integrity;
4. Senses, imagination, and thought;
5. Emotions;
6. Practical reason;
7. Affiliation;
8. Other species;
9. Play; and
10. Control over one’s environment (pp. 33-34).

Although challenging, she contests that the job of government is in making policy to ensure people live life with the fundamental entitlements of freedom, dignity and life satisfaction.

Finally, as policy on well-being is discussed, Forgeard et al. (2011) encouraged researchers and policy-makers to be cautious in wanting to come up with a single summary measure. They suggest that, even though it might be appealing to have an overall number when stating a country’s or organization’s state of well-being, it may be better to look at a dashboard
of information to determine areas of strength as well as the particular areas in which we may not be fulfilling our potential for flourishing.

It seems that well-being involves multiple social, economic, and environmental factors and the way they connect and interact affects well-being. Public policy which stresses measuring and reporting of social, economic and environmental factors will assist in understanding the causes of current well-being (Canadian Index of Well-being, 2013). Seligman (2011b) stressed the importance of measuring flourishing prior to going to search for a solution. If beginning teacher well-being and flourishing is the aim of educational organizations, then it seems that educational policy makers need to attend to measuring teacher well-being.

2.3.6 Measuring Well-Being

Well-being is a multifaceted construct (Diener, 2009; Stiglitz et al., 2009) and many disagreements persist as to which components should be included in well-being measurement (Diener, Napa Scollon, & Lucas, 2003). Diener and Seligman (2004) suggested a systematic approach, which includes measuring both the subjective (happiness, positive emotion, engagement, meaning, life satisfaction, relationships/social support and accomplishment/competence) and the objective (finite list of conditions) facets of well-being (Forgeard et al., 2011). Both the subjective and objective approaches have the same core outcome and that is to measure well-being and how people evaluate their lives. Both approaches rely on the individual’s perception of their well-being and the democratic participation of individuals (Forgeard et al., 2011).

2.3.6.1 Subjective measurement. Various tools are available to measure well-being subjective terms as proposed by Diener and Seligman (2004). A rather simplified measure of well-being asks people their degree of happiness. Fordyce’s Happiness Measures (Fordyce,
and Lyubomirsky and Lepper’s Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS) (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999) assess happiness on a simple Likert scale.

Positive emotion, the most studied facet of well-being, is often measured by the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Recently, Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, and Biswas-Diener (2009b) created two measures of well-being to assess psychosocial flourishing and positive and negative feelings. The scales were evaluated in a sample of 689 college students from six locations including the United States and Singapore. The Flourishing Scale is a brief 8-item summary measure of the respondent’s self-perceived success in areas such as relationships, self-esteem, purpose, and optimism. The scale provides a single psychological well-being score. The second measure, the Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE) is a 12-item scale, with six items devoted to positive experiences and six items designed to assess negative experiences. In addition to the PANAS, The Flourishing Scale and SPANE, other tests are available which measure the intensity of positive emotions over time, including those using electronic devices (Forgeard et al., 2011).

Few measures of engagement are available as engagement is often not measured on large scale tests (Forgeard et al., 2011). However, the Flow Scale (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1988) is used to measure levels of engagement experienced during various activities. Meaning, or the feeling of belonging and serving something larger that the self (Seligman, 2011a) can be measured by using the Meaning in Life Questionnaire.

Another widely used measure of well-being in that of life satisfaction, which has been measured in many large scale surveys. The Canadian Index of Well-being (CIW) (2012) measured well-being in Canada. The CIW provides a measure of quality of life that assesses those things that matter to Canadians beyond the economy. It draws on a data primarily from
Statistics Canada and tracks indicators within eight interconnected quality of life categories central to the lives of Canadians: community vitality, democratic engagement, education, environment, healthy populations, leisure and culture, living standards, and time use. The CIW then combines measures on these domains into a composite index that provides a snapshot of how Canadian well-being is changing (Canadian Index of Well-being, 2012).

The Center for the Study of Living Standards has also produced a report entitled *Canadians Are Happy and Getting Happier: An Overview of Life Satisfaction in Canada, 2003-2011*, documenting trends in self-reported life satisfaction in Canada, based on data from Statistics Canada’s Canadian Community Health Survey (CCHS). The survey measures level of life satisfaction across Canada, within the provinces, cities, healthcare regions and internationally based on gender and age categories (Sharpe & Capeluck, 2012).

Social support, the belief that one is cared for and valued, is recognized as one of the most influential determinants of well-being (Reis & Gable, 2003). Numerous large scale studies have been designed to measure social support and positive relationships including World Health Organization Survey (WHOQOL) (Bonomi, Patrick, Bushnell, & Martin, 2000).

Accomplishment, or individual achievement/competence at the highest level, is measured by large-scale tests as a result of the growing recognition of the human need for accomplishment (Samman, 2007; Michaelson, Abdallah, Steuer, Thompson, & Marks, 2009). In sports, business and education, accomplishment is often measured by established standards (Forgeard et al., 2011).

**2.3.6.2 Objective measurement.** In contrast to subjective measurement, objective measurement implies a list of goods or conditions required for well-being or a happy life; a list of indicators proposing how well-being might be measured (Forgeard et al., 2011). There have
been various contributors to defining what makes a good or flourishing life. The list of
capabilities, as presented by Sen (1999) and Nussbaum (2011) constitutes what it means to
achieve human functioning (Nussbaum, 2011, p.25). Rawls (1999) identified a set of primary
goods that are necessary for a plan for life: rights liberties, opportunities, income and wealth, as
well as the social bases of self-respect. The Basic Needs Approach, proposed by Doyal & Gough
(1991), is based the belief that in order to achieve health and autonomy the following list of
needs should be fulfilled: nutritional food and clean water, adequate housing, a safe work
environment, health care, security in childhood, close relationships, physical security, economic
security, education, as well as safe birth control and childbearing. Another approach worth
noting is the Voices of the Poor, which outlines needs to ensure flourishing identified by the poor
from around the world (Narayan-Parker, 2000).

Objective measurement should be determined externally (Forgeard et al., 2011). This is
aligned with Aristotle’s flourishing account of well-being. Aristotle proposed a perfectionist
version of well-being based on how closely an individual is to reaching the potential of mankind.
Aristotle termed this eudaimonia, or, as it has been translated, flourishing. “To help human
beings flourish (i.e., realize their potential) is the Aristotelian justification for the items on the
objective list” (Forgeard et al., 2011, p. 90).

There are some concerns about using objective indicators as measurement of well-being
(Diener, Lucas, Schimmack, & Helliwell, 2009a). It is often not obviously evident which items
should be on the list, and it is not clear whether the domains included are necessarily important
for overall well-being. In addition, some important items that should be included might be
omitted. Difficulties may also arise when ensuring that indicators are clearly observed and
empirically verified (Diener et al., 2009a). A final consideration involves the integration of the indicators and the weights to be used for each (Forgeard et al., 2011).

The concepts of flourishing and well-being seem relevant when reflecting upon the lives of beginning teachers. Understanding why beginning teachers need to flourish in schools, how beginning teachers come to attain flourishing, and the means by which to support and how they can be supported in doing so, warrants further consideration.

2.3.7 Beginning Teacher Flourishing

Literature on the personal and professional wellbeing of teachers is just emerging (Mills, 1989). In fact, there is little research that focuses on the conditions, catalysts, and galvanizing forces behind adult flourishing in schools (Cherkowski & Walker, 2012).

As teachers are a key component of the educational system and instrumental in student learning (Wong et al., 2005), it seems important to attend to beginning teacher needs; on their journey toward flourishing in schools. It appears that “teachers are sacrificing their physical and mental health, and in some cases their relationships, to maintain their programs and classes … This represents a severe and unsustainable imbalance in many teachers’ lives” (Naylor, 2001, p. 5). Therefore supporting teacher wellness becomes imperative in order to increase levels of energy, job satisfaction and coping mechanisms (Pelletier, 1994). Cherkowski and Walker (2012) emphasized the importance of a “positive, supportive community where teachers feel noticed, valued, challenged, and loved as they contribute their strengths toward the complex challenges of developing young people toward the eventual goal of becoming flourishing members of our society” (p. 11).

Teacher wellness may be an important part of educational reform and key to transforming and revitalizing teachers (Lauzon, 2003). Lauzon described a desire to have “teachers who are
well-teachers who have the energy, health and passion to inspire, motivate and educate” (p.146).

Through a phenomenological approach with educators in British Columbia, Lauzon provided some understanding of teacher wellness in determining that teacher wellness might encompass themes. The six themes include holistic, finding balance, sense of self, self-responsibility, job satisfaction, connection and support, and provide the basis for understanding teacher wellness.

Teachers are continually trying to make sense of their world (Lauzon, 2003). They are struggling to find their place in an ever-changing educational system. As well as educate young people, they are asked to build relationships with their administrators, colleagues, students, parents, and others. And they are expected to be well while doing so. Lauzon proposed that supporting beginning teachers in finding work/life balance, a sense of self, job satisfaction and a connection with others in the workplace might assist teachers, especially those beginning their careers who are reflecting on their personal and professional well-being. Flourishing teachers demonstrate confidence in their work and begin to grow and develop as teachers. As feelings of self-efficacy emerge, beginning teachers stretch their own abilities and move from concern about themselves to thinking about the teaching situation, and then ultimately, the students (Fuller & Brown, 1975).

All teachers, including those beginning their careers are able to flourish when they work with organizations that emphasize employee wellness and provide space to facilitate teacher growth (Froman, 2010). Mills (1989) suggested that wellness programs, which support flourishing are warranted as they are well suited to the school setting and benefit teachers, as well as their students. And herein lies the most important reason for supporting beginning teacher flourishing: student learning.
2.3.8 Summary

This section provided a definition for flourishing and outlined the dimensions of wellness. Theories of, and means of attaining well-being were discussed. The importance of policies on well-being and methods by which well-being can be measured were presented. Finally, flourishing, as it refers to beginning teachers in the educational context was described.

The following conceptual framework describes the relationship between beginning teacher induction, beginning teacher psychological contract and beginning teacher flourishing.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

The literature reviewed in this chapter points to the importance of understanding the psychological contract beginning teachers have with their educational organizations and that attending to the psychological contract and supporting beginning teachers through the induction process is likely to result in beginning teacher flourishing in schools.

The conceptual framework (see Figure 2.1), created prior to data collection and analysis, shows the relationship between beginning teacher induction, the psychological contract and flourishing, as well as the factors influencing each as represented in the literature.

Beginning teachers enter the profession with notions about what their school organization will provide for them and what they will give their organization, in exchange. Psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995) exist between beginning teachers and their organization. Beginning teachers progress through stages of development (Moir, 1990) and experience challenges (Veenman, 1984) that require addressing. When the organization attends to the psychological contract of the beginning teacher, while considering their stages of development and challenges experienced, beginning teachers are more likely to fully participate in their organization and become more productive (Rousseau, 1995).
Induction, when supported by organizational commitment, provides the foundational support for beginning teachers. The induction process, based on beginning teacher identified needs, addresses the professional practice and personal well-being of the beginning teacher. Effective mentoring supports beginning teachers, resulting in higher quality teaching and increased teacher effectiveness (Weiss & Weiss, 1999; Wong, 2005). When induction support is provided, beginning teachers experience personal and professional growth, and ultimately, flourish in schools.

The components presented in this framework were present in the literature. What the framework is missing, and what this study examined, are the supports that rural Saskatchewan
teachers perceive as integral to the psychological contract and the induction process as they progress toward flourishing. Retrospectively, the conceptual framework shifted and is represented in Chapter 5.
CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract with their organizations, the induction supports received, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools. Patton (1990) claimed that purpose is the controlling force in research, and decisions about design, measurement, analysis, and reporting all flow from purpose. Therefore, in order to gain the perspectives of a large sample of rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers a mixed methods study was designed that included both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis. Discussion in this chapter includes the research design, data collection, data analysis and ethical considerations of the mixed methods study.

3.1 The Research Design

Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) advocated for, “whatever philosophical and/or methodological approach works for the particular research problem under study” (p. 5) is the appropriate choice. A mixed methods design was chosen for this study.

3.1.1 Philosophical Assumptions

It is important to clearly define a worldview or paradigm when designing mixed methods research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Pragmatism is the worldview typically associated with mixed methods research. Pragmatism focuses on the consequences of research; on the primary importance of the question asked, rather than the methods, and on the use of multiple methods of data collection to inform the problem under study. It is considered pluralistic and oriented towards what works for accessing information. Pragmatism values both objective and subjective knowledge, and mixed methods research gains multiple meanings from both quantitative and
qualitative methods. Regarding axiology, or what is valued in the research, mixed method researchers take multiple stances, including both biased (constructivist) and unbiased (postpositivist) perspectives. Mixed method researchers should collect multiple data using different research approaches so the result provides complementary strengths and accounts for the potential weaknesses in any one method (Brewer and Hunter, 1989). Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) argued that it is time for the forced choice between postpositivism and constructivism to be abandoned; that both quantitative and qualitative research methods may be used in a single study, and that a practical and applied research philosophy should guide methodological choices. Therefore, this study was designed from the pragmatist’s worldview where both qualitative and quantitative approaches are combined.

3.1.2 Convergent Parallel Design

This study implemented a convergent parallel design which developed an understanding of the subject by collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, as each provided a partial view (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The convergent design, which Creswell and Plano Clark described as efficient, involves collecting both concurrent quantitative and qualitative data, analyzing the information separately and then merging the two sets of data. In this study, the qualitative and quantitative data were collected during the same phase of the research process (referred to as a parallel process), and the methods prioritized equally (see Figure 3.1). The notation of the study’s design can be written as “QUAN + Qual = complete understanding” (as adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p. 117) with emphasis placed on the quantitative component. The qualitative data and the quantitative data were independently analyzed and then the results were mixed during the interpretation stage. The goal was to attain a comprehensive understanding of the topic: the relationship among beginning teachers’ perceptions of their
psychological contracts with their organizations, the induction supports received, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools.

Mixed methods design was chosen considering time available for collecting the data and the intention to collect both types of data in one visit to the field (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The survey used both close-ended (Likert scale) and open-ended questions, and although it provided minimal qualitative data because of the limited number of open-ended questions, this approach included the collection of both and qualitative data and therefore is considered an example of mixed method research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

3.2 Data Collection

3.2.1 Selection of Participants

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) described purposeful sampling, “where researchers intentionally select (or recruit) participants who have experienced the central phenomenon or the key concept being explored in the study” (p. 173). The sample for this study was purposefully chosen, as rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers were the segment of the beginning teacher
population being studied. Participants in this study included beginning teachers who began their teaching careers in the fall of 2012 in 348 schools in 21 of the 28 Saskatchewan school divisions. City schools were not included in the sample. Sun West School Division was exempt from the study as the researcher was employed by Sun West in a supervisory capacity with beginning teachers, and this relationship might have influenced participants’ responses.

For the purposes of this study, beginning teachers were defined as any teachers new to the profession who had experienced their first year of teaching in Saskatchewan. Teachers who had taught before in another location were not included in this study.

3.2.2 Data Collection Methods

In June of 2013, Directors of Education from 21 schools divisions were contacted by email, requesting permission to have their beginning teachers from the 2012-2013 school year participate in this study in September, 2013 (see Appendix A). Directors were informed that the study would require beginning teachers to complete a survey instrument (Supporting the Psychological Contract toward Flourishing (SPCF); see Appendix C) regarding beginning teacher induction, beginning teachers’ psychological contracts, and beginning teachers’ flourishing in schools.

By mid-September, following school division consent, directors were asked to email an invitation to their beginning teachers asking the teachers to participate in the survey. The survey link was attached to the email invitation. The email invitation provided beginning teacher participants with an explanation of the purpose of the study, the use of the findings and the ethical considerations (see Appendix B). An incentive was offered to those who completed the survey by mid-October. Participant emails were requested from those wishing to enter for the incentive prize (see Appendix D). A random sample generator was used by an outside individual
to choose the incentive prize winner, and an additional outside individual ensured that the prize was delivered to the winner. The emails were destroyed after the prize was awarded and were not kept with the data.

It was important to access beginning teachers soon after they had completed their first year of teaching (2012-2013 school year) to ensure that they had the best recall possible from their first year of teaching. Reminder emails were sent to school divisions approximately two weeks after the initial invitation had been sent to ensure the highest possible participation rate. Data collection was completed by mid-October.

The survey instrument provided data to answer the following questions:

1. How do rural beginning teachers describe the actual induction supports they are receiving from their organizations?
2. How do rural beginning teachers perceive and understand the reciprocal elements of the psychological contract with their organizations?
   a) What do beginning teachers expect from their organizations?
   b) What do beginning teachers expect to give to their organizations?
3. How do rural beginning teachers perceive their flourishing in schools?
4. What relationship exists among beginning teachers’ psychological contract, induction support provided, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools?

3.2.3 The Instrument

The survey instrument used in this study accessed quantitative information (through Likert scales) and qualitative information (through open-ended questions). The instrument is divided into five sections: Part I: Beginning Teacher Induction, Part II: Beginning Teacher

The quantitative components of the instrument combine tools designed by and adapted from the following researchers: Moussiaux (2001), Rousseau (2008), Diener et al. (2009b), and Cantril (1965), in the areas of induction, psychological contract, and flourishing.

3.2.3.1 Beginning teachers’ induction experiences. Moussiaux (2001) designed an instrument by which to measure beginning teachers’ perceptions of their induction experiences. The Novice Teacher Survey was created in partial fulfillment for the requirement for the Doctor of Philosophy at Wayne State University. The survey addresses seven subscales: pre-assignment contacts, orientation activities/information dissemination, personal support by experienced staff, problem solving approach to teaching improvement, formal presentations, school organization plan to support induction, and external support services (Moussiaux, 2001, p. 119-127). All seven subscales of the Novice Teacher Survey were used in the instrument for this study however elements within four categories were modified to reduce the length of the survey. An expert panel of seven educators experienced in the field of beginning teacher induction was asked to review four of the subscales and prioritize elements they perceived to be most closely related to the category. The prioritized subscales included pre-assignment contacts, personal support by experienced staff, problem solving approach to teaching improvement, and school organization plan to support induction. Each subscale was reduced to seven prioritized elements. In addition to the subscales, a single item measuring induction on a 0-10 self-report scale was included.

3.2.3.2 Beginning teachers’ psychological contracts. In studying the psychological contract in the Saskatchewan educational context, both Hrabok (2003) and Propp (2004)
implemented the ‘Psychological Contract Inventory’ (PCI) developed by Rousseau (1998, 2000). Rousseau’s (2008) updated inventory, used in this study, consists of three sections: *the obligation of the employer to the employee, the obligation of employee to employer, and the employer/employee relationship*. The PCI was modified to fit the educational context, resulting in two sections being implemented (the obligation of the employee to the employer and the obligation of the employer to the employee) and used to access data on the beginning teacher’s psychological contract with their educational organization.

Six subscales were used in both the Employee and Employer Obligations section of the survey. They included *Short Term* (employee’s obligation to stay with the organization for a short period of time and employer’s lack of future commitment), *Loyalty* (employee’s support and commitment to the organization and employer’s support of the employee’s well-being), *Narrow* (employee performs only required tasks and employer offers only limited involvement in the organization), *Performance Support* (employee performs new and demanding goals and employer promotes learning and assists employee), *Development* (employee is obligated to skill development and employer provides development opportunities), and *Stability* (employee is obligated to remain with the organization and employer commits to stable wages and long-term employment). There were seventeen employee subscale items and twenty employer subscale items.

**3.2.3.3 Beginning teachers’ flourishing.** Diener et al. (2009b) developed the *Flourishing Scale* by which flourishing/well-being may be measured. The Flourishing Scale includes items on social relationships, having a purposeful and meaningful life, being engaged and interested in one’s activities, having self-respect and optimism, and feeling competent and
capable in activities. The scale assesses major aspects of social–psychological functioning from the respondent’s own point of view.

Diener et al.’s (2009b) Flourishing Scale consists of eight statements, using a scale of 1 through 7, whereby participants reflect on their degree of flourishing. When totaled, the possible range of personal well-being scores (PWB) is from an eight (lowest possible) to a 56 (highest possible). A high score represents a person with many psychological resources and strengths; an individual who flourishes in their environment. For the purposes of this study a 0-10 scale was used to maintain consistency throughout the entire study, with 0 as the lowest score and 80 as the highest possible score.

Researchers have implemented the Cantril (1965) Self-anchoring Striving Scale to measure flourishing (Gallup, 1997; Morales, 2012). The Cantril scale asks respondents to imagine a ladder with steps numbered from zero at the bottom to 10 at the top. The top of the ladder represents the best possible life and the bottom of the ladder represents the worst possible life. The respondents are requested to place themselves on the step of the ladder which they personally feel they stand at that time (ladder present) and in the future (five years from then). The responses are grouped into three categories: thriving, struggling and suffering. Thriving scores are in the 7+ range for the present ladder and 8+ for future ladder. Struggling scores represent well-being that is moderate or inconsistent. Respondents in the suffering category describe well-being that is at high risk. Suffering respondents have poor ratings of their current life situation (four and below). The ladder that describes present degrees of flourishing was used in this study. Both the Diener et al. (2009b) and Cantril (1965) scales were combined and used to measure beginning teacher flourishing in schools.
In addition to Part I, II and III of the survey, Part IV was designed to collect demographic information from participants in the areas of age, gender, living arrangements, school attended as youth, level of education, type of school, grade level taught, subject level taught, and teaching as first career.

Part V garnered qualitative information from participants regarding their experiences in the areas of induction, the psychological contract, and flourishing. Open-ended questions prompted participants to share their insights into their experiences, which supplemented the statistical data accessed through the quantitative scales.

### 3.2.4 Reliability and Validity

“A well-designed, easy-to-use survey always contributes to reliability and validity” (Fink & Kosecoff, 1998, p. 6). Surveys to be used in this study designed by Moussiaux (2001), Rousseau (2008), Diener et al. (2009b) and Cantril (1965) were deemed reliable and valid.

Reliability and validity were addressed in designing the Novice Teacher Survey to provide assurance to potential users that the effects of specific elements and activities of induction programs were being measured accurately and objectively (Moussiaux, 2001, p. 5). Expert evaluators were selected to assess the instrument’s development, and a pilot test with a 71.3% response rate was conducted with participants outside the sample. Following these assessments, and having modified and removed statements as required, Moussiaux completed a trial run. The Novice Teacher Survey confirmed a high level of internal consistency among statements with a Cronbach’s alpha of .97.

The elements within each category of the Novice Teacher Survey were adapted for this present study to ensure that the induction section was of appropriate length for the overall survey. To maintain validity requirements, a panel of seven experts, including those closely
involved with beginning teachers (Superintendents of Education, Learning Coach, University
intern supervisor, school principals, mentor teacher) were asked to review the elements within
each category and assist in determining which elements should remain within each category. To
ensure reliability, at least seven elements from each category in the original study were retained.

Rousseau (2000) addressed reliability and validity in designing the Psychological
Contract Inventory (PCI). Initial analyses of the PCI scales with 630 respondents met the
standards with a Cronbach’s alpha of .70. Rousseau stated that 11 of the 14 scales met the
criteria for reliability and validity, however the three scales of employee short term obligation,
employer short term obligation, and the employee stability obligation required revisions. The
PCI met the goal of “developing a robust and psychometrically sound assessment of the
generalizable content of psychological contracts in employment” (p. 14).

Diener et al. (2009b) tested the Flourishing Scale on 689 respondents in the United States
and Singapore. Diener et al. claimed that the Cronbach alphas of the scales were good at .87 and
that the principal axis factor analysis revealed one strong factor with an eigenvalue of 4.24,
accounting for 53 percent of the variance in the items. The factor loadings ranged from .61 to
.77. Thus, one strong factor characterizes the Flourishing Scale (Diener et al., 2009b, p. 147).

Cantril’s (1965) Self-anchoring Striving Scale, which is based on an individual’s understanding
of his own best possible life, was administered to representative sample populations of over 3000
individuals in twelve countries around the world.

Separately the four instruments met reliability and validity standards. Onwuegbuzie &
Johnson (2006) recommended that a pilot study be conducted to ensure legitimacy (validity) of
the survey instrument being used. Therefore, once the instrument was designed, first year
teachers not participating in the study were asked to evaluate the instrument to ensure that it
would measure what it is intended to measure. A trial group was asked to complete the survey and offer comments via email communication. In addition the author observed an individual first year teacher complete the online survey to check for ease of completion. Modifications were addressed as recommended.

### 3.3 Data Analysis

In a mixed methods approach, data are analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively to provide the most comprehensive information (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

#### 3.3.1 Quantitative Analysis

Quantitative data analysis emphasizes facts, relationships, and the causes of behavior (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). Quantitative data were compiled and analyzed after all participant responses were collected. Data were analyzed with Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS; Version 21.0). Demographic variables were measured to help describe the sample and examine potential factors that might influence outcomes within Induction, Psychological Contract (Employee and Employer Obligations) and Flourishing. Prior to evaluating the research questions, data were screened for missing values and issues concerning the distribution of the data that may affect the analysis chosen and/or interpretation of the results. Analysis included descriptive and inferential statistics including t-tests, ANOVAs, correlations and regressions. Figures and tables were used to illustrate the results.

#### 3.3.2 Qualitative Analysis

Open-ended questions provide qualitative data, which require analytic procedures including organizing the data, generating categories and themes and coding the data (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Each stage of the analysis entailed data reduction to make the data more manageable and interpretation to bring meaning and insights to the words. Qualitative responses
were coded; codes came from the literature review and actual words in the data. NVivo, a qualitative data analysis software program was used for collecting, organizing, and analyzing the data. A second coder was invited to independently code to themes as a check to confirm alignment with the researcher’s coding.

Following analysis, quantitative and qualitative data were organized and presented under the research questions posed in the study. The quantitative data were presented first, followed by the qualitative data within each of the induction, psychological contract and flourishing sections of the study. The information collected from the final open-ended question, which allowed the participants to describe any additional information they wished to share regarding their first-year teaching experiences was also included within the appropriate sections.

### 3.4 Ethical Considerations

The participants selected for this study were chosen based on having completed their first year of teaching in rural Saskatchewan schools. Ethics procedures as outlined by the University of Saskatchewan Advisory Committee in Ethics in Behavioural Sciences Research were followed. Participants were informed of purpose, nature of the study, how it would be used and documented, and their voluntary right to withdraw from participation. Confidentiality and anonymity were maintained.

In addition, permission was obtained from all survey developers to include the induction, psychological contract and flourishing/well-being scales in the survey instrument.

### 3.5 Summary

This chapter provided a summary of the methodology used in this study, including the research design, data collection, data analysis and ethical considerations. The source of data was the Supporting the Psychological Contract toward Flourishing (SPCF) survey administered to
beginning rural Saskatchewan teachers. The research design outlined the mixed methods approach, specifically the convergent parallel design. The data collection described the selection of participants, data collection methods and the instrument. Details of the data analysis were outlined, along with ethical considerations relevant to this study.

Chapter Four presents an analysis of the data collected from the survey along with the descriptive portion of the study, and Chapter Five concludes the study with discussion and future implications.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents quantitative and qualitative data obtained from the rural beginning teachers’ Supporting Psychological Contract Toward Flourishing survey. The results are presented under the following research questions:

1. How do rural beginning teachers describe the actual induction supports they are receiving from their organizations?

2. How do rural beginning teachers perceive and understand the reciprocal elements of the psychological contract with their organizations?
   a) What do beginning teachers expect from their organizations?
   b) What do beginning teachers expect to give to their organizations?

3. How do rural beginning teachers perceive their flourishing in schools?

4. What relationship exists among beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract, induction support provided, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools?

The chapter provides information on data screening and preliminary analysis, followed by a detailed description reporting the findings of the study. Terms, variables and concepts specific to the current study are italicized and operationalized throughout the chapter.

4.1 Data Screening and Preliminary Analysis

4.1.1 Screening for Missing Values and Outliers

Prior to evaluating the research questions, data were screened for missing values and issues concerning the distribution of the data (e.g., outliers, skewness, Kurtosis) that may affect the analysis chosen and/or interpretation of the results. A total of 110 of a possible 187 (59%)
eligible rural Saskatchewan beginning teacher participants started the online survey (one division
did not provide participant numbers), with 23 participants starting but providing 0% data; these
participants were thereby excluded from analysis ($n = 87$). The remaining cases were examined
for completeness across each of the four major variables in the study (induction, psychological
contract [employer obligations, employee obligations], and flourishing). Participants with more
than 30% missing data on any given subscale were excluded from analysis for that subscale (i.e.,
pairwise deletion; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A total of 14 participants did not complete the
induction section of the survey and were removed from subsequent analysis. For the induction
scale, two outliers were identified and removed from analysis (i.e., $z$-scores $> \pm 1.96$, $n = 71$).
For the psychological contract variables, four outliers were removed from the employer (ER)
obligation subscale ($n = 67$) and two were removed from the employee (EE) obligation subscale
($n = 67$). Finally, for the flourishing scale, three outliers were removed from analysis ($n = 65$).

Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) tests of normality were then conducted on each variable to
evaluate the assumption of normally distributed data. All K-S tests were non-significant, $D$s $> .08$, $ps > .05$, thereby meeting the assumption of normality.

4.2 Reporting the Findings

4.2.1 Descriptive Demographics

Data were assessed in ten demographic areas that are summarized in Table 4.1. The
majority of the sample was female, single, attended a rural school as youth, currently teaching in
a K-12 school, and indicated that teaching was their first career.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td>66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>77.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
<td>66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Law</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living with a boyfriend</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Living Arrangements</strong></td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other roommate</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy/girlfriend</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiancé</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living alone</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School Attended as Youth</strong></td>
<td>64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural school</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>60.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban school</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both urban and rural</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home-schooled</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of Education</strong></td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only Bachelor of Education degree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other bachelor degree(s)</td>
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<td>42.0</td>
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<td>2.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Certificates from technical colleges</td>
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<td>2.9</td>
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<td>Working on an after degree</td>
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<td>1.4</td>
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<td><strong>Type of School</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-12 schools</td>
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<td>44.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>23.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle level schools</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High schools</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-8 schools</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-9 schools</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itinerant teachers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic Description</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grade Level Taught</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary grades</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>32.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle level grades</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple grades</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special education</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subject Area Taught</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary subjects</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>29.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle level subjects</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school level subjects</td>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All level subjects</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special education</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching as First Career</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>66</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First career</td>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other careers</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entered university at age 31</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.2.2 Data Analysis

Data are presented under the research questions with quantitative data presented first, followed by qualitative data. All post-hoc comparisons used the Bonferroni correction to help control for Type I (*family-wise*) error. Frequency distributions for each demographic variable were inspected to determine whether or not an adequate sample size was obtained to examine between-group differences for each research question. Analysis was completed within eight demographic areas: *age*, *gender*, *marital status*, *living arrangements*, *school attended as a youth*, *level of education*, *type of school*, and *grade level taught*. For *age*, participants were grouped as either being *younger* (23 – 25 year olds, *n* = 35) or *older* (26 – 52 year olds, *n* = 30). For *marital status*, participants were grouped as being either *single* (*n* = 32) or *married/common law* (*n* = 32). *Living arrangements* were congregated into those who were *living alone* (*n* = 15) or *living with someone* (*n* = 41). For the *school as a youth* variable, participants were separated into those who attended a *rural* (*n* = 39) or *urban* (*n* = 23) school. Participants were also grouped
according to the type of school that they taught at during their first year of teaching (elementary, 
\( n = 16 \); K-12, \( n = 29 \); or middle/high school, \( n = 17 \)). Finally, grade level taught was grouped 
according to those teaching at the elementary (\( n = 21 \)), middle (\( n = 24 \)) or high (\( n = 11 \)) school 
grade level. Subject area taught could not be analyzed independently due to extremely 
unbalanced cell sizes which can skew group differences (Field, 2013), and teaching as a first 
career was also exempt from between group comparisons due to an overwhelming majority of 
the participants indicating that teaching was their first career (\( n = 60 \)). 

Descriptive coding was completed to determine themes, and frequency counts were 
provided in the qualitative analysis. Qualitative data was analyzed using structural coding to 
support the research question.

4.3 Research Question Analysis

Data are presented under the four research questions.

4.3.1 Research Question 1: How do rural beginning teachers describe the actual induction 
supports they are receiving from their organization?

4.3.1.1 Induction quantitative data. A Repeated Measures (RM) analysis of variance 
(ANOVA) was run on each of the induction subscales including the induction total scale and the 
single item self-report induction question. A main effect of induction was found, \( F(8, 560) = 27.26, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .28 \). Refer to Figure 4.1 for the mean scores of the induction total, 
induction subscales, and the single item self-report question. Only two induction subscales were 
below the midpoint.
Figure 4.1 Mean induction total, subscale and single item scores. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean.

Paired comparisons demonstrated that induction total was significantly lower than the orientation activities/information dissemination, personal supports by experienced staff, external support services subscales, and the single item self-report induction question ($ps \leq .05$) and was significantly higher than the problem solving approach to teaching improvement, and formal presentations subscales, ($ps \leq .003$). The problem solving approach to teaching improvement subscale was significantly lower than all other subscales ($ps < .001$) except for the formal presentations subscale ($p = 1$). The formal presentations subscale was significantly
lower than all remaining subscales ($ps < .05$). Both the pre-assignment contacts and school organization plan to support induction subscales were significantly lower than the external support services subscale ($ps < .001$). The orientation activities/information dissemination subscale was significantly lower than the external supports subscale ($p = .011$).

Subscales and items within each subscale were then ranked according to the subscale and item means. Lowest subscales and item means are presented first (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Induction subscale and item means ($M$), standard deviations ($SD$) standard error of the means ($SEM$) and confidence levels (95% CI); (n = 71).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBSCALES</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>$SEM$</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. PROBLEM SOLVING APPROACH TO TEACHING IMPROVEMENT</td>
<td>a) I observed lessons demonstrated by experienced teachers.</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.397</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) I worked with my mentor on lesson plans and materials for instruction.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>.422</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) I attended meetings to discuss and develop curriculum.</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>.412</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d) I was given in-class assistance by experienced teachers.</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>.417</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e) There were meetings with beginning teachers to discuss improvement and instructional concerns.</td>
<td>5.93</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f) My Principal talked with me about instructional matters.</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. FORMAL PRESENTATIONS</td>
<td>a) I attended workshops/seminars on classroom management.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>.420</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) My concerns were considered for inservice needs and professional development.</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>.406</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) Induction activities were selected and targeted toward specific goals.</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>.370</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d) I was given assistance with classroom management and student discipline.</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>.368</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. PRE-ASSIGNMENT CONTACTS</td>
<td>a) I was assigned a teacher mentor at my grade level.</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>.478</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) I received printed materials on school regulations/protocols prior to the beginning of the school year.</td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>.398</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) I met with my school Principal prior to beginning the school year.</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>.388</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d) I visited with school faculty prior to beginning the school year.</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>.402</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUBSCALES</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>95% CI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL PLAN TO SUPPORT INDUCTION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) I was informed about the evaluation criteria and process</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>.437</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to determine tenure.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) I was assigned a limited number of extra-curricular</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.451</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Release time was built into the program for induction</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>.353</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>activities and opportunities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) My school organization supported collegiality.</td>
<td>7.06</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>.308</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) I was made aware of professional development opportunities.</td>
<td>7.46</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. ORIENTATION ACTIVITIES/INFORMATION DISSEMINATION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) I had meetings with my Principal and mentor to schedule</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.447</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>observation times.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Report cards and grading were explained to me.</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>.366</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Supervision was organized, consistent, and continuous.</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.365</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) My Principal explained his/her expectations and norms of</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>.392</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher conduct.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Printed materials dealing with school regulations were</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.355</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>explained to me.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Orientation included meeting on the school procedures and</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>.336</td>
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<td>policies.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) I was introduced to the school community.</td>
<td>7.73</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>.253</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>VI. PERSONAL SUPPORTS BY EXPERIENCED STAFF</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) I was assigned a teacher mentor to work with me.</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>.502</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Support was given to me to find and use appropriate and</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>.353</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>innovative instruction materials.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>c) Resource materials were identified or me in my new school.</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>.351</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) The Principal visited my classroom.</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>.402</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) I was given opportunity to consult with experienced</td>
<td>6.85</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>.363</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teachers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>f) I have had formal observations with feedback.</td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>.308</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. EXTERNAL SUPPORT SERVICES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) The school division offers me technical assistance.</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>.318</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Our school division’s induction program is supported by</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>.311</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the school’s administration.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The two lowest subscales with means below the midpoint were problem solving approach to teaching improvement and formal presentations.
All *induction* scales were entered into a bivariate correlation matrix (see Table 4.3 for *Pearson’s* \( r \) correlations).

**Table 4.3** Pearson’s correlations \( (r) \) shared variance \( (r^2) \) among the induction variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Pre-assignment Contacts</th>
<th>Orientation Activities &amp; Information Dissemination</th>
<th>Personal Supports</th>
<th>Problem Solving</th>
<th>Formal Presentation</th>
<th>School Organization Plan</th>
<th>External Support Services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-assignment Contacts</td>
<td>.72**</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation Activities/ Information Dissemination</td>
<td>.87**</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Supports</td>
<td>.87**</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
<td>.89**</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal Presentation</td>
<td>.81**</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Organization Plan</td>
<td>.79**</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Support Services</td>
<td>.49**</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single Item</td>
<td>.76**</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[**p < .001\]
\[*p \leq .005\]

All scales were significantly positively correlated \( (ps \leq .005) \) demonstrating that the *induction total subscales* and the *single item self-report* question were all capturing aspects of induction.
4.3.1.1 Effects of demographics on induction. To examine potential differences in induction among the various demographic groups sampled, a series of one-way ANOVAs were conducted on all induction scores. There were no significant differences found across either the age groups ($p > .11$) or the marital status groups ($p > .30$) with regards to induction total or its subscales. No significant differences were found across living arrangements ($p > .17$), or among the different schools attended as a youth ($p > .08$). There was also no main effect of level of education on induction total or its subscales ($p > .14$). No significant differences were found between gender on induction total or any of its subscales ($p > .10$), except for the orientation activities/information dissemination subscale where males ($M = 7.02, SD = 1.53$, $SEM = .394$, 95% CI [6.17, 7.86]) reported significantly greater induction support than females ($M = 5.65, SD = 2.28$, $SEM = .325$, 95% CI [5.00, 6.30]), $F (1, 63) = 4.74$, $p = .033$, $\eta^2_p = .071$.

A significant main effect of type of school was found, $F (2, 59) = 4.11$, $p = .022$, $\eta^2_p = .126$. Post-hoc comparisons revealed that participants who taught in either elementary ($M = 6.31, SD = 1.85$, $SEM = .462$, 95% CI [5.04, 7.71]) or K-12 schools ($M = 6.17, SD = 1.65$, $SEM = .318$, 95% CI [5.08, 6.90]) reported significantly better school organization plan to support induction than those teaching in middle/high schools ($M = 5.41, SD = 1.86$, $SEM = .451$, 95% CI [4.46, 6.37]), $p < .047$. There were no significant differences between participants who taught in elementary or K-12 schools ($p = 1$).

The main effect of grade level taught was significant, $F (1, 41) = 6.10$, $p = .018$, $\eta^2_p = .132$. Post-hoc comparisons revealed that participants who taught at the elementary level ($M = 6.51, SD = 1.72$, $SEM = .376$, 95% CI [5.73, 7.30]) reported significantly better school organizational plan to support induction than those who taught at the middle/highschool level ($M = 5.11, SD = 1.94$, $SEM = .424$, 95% CI [4.23, 6.00]).
4.3.1.2 Induction qualitative data. In addition to the quantitative data, beginning teachers were asked to provide qualitative data by responding to three statements specific to their induction experiences.

4.3.1.2.1 Effective induction support. The first statement asked participants to describe the most effective induction support(s) you received over the past year.

Fifty-three participants provided qualitative data in the area of induction. When asked to describe the most effective induction support(s) received during the first year of teaching in rural schools, three main themes emerged including: staff support/mentorship (co-workers/experienced teachers, assigned mentor teacher, administration, coaches/consultants, other new teachers), formal orientation activities (first year teacher meetings), and professional development opportunities/events (conferences, online professional development).

An initial theme of staff support/mentorship (co-workers/experienced teachers, assigned mentor teacher, administration, coaches and consultants, other new teachers) emerged. Forty-three beginning teachers (81%) described the importance of staff support/mentorship during their induction experience. Fourteen teachers reflected on the benefits of having the ability to work with supportive co-workers and other experienced teachers. They stated:

*Induction supports came from supportive staff members who shared resources.*

*The most effective support was a supportive and helpful staff.*

*Supports came from talking with veteran teachers within the division. For example, I taught my first year in a rural school and I picked up some ideas that worked well from other rural teachers because the kids came from similar situations.*

Ten participants commented on the importance of an assigned mentor teacher. They recognized the value in having someone to access for assistance. Participants claimed:

*My mentor in my school was very supportive and it was nice knowing I could go her for any support.*
Getting placed with a mentor to show me the ways of doing different procedures was the most meaningful for me.

Ten beginning teachers valued support from administration at both the school and senior levels, with comments aligned with:

*The Principal of my school offered many resources and supports to assist my instruction.*

*I received regular support and observation from my Superintendent.*

Coaches and consultants were also valued by seven teachers, stating:

*My learning coach was a guide, a co-teacher, a mentor, and much more. Her support over the year made it possible for me to be an effective first year teacher.*

*The Learning Coach was a very competent and knowledgeable and overall amazing teacher. SHE made the difference. She is why I got through the year and am still teaching.*

Four new teachers also commented on the value of time spent networking with other new beginning teachers. Comments were similar to:

*These meetings allowed me to confer with fellow first year teachers and make contacts with other teachers in the division. Our first year teacher group was quite large, but we were all very supportive of each other.*

In addition, individual comments not connected to a specific theme included the need for contact email addresses and a recommended teaching resource, Harry Wong’s *First Day of School*.

*Formal orientation activities* (first year teacher meetings) presented as a second induction support theme. Planned meetings for first year teachers were described as an important part of the induction process by sixteen participants (30%). Comments included:

*The most effective support I received was attending a PD day for new teachers to the division. Division expectations, assessment practices, numerous school liaisons, etc. were explained.*
One effective induction support was attending the first year teacher meetings. These meetings allowed me to confer with fellow first year teachers and make contacts with teachers at other schools in the division. Our first year teacher group was quite large, but we were all very supportive for each other.

The first year teacher workshops were very effective and provided support from the division and also provided an outlet to meet other first year teachers.

A third theme of professional development opportunities/events occurred in the effective induction support data. Nine participants (17%) commented on the importance of having professional development opportunities provided in the first year of teaching. They valued events such as being sent to different professional development days with other new teachers, resource teacher training and inservices, and conventions. Beginning teachers also noted the need to have self-directed professional development opportunities and mentioned their own plans:

I benefited from professional development opportunities of my choice.

I am planning on attending the provincial PD session for first year teachers and I hope that it will provide me with some additional supports.

4.3.1.2.2 Mentorship support. A second open-ended statement requested specific information on the participants’ perceptions of mentorship during their induction experience. Participants were asked to describe any mentorship support that you experienced during your induction process.

When asked about their specific mentorship experiences during their first year of teaching, 51 participants provided qualitative data. Themes emerged including: an assigned mentor, co-workers/experienced teachers, curriculum and instruction, administrative support, and learning coaches.

Beginning teachers expressed the need for an assigned mentor. Twenty-two participants (43%) claimed that they had received an assigned mentor teacher during their first year of
teaching, while 10 (20%) claimed they received no mentorship support and two (4%) stated that the mentor was of no help. All but two of those who were assigned mentors described a positive experience:

_I was assigned a mentor that was near my classroom and was also my supervision partner so we had lots of opportunities to discuss things._

_I could call, email and visit my mentor and she would sit down with me and discuss all the concerns I had about my role and learning support issues._

_My mentor came and observed me teach, offered advice and was there to answer questions._

Opportunities to work with co-workers/experienced teachers emerged as a second mentorship theme. Fifteen respondents (29%) remarked on the importance of fellow co-workers and other experienced members on staff. Beginning teachers valued their assistance, by declaring:

_I made connections with other math/science teachers and contacted them throughout the year with questions and for guidance._

_A fellow science teacher provided me with the most support throughout my first year. She modeled her various assessment practices, helped me to create a class website, and taught me how to submit grades into Student Achieve for report cards._

_I had extensive support from all teachers and resource support staff for classroom management, unit/lesson planning, form/division incentives, and adaptations._

_I had support from other teachers in the division that I got to know over the year and they were supportive and provided resources and advice._

Mentorship with curriculum and instruction was also valued. Beginning teacher participants acknowledged the support they received in the area of curriculum and instruction. Seven teachers (14%) provided comments such as:

_I co-taught with two teachers at my school. We had one scheduled block in a cycle to meet for co-planning. We also met on our own time after school._

_I was able to go to another teacher’s classroom and view their teaching techniques._
I benefited from partnering with other teachers and asking them for advice regarding differentiated instruction or classroom management.

Administrative support was noted as a key component of the mentorship experience. Administrative support was mentioned by six beginning teacher participants (12%). Comments included the importance of accessibility to administration during the first year:

The Principal of my school provided mentorship support to me. She provided resources and was always available to answer any questions and provide any suggestions to better my instruction.

The administration (and the teachers) were all very welcoming and helped throughout the year.

I was assigned a mentor in my school, who I shared a classroom with. She was also the vice-principal. I was observed formally twice by her, and she assisted me in filling out my professional growth plan.

I had meetings with the Principal on an as-needed/as-requested basis.

Learning coaches were viewed as important mentors. Five participants (10%) indicated that learning coaches played a vital role in the mentorship process and commented:

My Learning Coach answered many questions I had and helped me improve my practice.

We had the mentorship support from our Learning Coaches.

Finally, in completing the mentorship question, one participant valued the emotional support provided, two participants reiterated the importance of first year teacher meetings, and two mentioned the importance of open communication and the opportunity to talk freely about the induction experience.

4.3.1.2.3 Induction supports not met. In addition to accessing information on supports received the first year of teaching, participants were asked to describe induction supports that were not met. The statement requested participants to describe any needs that were not met during the induction process over the past year.
Forty-seven participants indicated that their induction needs had not been met during their first year of teaching. Main themes emerged including lack of: *information on curriculum, instruction and assessment; administrative support; an assigned mentor; understanding procedures and protocols;* and *resources.*

Information on *curriculum, instruction, and assessment* emerged as the main theme requiring support. Seventeen beginning teachers (36%) desired more assistance with curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

*There were many “small things” that were perhaps overlooked. For example, the division’s rubric for assessment, the program in which grades are entered, and how to “do report cards” were initially unexplained to me.*

*Sometimes curriculum and planning support would have been helpful.*

*I had a few students with special needs and did not know how to incorporate them into my class as well as having a high percentage of EAL [English as an additional language] students. I also needed help with regards to setting up the report card as well.*

*I needed help with assessment standards, grading practices and reporting procedures.*

*I needed support with classes that were completely new to me.*

A lack of *administrative support* was noted by 10 of the respondents (21%), with six of the comments associated with lack of supervisory support. Participants commented:

*During my first year I did not have a superintendent or principal observe my teaching or write up a report for me.*

*I did not have many classroom visits from administrators so some of the advice I received in different areas was very general and not based on my specific classroom.*

*I had lack of support from my principal. She only supervised a class in the last week of teaching.*

*My administrator is also a teacher because we are in a small rural school. There was not a lot of time for him to explain procedures and responsibilities.*

*My principal was only in my classroom twice; high demands and low level of resources provided to me.*
Nine participants (19%) stated that they did not receive the support of an assigned mentor. All respondents (100%) indicated that they would have benefited from mentorship support and stated:

I did not get one-on-one mentorship with an experienced teacher. That would have been nice to have been assigned a teacher to help plan for units and assessments.

I would have loved a formal staff mentor. Where I come from, having a staff member “buddy up” with a new teacher is common practice.

I was very unsure of how my year was supposed to start last year. I went from teaching 6 months of Grade 2 to jumping into Student Support Services at the beginning of last year. I felt as though I had no guidance of where I was to start and where I was going.

There was no one to ask about the small daily problems and curriculum questions.

Eight teachers (17%) described the need for more support in understanding procedures and protocols in their schools and school divisions. Three of the comments were connected to contractual issues; the remainder were associated with school responsibilities. Beginning teachers stated:

The rules and procedures were not explained in detail.

I also didn’t know about benefits (dental, medical). I also didn’t know the rules of my school.

There was no guidance as to what ‘paperwork’ needs to be filled out for leave form requests, expense forms, classroom budget details, pension benefits, etc.

It would have been nice to have had some time with the local association member to go over some of the union/contract issues or questions.

School procedures and policies were not explained; I had to ask questions as I went along.

Knowledge about, and access to resources was expressed as an area of concern for six (13%) respondents. They commented on the following needs:

There were few unit plans/past resources available to me.
There was a low level of resources provided to me. 

When I first came to the school I was not informed of many of the resources available to me.

Sometimes you get so busy that you don't have the time/resources to really change your game.

When completing the section detailing needs not met during induction, three individuals commented on the need for more support in the area of personal health and well-being. One participant felt they were provided with little respect as a beginning teacher on staff, and two indicated that they would have benefited from a clear role definition upon accepting their position.

4.3.2 Research Question 2: How do rural beginning teachers perceive and understand the reciprocal elements of the psychological contract with their organizations?

The psychological contract data is presented in two sections: employer obligations and employee obligations. The employer obligation question asked: What do beginning teachers expect from their organizations (employer obligations)?

4.3.2.1 Employer obligations quantitative data. A RM ANOVA on the employer obligations subscales (short term, loyalty, narrow, performance support, development, and stability) and the employer obligations single item self-report question revealed a main effect of employer obligations, $F(6, 390) = 46.22, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .416$. Refer to Figure 4.2 for the mean employer obligation subscale scores and single item self-report question.
Figure 4.2 Mean employer obligations subscales including single item self-report question. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean.

Only two subscales (short term and narrow) show means below the mid-point on the ten-point scale. The short term subscale was significantly lower than the performance support, development, and stability subscales ($ps < .001$). The loyalty subscale was significantly higher than the narrow subscale and was significantly lower than the performance support, development and stability subscales ($ps \leq .001$); no differences were found between the loyalty and the short term subscales ($p = 1$). The narrow subscale was significantly lower than all other subscales ($ps \leq .001$), except for short term subscale ($p = .573$). The performance support subscale was significantly lower than the stability subscale ($p = .015$) but was no different than the development subscale ($p = .089$). There were no differences between the development and
stability subscales \( (p = .426) \). The employer obligation single item self-report question was significantly higher than the short term, loyalty, and narrow subscales \( (ps < .001) \), but was no different than the performance, development, or stability subscales \( (ps > .300) \).

4.3.2.1.1 Effects of demographics on employer obligations. Gender, age, marital status, school attended as a youth, and level of education did not influence employer obligation scores, \( ps > .34 \). Type of school did not influence the short term, loyalty, or stability subscale \( (ps > .08) \) but did influence the narrow, \( F(2, 59) = 3.19, p = .049, \eta^2_p = .101 \), performance support, \( F(2, 59) = 3.97, p = .024, \eta^2_p = .122 \), and development, \( F(2, 59) = 4.21, p = .02, \eta^2_p = .129 \), subscales. With regards to the narrow subscale, those teaching at an elementary school \( (M = 4.94, SD = 1.19, SEM = .297, 95\% CI [4.30, 5.57]) \) reported significantly higher scores than those teaching in a middle/high school \( (M = 3.76, SD = 1.75, SEM = .424, 95\% CI [2.87, 4.66]), p = .045 \). Those teaching in a K-12 school showed no differences compared to the other two groups \( (ps > .35) \).

On the performance support subscale, those teaching in a K-12 school \( (M = 7.27, SD = 1.86, SEM = .358, 95\% CI [6.54, 8.01]) \) reported significantly greater support than those teaching in a middle/high school \( (M = 5.67, SD = 2.36, SEM = .573, 95\% CI [4.47, 6.90]), p = .04 \). The comparison between those teaching in an elementary school \( (M = 7.35, SD = 1.82, SEM = .455, 95\% CI [6.38, 8.32]) \) and a middle/high school approached significance, \( p = .061 \). For the development subscale, those teaching in an elementary school \( (M = 8.00, SD = 1.64, SEM = .410, 95\% CI [7.13, 8.87]) \) reported significantly more employer support than those teaching in a middle/high school \( (M = 6.31, SD = 1.96, SEM = .476, 95\% CI [7.13, 8.87]), p = .021 \). Comparisons with those who teach in a K-12 school were non-significant, \( ps > .09 \).
4.3.2.2 Employer obligations qualitative data. In order to access qualitative data on employer obligations, beginning teachers were asked to respond to the following question: Thinking back to when you began your teaching career, what supports had you expected from your organization?

Forty-nine participants provided data regarding their expected supports from their organization as they entered into the teaching profession. Five main themes emerged in the employer obligation qualitative data including: administrative support, mentorship, professional development opportunities, information on curriculum and assessment, and job expectations.

4.3.2.2.1 Administrative support. Fifteen beginning teacher participants (31%) claimed that they expected administrative support from their employers when they began their careers. Respondents desired support from division personnel as well as the school-based administrative team. Supervisory support was also a priority for six of the beginning teachers. Additionally, seven participants assessed the quality of the administrative support received, with two participants claiming that the administrative support was received and five stating it was not provided. Participants claimed:

*I expected support from administration (school and division) on assisting me with settling in and providing expectations and feedback on my progress.*

*I expected leadership in our school and respect. I expected quality supervision. I was supervised once and the report was filled in with little to no real information on me. For some areas, no one had even come and observed. They seemed to make up generic information about me!*

*I expected that I would have support from the school community, from principals and other teachers. I received the support I needed from all facets.*

*I couldn’t have asked for a better school, administration or professional peers.*
4.3.2.2 Mentorship opportunities. Twelve beginning teachers (24%) expected that the employer would provide mentorship opportunities. They expected a mentor teacher who would provide support and guidance:

*I expected subject specific mentorship and support.*

*I expected guidance and support when required.*

*I expected to have a more “hands-on” mentor who would oversee my practices, provide me with feedback and make sure I was “doing things right”.*

4.3.2.2.3 Professional development opportunities. Having professional development opportunities provided by the employer was an expectation of seven (14%) of the respondents. Most beginning teachers concisely stated professional development opportunities or activities and provided no further explanation. One teacher expected a professional development opportunity that was not provided, stating:

*I was hoping that I could attend a conference at the beginning of the school year that would explain pay breakdown (salary, daily rate), benefits….explaining the different forms, certain initiatives that the school division had ongoing….there should be some sort of initiation program. Even for new people who enter throughout the school year. This can be communicated in many ways as either a conference or a series of blogs or videos that the school division allows new teachers access to and then that way even a teacher who is accepting a term position or permanent position knows what the school and division expects of them.*

4.3.2.2.4 Information on curriculum and assessment. Curriculum and assessment supports were noted as an employer obligation by seven (14%) beginning teachers. One beginning teacher who came from out-of-province noted the importance of support with the Saskatchewan curriculum:

*I expected more support with curriculum (am from out of province so the Saskatchewan Curriculum is new to me). I expected support with courses that I teach which are out of my subject area.*

Others simply commented:
I expected guidance for curriculum.

I expected help with classroom management and curriculum.

I expected support in classroom management, obtaining materials, divisional policies, and report cards.

I expected help with long term planning and assessment, and help with report cards.

4.3.2.2.5 Job expectations. Seven of the participants (14%) indicated that they expected the employer to have outlined the job expectations prior to beginning teaching. They expected clear, concise expectations of what the school and the division expected. Beginning teachers thought the employer would:

Tell me what was expected of me.

Provide job/grade specific training..... (this job) was not what I learned as part of my university training.

Provide a better understanding of where I fit into the school; what the administration’s expectations were for my position.

In addition, three respondents had expected support in the area of resources and two expected employers to provide a contract, salary, and benefits. Nine of the respondents (18%) indicated that they had no expectations of the employer as they began their career.

The second section pertaining to the psychological contract asked participants about employee obligations—what they expected to give to their organization as they began their careers. The question asked: What do beginning teachers expect to give their organizations?

4.3.2.3 Employee obligations quantitative data. A RM ANOVA on the employee obligations subscales (short term, loyalty, narrow, performance support, development, and stability) and the employee obligation single item self-report question revealed a significant main effect of employee obligations, $F (6, 378) = 179.01, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .74$. Refer to Figure 4.3 for mean employee obligation scores across all subscales and single item self-report question.
Figure 4.3 Mean employee obligations subscales including employee single item self-report question. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean.

Only two subscales (short term and narrow) show means below the mid-point on the ten-point scale. The short term subscale was significantly lower than all subscales ($ps < .001$), except the narrow subscale which was significantly lower than the short term subscale ($p = .009$). The loyalty subscale was significantly higher than the narrow subscale ($p < .001$), but no differences were found between the loyalty subscale and the performance support, development and stability subscales ($ps > .07$). The narrow subscale was significantly lower than all other subscales ($ps \leq .009$). Performance support was not significantly different than the loyalty or development subscales ($ps = 1$), but was significantly higher than short term, narrow and stability subscales.
The development subscale was significantly higher than the stability subscale ($p = .007$). The employee obligation single item self-report question was significantly higher than short term, narrow, and stability subscales ($ps \leq .011$), but was not significantly different than the loyalty, performance support, and development subscales ($ps = 1$).

4.3.2.3.1 Effects of demographics on employee obligations. Neither gender, age, marital status, school attended as youth, level of education, nor type of school, influenced employee obligation scores (all $ps > .127$). Marginally significant interactions were found with living arrangements, $F(6, 300) = 2.04, p = .061, \eta_p^2 = .039$, and grade level taught, $F(12, 300) = 1.77, p = .052, \eta_p^2 = .066$. However, the assumption of sphericity was violated in both instances, and the Greenhouse-Geisser correction revealed non-significant interactions, $F(6, 300) = 2.04, p = .100, \eta_p^2 = .039$, and, $F(12, 300) = 1.77, p = .105, \eta_p^2 = .066$, respectively.

4.3.2.4 Employee obligations qualitative data. Qualitative data about employee obligations was accessed from an open-ended question: Thinking back to when you began your teaching career, what had you expected to give to your organization?

Beginning teachers indicated that they entered into teaching with clear obligations to the organization. Fifty-one participants indicated that they were intending to support their organization in the areas of: personal best effort/enthusiasm, going above and beyond what was expected, time, extra-curricular involvement, supports for students, and knowledge and skills. In general, beginning teachers were eager to give to their organization in any way possible.

4.3.2.4.1 Personal best effort/enthusiasm. Over half of the participants ($n = 26; 51\%$) claimed that they had expected to give their best effort when they began their teaching careers. Comments suggested a positive outlook and excitement toward supporting their students.

Participants stated:
I was hoping to provide them with a young, ambitious teacher that would provide students with a solid education.

I would give my time, my creativity, my passion for teaching, to help maintain a positive reputation of innovative and engaging teaching.

I expected to provide a quality education to all of my students and to be a contributing member to my school team.

I just wanted to contribute and do the best job that I could and hopefully improve as the year went on.

4.3.2.4.2 Going above and beyond what was expected. Fourteen participants (27%) expressed that they intended to go above and beyond what was expected, with phrases such as give my life and everything used in the descriptions:

I expected to give the division and my school my “life” for the year...that’s the role of the first year teacher though!

Exactly what I gave them. Everything and anything to make me an effective teacher and to help the school operate smoothly.

I expected to give 120% and that is what I have been doing.

I hoped to be a great teacher that went above and beyond because you loved the job so much and want to be the best possible teacher.

I expected to give to students whatever I could to mold life-long learners!

4.3.2.4.3 Time. Fourteen respondents (27%) claimed that they were obligated to give of their time to the organization (n = 14). Time was required to complete the work, prove their worth to the organization and secure a solid reputation. For one teacher, it meant giving much more time than the contract asked. Participants expressed:

I expected to give quite a large portion of my time, regarding lesson planning and creating a classroom environment that was conducive to student learning and success.

I expected to give my time and effort to show what I can do.

I intended to give a commitment, my time and energy beyond school hours.
4.3.2.4.4 *Extra-curricular involvement.* Nine participants (18%) described extra-curricular involvement as part of their obligations to their organization. *Extra-curricular involvement* included coaching and supervising students and suggested involvement in multiple activities. The commented:

*I expected to be as involved as possible in the division and the school, and in as many extra-curriculars as I could.*

*I expected to be involved in many extra-curricular activities.*

4.3.2.4.5 *Supports for students.* Eight of the respondents (16%) emphasized the importance of committing to supporting students and meeting student needs. They also acknowledged the commitment of time and energy required to do the work. They stated:

*I expected to provide accommodation and modifications for all students.*

*I expected to (and I do) give excellent support to students with needs. I created and implemented programs after school to help these students, sacrificed my own time/breaks/lunches to meet with students and earn their respect.*

4.3.2.4.6 *Knowledge and skills.* Seven participants (14%) stated that they intended to share their knowledge and skills as part of their obligation to the organization. In general, they felt that they had solid, high-quality instructional skills and teaching methods to share and implement in the classroom. Comments included:

*I intend to provide good instructional skills and professionalism.*

*I will accept and use new concepts and methods of teaching.*

*I would offer good classroom management and effective teaching strategies.*

*I would provide competent lesson/unit/year plans that meet curriculum outcomes and standards, and good reporting practices.*

4.3.2.5 *Reciprocal obligations.* Finally, to identify whether or not employer and employee supports were reciprocal, a series of paired-samples t-tests were conducted that
compared the same subscale between employer and employee obligations. The two employer and employee obligation single item self-report questions were also compared (see Figure 4.4). .

Mean Employer (ER) and Employee (EE) Obligations Scores

ER and EE Subscales and Single Item Self-Report

Figure 4.4 Mean employer and employee obligations subscales including obligations single item self-report question. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean.

The Bonferroni correction was applied for seven t-tests resulting in a new probability value of $\alpha = .007 (\alpha = .05 ÷ 7 = .007$; Field, 2013). All pairs were significant ($ps < .001$) except
the stability subscale pair \( (p = .102) \). *Employer obligation* scores were significantly higher than *employee obligation* scores for the short term and narrow subscales. The pattern was reversed for the loyalty, performance support, development subscales, and the single item self-report question. Finally, a bivariate correlation was completed between the two single-item self-report obligation questions. There was a strong positive correlation among employer and employee obligations, \( r(68) = .48, p < .001 \), as measured by the single item self-report question. Employer and employee obligations share 22.8% of the variance in responses.

4.3.3 Research Question 3: How do rural beginning teachers perceive their flourishing in schools?

4.3.3.1 Flourishing quantitative data. A RM ANOVA on first day flourishing, present flourishing and flourishing total revealed a significant main effect of flourishing, \( F(2, 128) = 96.75, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .602 \) (see Figure 4.5 for mean and standard errors for flourishing scores).

![Mean Flourishing Scores](image)

Figure 4.5 Flourishing scale and flourishing ladder totals. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean.
Post-hoc comparisons revealed that participants’ *first day flourishing* was significantly lower than *present flourishing* and *flourishing total* (*p* < .001); *present flourishing* was significantly lower than *flourishing totals* (*p* < .001). Bivariate correlations demonstrated that *first day flourishing* was significantly correlated with *present flourishing*, *r*(65) = .25, *p* = .043, accounting for 6% of shared variance, but not with *flourishing total*, *r*(65) = .09, *p* = .476. *Present flourishing* scores were positively correlated with *flourishing total* scores, *r*(65) = .42, *p* < .001, sharing 17% of the variance.

In order to examine participants’ *flourishing* across *first day flourishing* and *present flourishing*, data was organized according to Cantril’s (1965) *Self-anchoring striving scale* groupings. Cantril’s groupings can be used to determine beginning teacher flourishing as *thriving* (scores of 7+), *struggling* (scores between 5 and 6), or *suffering* (scores between 0 and 4; refer to Table 4.4). Only one-quarter of the sample were *thriving* on the first day, while three-quarters of the sample reported *thriving* after one year of teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.4 Cantril’s (1965) Ladder (Self-anchoring striving scale groupings)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Day Flourishing</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>n (%)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Thriving (7+)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Struggling (5 - 6)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Suffering (0 - 4)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to examine the direction of participants’ changes in *first* and *present day flourishing*, difference scores (*present day flourishing – first day flourishing*) were calculated between the two single-item self-report flourishing ladder questions (see Table 4.5). Difference scores should be positive to indicate growth. An overwhelming majority of participants demonstrated positive change.
Table 4.5 Present and First Day Flourishing Differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>-5 to -2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Change</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Modal change: 2 (n = 19)

4.3.2.3.1 Effects of demographics on flourishing. Demographics used in this study had no influence on flourishing. None of the flourishing scales interacted with gender (ps > .53), age (ps > .18), marital status (ps > .48), school attended as a youth (ps > .09), level of education (ps > .76) or type of school (p > .22).

4.3.3.2 Flourishing qualitative data. A final open-ended statement asked participants to share any additional information they wished to provide in the areas of induction, psychological contract or flourishing. Although the final qualitative question offered participants the opportunity to share on any of the three topics presented in the study (Please describe any additional information you would like to share regarding your first year teaching experience [including the topics of beginning teacher induction, psychological contract or flourishing]), information was most pertinent to their degree of fulfillment or flourishing as participants spoke of feeling either overwhelmed or successful.

Thirty-one participants shared their positive and negative experiences. Twenty teachers (64%) expressed feeling overwhelmed during the first year of teaching, whereas only nine teachers (29%) spoke of successes during their first year.

4.3.3.2.1 Feeling overwhelmed. Participants spoke of increasing demands placed on teachers, the time required to do the job well, disconnect between what was learned in university and the real world of teaching, and their concern for their personal well-being. Statements included:
Throughout my first year I felt so many emotions, it is hard to recall any particular experiences. I often felt overwhelmed with increasing demands and unsure as to whether I was fulfilling the expectations that were assigned to me. However, I believe that the new expectations were overwhelming my veteran colleagues also, and perhaps that’s why I was often left feeling on my own.

What they teach you in school does not prepare you for what you will encounter in the working world...especially in a rural, northern, native community. FLEXIBILITY IS KEY!

I don’t have time to keep myself healthy. I am so unhappy with my body now.

Without a strong staff or teachers that were able to assist me emotionally and academically, I would have quit my job.

The division and Ministry piles on too many initiatives, with not enough guidelines, so it can become very stressful trying to figure out how to accomplish these things while staying sane.

My course loads have been gigantic and far too diverse to teach effectively. During my first year I taught courses that were far removed from my field of study and had a minimal amount of prep time. This, combined with the need to be in constant communication with home, meetings, and extra-curr, meant that I spent most of my life outside of school planning or doing other school related tasks.

Many different professions are not expected to bring their work home, but as teachers if we don’t have the time during our workday to do all the necessary tasks we will be taking our work home. I feel the added pressures of changing pedagogy, curriculum, and instructional methods. Directives from the ministry are overwhelming for first year teachers and if they don’t have enough support they will burn out.

The first year of teaching is hard. Keeping up with everything is not easy.

4.3.3.2.2 First-year successes. Beginning teachers spoke of success during their first year. Successes included supportive colleagues and effective induction programs.

My first year of school has been excellent, and I feel much better prepared and independent moving with the school division this year. I will be working with the school division on obtaining my Masters in Special Education in the upcoming year.

I have loved my time in a northern school...the job is taxing mentally, to be sure, but it is incredible to see the small steps forward that our students make throughout the year. I have surprised myself and dealt with issues that I never could have imagined.

After 3 months I found that I was flourishing!
I had a great first year, mostly due to the helpful staff making me feel included and wanting to help.

Beginning teacher induction was a success!

Just one teacher asking how your day was makes a huge difference; great to have people like that on staff especially when you are teaching out of your subject area as a high school-trained teacher teaching in an elementary classroom.

My position was very fluid, which was not always easy, but due to my vice-principal and other middle year’s staff I was able to gain confidence in what I was doing.

4.3.4 Research Question 4: What relationship exists among beginning teachers’ perceptions of induction supports provided, psychological contract, and teacher flourishing in schools?

4.3.4.1 Relationship quantitative data. To determine if employer and employee obligations influence induction total, a hierarchical linear regression was conducted with employer obligations entered in the first block and employee obligations in the second block. Employer obligation scores predicted induction total scores, standardized $b = .38$, $t (63) = 3.14$, $p = .003$, 95% CI [.148, .669]. Employer obligation scores explained 14% of the variance in induction total scores, $R^2 = .141$, $F (1, 61) = 9.83$, $p = .003$. Employee obligations did not significantly increase prediction, $R^2_{\text{change}} = .008$, $F (1, 59) = .54$, $p = .464$.

With regards to flourishing, there was a weak positive correlation among total induction and present day flourishing, $r (68) = .30$, $p = .013$. There was no correlation among employer and employee obligations and present day flourishing ($rs < .20$, $ps > .200$). First day flourishing was not correlated with induction, the psychological contract variables (employer and employee obligations) or flourishing total ($ps > .67$).

To determine if induction, and employer and employee obligation scores predicted participants’ present flourishing in schools, a hierarchical linear regression was conducted that entered participants’ induction total scores into the model first, followed by the two single-item
psychological contract variables in the second block. Only induction total scores significantly predicted present flourishing scores, standardized \( b = .28, t (55) = 2.03, p = .048, 95\% \text{ CI } [.002, .436]\). Induction scores also explained nearly 8\% of the variance in flourishing scores, \( R^2 = .078, F (1, 58) = 4.85, p = .032 \). Addition of employer and employee obligations variables did not significantly improve prediction, \( R^2_{\text{change}} = 0, F (2, 55) = 0, p = 1 \).

A second hierarchical linear regression was conducted that entered induction total scores into the model first, followed by the psychological contract variables in the second block. No variables other than induction significantly improved prediction of flourishing, \( R^2_{\text{change}} = .197, F (6, 45) = 2.27, p = .053 \).

The same hierarchal regressions were run using flourishing total scores as the outcome variable. Induction total scores did not significantly predict flourishing total scores, \( R^2 = .001, F (1, 57) = .04, p = .852 \). Addition of the employer and employee obligation variables demonstrated that employee obligations significantly increased prediction, standardized \( b = .41, t (61) = 3.44, p = .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.011, .426], R^2_{\text{change}} = .104, F (2, 55) = 3.16, p = .05 \), where employee obligations explained 15.9\% of variance in flourishing total.

Chapter 5 provides the discussion of the qualitative and quantitative data. Conclusions and implications for theory, practice and future research are also presented. Chapter 5 concludes with the researcher’s perception of the dissertation journey.
CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this mixed methods study was to investigate the relationship among rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract (employer and employee obligations) with their organizations, the induction supports received, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools. I examined both quantitative and qualitative data to access rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perspectives on their first year of teaching.

In this chapter, a summary of the study and its findings is provided; the findings are discussed as they pertain to the literature described in Chapter Two. The discussion occurs within the four research questions and includes rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions on: induction supported expected and received, the psychological contract with respect to the employers’ obligation to the employee and the employees’ obligation to the organization, their degree of flourishing as they began their careers and after one year of experience, and the relationship among all three afore mentioned concepts. A revised, post-study conceptual framework is presented. Following the discussion section, implications and recommendations in the areas of theory, practice and further research are provided as they relate to beginning teacher induction, psychological contract and flourishing. The final section of this chapter contains my personal reflections on this research journey.

5.1 Discussion

A mixed methods convergent parallel design was used in this study. Quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed independently and the results were mixed during the interpretative and discussion phase. Perceptions of rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers (hereto referred to as beginning teachers) who had completed their first year of teaching were studied. The
Supporting the Psychological Contract Toward Flourishing (SPCF) survey was utilized to garner beginning teachers’ perceptions on induction supports received, their psychological contract with their school organization, and their flourishing in schools. One hundred ten beginning teachers provided data for the analysis.

**5.2 Perceptions of Induction**

Perceptions of induction were attained through answering the first research question: *How do rural beginning teachers describe the actual induction supports they are receiving from their organizations?*

The SPCF provided both quantitative and qualitative data on beginning teachers’ perceptions of induction. Moussiaux’s (2001) instrument, with subscales adapted for use in the current survey, provided the source for the induction data. All induction subscales, although adapted to reflect the Saskatchewan educational context, were significantly positively correlated ($p_s \leq .005$). This correlation demonstrates that although the survey tool was altered for current use, the subscales remain correlated demonstrating that the same underlying psychological construct of *induction* was still being measured.

Rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers perceived their overall *induction* support as just slightly over the midpoint on the 10 point scale ($M = 5.64$, $SD = 1.76$). Perceptions of their induction experiences were interpreted by ranking the subscales from lowest to highest means (see Table 4.2). Scores from the *Problem Solving Approach to Teaching Improvement* subscale ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 2.20$) and *Formal Presentations* subscale ($M = 4.65$, $SD = 2.62$) ranked as the two lowest induction supports, respectively, demonstrating the poorest perceptions of induction supports received. *Pre-Assignment Contacts* ($M = 5.70$, $SD = 2.18$) and *School Organizational Plan to Support Induction* subscales ($M = 5.80$, $SD = 1.76$) were perceived as receiving medium
support. The areas receiving the best induction support were *Orientation Activities/Information Dissemination* (*M* = 6.06, *SD* = 2.17), *Personal Supports by Experienced Staff* (*M* = 6.35, *SD* = 2.14) and *External Support Services* (*M* = 7.13, *SD* = 1.96).

For the purposes of this discussion, and to gain further insight into beginning teachers’ perceptions of induction within each of the subscales, all subscale items were ranked from lowest to highest means (see Table 5.1 below). Induction support items were then grouped and categorized as *problematic* (supports not perceived as being received by beginning teachers with means near or below 5.0) or *positive* (supports not perceived as being received by beginning teachers with means near or above 6.0). Quantitative themes were echoed in the qualitative comments gathered through the open-ended questions. Comments, in addition to relevant literature are presented in the following discussions.

### 5.2.1 Problematic Induction Support Themes

Within the lowest ranked items, four main themes emerged as problematic for Saskatchewan beginning teachers: *having an assigned mentor, levels of extra-curricular involvement, receiving classroom management support, and access to first year meetings*.

**5.2.1.1 Having an assigned mentor.** Mentorship is a valued component of the induction process. Empirical findings indicated that beginning teachers benefit from an assigned mentor teacher to provide classroom support throughout the induction process (Huling-Austin & Murphy, 1987; Hellsten et al., 2009; Moir & Gless, 2001). However, beginning teachers in this study indicated poor induction support with regards to being assigned a teacher mentor to work with them (Item 9, *M* = 4.58, *SD* = 4.23) and even poorer perceptions of induction support when responding about being assigned a mentor at their grade level (Item 3, *M* = 3.52, *SD* = 4.02).
Table 5.1 Induction subscale items ranked by mean induction subscale and item means (M), standard deviations (SD) and standard error of the means (SEM) (n = 71).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Induction Items</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SEM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I observed lessons demonstrated by experienced teachers.</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I worked with my mentor on lesson plans and materials for instruction.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I was assigned a teacher mentor at my grade level.</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I attended meetings to discuss and develop curriculum.</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I attended workshops/seminars on classroom management.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>0.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I was informed about the evaluation criteria and process to determine tenure.</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. My concerns were considered for inservice needs and professional development.</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I was assigned a limited number of extra-curricular activities.</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>0.451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I was assigned a teacher mentor to work with me.</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I was given in-class assistance by experienced teachers.</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Induction activities were selected and targeted toward specific goals.</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>0.370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I had meetings with my Principal and mentor to schedule observation times.</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I was given assistance with classroom management and student discipline.</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Report cards and grading were explained to me.</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>0.366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Release time was built into the program for induction activities and opportunities.</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. There were meetings with beginning teachers to discuss improvement and instructional concerns.</td>
<td>5.93</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>0.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Support was given to me to find and use appropriate and innovative instruction materials.</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. My Principal talked with me about instructional matters.</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Supervision was organized, consistent, and continuous.</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>0.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. My Principal explained his/her expectations and norms of teacher conduct.</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Printed materials dealing with school regulations were explained to me.</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Resource materials were identified or me in my new school.</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>0.351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Induction Items</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>SEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Orientation included meeting on the school procedures and policies.</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>0.336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I received printed materials on school regulations/protocols prior to the beginning of the school year.</td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. The Principal visited my classroom.</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. I met with my school Principal prior to beginning the school year.</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>0.388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. I visited with school faculty prior to beginning the school year.</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. My school division offers me technical assistance.</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>0.318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I was given opportunity to consult with experienced teachers.</td>
<td>6.85</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. My school organization supported collegiality.</td>
<td>7.06</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>0.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Our school division’s induction program is supported by the school’s administration.</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>0.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. I was made aware of professional development opportunities.</td>
<td>7.46</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>0.251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. I was introduced to the school community.</td>
<td>7.73</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>0.253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. I have had formal observations with feedback.</td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>0.308</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Items are ranked from lowest to highest mean.

Even more problematic was the lack of opportunity to work with a mentor on lesson plans and materials for instruction (Item 2, $M = 3.00$, $SD = 3.55$). According to the qualitative data, having a mentor was valued, and those who had not received a mentor expressed that they would have benefited from mentorship support. In fact, when received, staff/mentorship support was reported as the most effective induction support received during the first year of teaching.

Beginning teachers felt that mentorship should focus on supporting curriculum, assessment and instruction; understanding procedures and protocols; and acquiring knowledge about accessing resources.

Not only was experienced teacher mentorship important, but peer mentorship was also valued. Beginning teachers commented through open-ended statements on the value of having
the opportunity to work with other beginning teachers, as they viewed their peers as strong mentors. They recognized peer mentorship as a part of their induction experiences. They appreciated the opportunity to network with other first year teachers and found their peers to be very supportive of each other. This is an area that was not targeted in the quantitative subscale items, but appeared to be important in the induction process for rural Saskatchewan teachers.

Clearly, beginning teachers felt mentorship was beneficial for those who received it. Similar to the empirical findings, a lack of mentorship was identified as detrimental to induction by the participants in this study. Given the overall low means for mentorship items, many felt that the mentorship component of the induction process was missing, and the absence of mentorship was mirrored in both the quantitative and qualitative data. This indicates that mentorship was a priority in the induction process.

5.2.1.2 Level of extra-curricular involvement. Moir (1990) indicated that early in the first year of instruction, many beginning teachers volunteer for extra-curricular activities that consume after-school and weekend time. These eager commitments often contribute to the anxieties associated with the “survival” stage of induction. Beginning teachers in the current study did not perceive themselves as having a limited number of extra-curricular activities (Item 8, \( M = 4.51, SD = 3.80 \)). Rather, they felt committed to some greater degree of involvement in extra-curricular activities and viewed this as part of the beginning teacher’s role. Beginning teachers commented that they intended to give at the outset to their organization, specifically in the area of extra-curricular obligations. Extra-curricular levels of commitment may be of interest to school-based administrators, who have the capacity to influence and monitor the beginning teachers’ degree of extra-curricular involvement. Research supports that beginning teachers in rural schools may feel a sense of isolation (Schlichte et al., 2005) and in some cases may
accommodate for the lack of belonging through involvement in extra-curricular activities.

However, beginning teachers need to have the opportunity to focus on instruction and not be consumed by extra-curricular commitments.

5.2.1.3 Classroom management support. Veenman (1984) described the 24 most frequently perceived problems of beginning teachers, and issues around classroom discipline ranked first in overall concerns. Rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers reinforced the importance of strong classroom management skills and expressed that they were given minimal assistance regarding classroom management and student discipline (Item 13, $M = 5.18$, $SD = 3.10$). Attending workshops/seminars on classroom management was also ranked low (Item 5, $M = 4.18$, $SD = 3.54$). Support in the area of classroom management and student discipline is an integral component within the induction process, as good teaching is only able to occur in an environment conducive to learning where students understand the expectations regarding classroom behavior and protocols. Beginning teachers need more resources and support to ensure their knowledge about effective classroom management techniques (Veenman, 1984).

5.2.1.4 First year meetings. Beginning teachers perceived that to some degree, meetings to discuss improvement and instructional concerns (Item 16, $M = 5.93$, $SD = 2.68$) were being provided. However, they expressed concern that they did not attend meetings to discuss and develop curriculum (Item 4, $M = 4.13$, $SD = 3.47$). Although meetings occurred, beginning teachers claimed the meetings were not targeted to specific goals (Item 11, $M = 4.79$, $SD = 3.12$). In open-ended comments, beginning teachers described professional development meetings and the first-year teacher meetings which allowed them to “confer with fellow teachers and make contacts with teachers at other schools in the division” and gain information about “division expectations and assessment practices.” The importance of meetings within the induction
process is supported in the literature (Gardner, 2003; Johnson, 2011; Larabee, 2009) specifically with respect to professional learning communities (Dufour, 2004; Prytula et al., 2009). Beginning teachers in this study perceived that they were receiving access to meetings to some degree; however focus on regularly occurring meetings and specific meeting content was an area beginning teachers identified as important.

5.2.2 Positive Induction Support Themes

Rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers identified strong positive support in the areas of: support from administration; information on procedures and protocols, consulting with experienced teachers, collegiality and belonging, providing resource materials, and awareness of professional development opportunities.

5.2.2.1 Support from administration. Various researchers advocate that administrative support is an essential component of an effective induction program (Algozzine, Grete, Queen & Cowan-Hathcock, 2007; Alliance for Excellent Education, 2004; Armstrong, 1984; Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1992; Glickman, 1984; Littrell, Billingsley & Cross, 1994; Smylie & Hart, 1999; Wayne, Youngs & Fleishman, 2005; Wong, 2005). In this survey, rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers perceived administrative support as a strength of the induction programing provided to them in their first year of teaching. They indicated that principals explained their expectations and norms of teacher conduct (Item 20, $M = 6.10, SD = 3.30$) and that principals talked about instructional matters with beginning teachers (Item 18, $M = 6.0, SD = 3.39$). Beginning teachers reported that they met with their principals prior to the start of the school year (Item 26, $M = 6.49, SD = 3.27$). Regarding the supervisory process, beginning teachers reported that their principal visited their classroom (Item 25, $M = 6.42, SD = 3.39$) and that they received formal observations and feedback from their principals (Item 34, $M = 8.14, SD = 2.60$;
highest mean score). Supervision was perceived as organized, consistent, and continuous (Item 19, $M = 6.01, SD = 3.08$). However, beginning teachers wanted more ability to meet with their principal and mentor to schedule observation times (Item 12, $M = 4.89, SD = 3.76$). Finally, beginning teachers conveyed that the school’s administration supported the division’s induction program (Item 31, $M = 7.44, SD = 2.62$).

Specific comments from beginning teachers reinforced that they received administrative support. One participant stated, “My Principal provided mentorship support for me. She provided resources and was always available to answer any questions and provide any suggestions to better my instruction.” Those who did not receive administrative support noted its absence, specifically in the supervisory capacity. They also referred to the vital role learning coaches and consultants played when answering questions and providing support in the areas of curriculum and instruction. Clearly, administrative support was reported as a valued component of the induction process. This support appeared to be in the form of opportunities for discussions and meetings with the principal, as well as planned supervision; both need to be maintained as a vital part of the induction process.

5.2.2.2 Information on procedures and protocols. There is minimal literature regarding the importance of discussing procedures and protocols with beginning teachers, but the data collected in this study reinforces the need to consider the topic as part of the induction process. When analyzing the quantitative data, beginning teachers generally felt that they were well informed about the procedures and protocols within their schools. They indicated that orientation included meeting on school procedures and policies (Item 23, $M = 6.27, SD = 2.83$). Printed materials dealing with school regulations were explained (Item 21, $M = 6.13, SD = 3.00$) and received prior to the beginning of the school year (Item 24, $M = 6.28, SD = 3.36$). However,
beginning teachers expressed that they did not understand the process to be followed in order to attain tenure (Item 5, $M = 4.35, SD = 3.54$). If beginning teachers have knowledge about tenure expectations, they have a greater opportunity to succeed in their first and second years of teaching.

In relation to the qualitative data, however, some beginning teachers indicated that they were in need of more support in acquiring information on procedures and protocols. Interest was expressed around acquiring information on benefits, how to complete paperwork, and the need to better understand the workings of their local organizations.

**5.2.2.3 Consulting with experienced teachers.** Working with an experienced teacher is an important component of the induction process (Wong et al., 2005). Beginning teachers in this study expressed that they were given opportunities to consult with experienced teachers (Item 29, $M = 6.85, SD = 3.06$), however reported that they did not have the opportunity to observe lessons demonstrated by (Item 1, $M = 2.82, SD = 3.34$; lowest mean score), or receive in-class assistance from (Item 10, $M = 4.75, SD = 3.51$), experienced teachers. Those beginning teachers who provided qualitative data also confirmed that they benefited from working with veteran teachers to “pick up ideas that work well.” It appears that induction support from experienced teachers is provided, but needs to move past the consultation stage to actualization in the classroom with beginning teachers. Consultation is important, but the in-class experiences are also perceived as valuable to beginning teachers.

**5.2.2.4 Collegiality and belonging.** Beginning teachers often struggle to find their place in the school social structure (Brock & Grady, 2007) and those who work in small rural schools, may feel a sense of isolation (Dussault et al., 1997; Schlichte et al., 2005). However, in this study, beginning teachers reported that collegiality was supported (Item 30, $M = 7.06, SD = $
They stated that they had opportunities to meet with staff prior to the beginning of the school year (Item 27, \( M = 6.49, SD = 3.39 \)) and they felt that they were connected and introduced to the community (Item 33, \( M = 7.73, SD = 2.13 \)). Those who commented on first year successes acknowledged that some of the success was attributed to “the helpful staff making me feel included and wanting to help” and “just one teacher asking how your day was makes a huge difference. Great to have people on staff like that.” As both quantitative and qualitative data confirm, when beginning teachers feel included in the school environment they are likely to be more successful in the classroom.

5.2.2.5 Providing resource materials. In some of the seminal research on induction support, Veenman (1984) and Glickman (1984) indicated that beginning teachers reported concern regarding insufficient materials and supplies and inadequate resources. Beginning teachers in this study generally felt supported with respect to resources provided. They perceived that resource materials were identified in their new school (Item 22, \( M = 6.13, SD = 2.96 \)) and they felt that support was given to find and use appropriate and innovative instruction materials (Item 17, \( M = 5.96, SD = 2.98 \)). Technical assistance was also provided to beginning teachers (Item 28, \( M = 6.82, SD = 2.68 \)). Beginning teachers in rural Saskatchewan schools seem to report sufficient resource support, perhaps indicating a reflection on availability of resources connected to internet access and online technologies.

5.2.2.6 Awareness of professional development opportunities. Ardell and Tager (1981) emphasized the importance of beginning teachers continuing to improve themselves and to become lifelong learners. In schools, when beginning teachers are provided networking opportunities, including professional development activities, beginning teachers are better able to move from novice to expert status (Lovo et al., 2006) and are able to set goals (Dufour et al.,
Sharplin (2002) stated that rural teachers expressed concerns about lack of professional development opportunities, however beginning teachers in this study claimed that they were made aware of professional development opportunities (Item 32, $M = 7.46$, $SD = 2.12$). Although aware of professional development opportunities, beginning teachers still claimed that their concerns were not considered for inservice needs and professional development (Item 7, $M = 4.44$, $SD = 3.42$). Beginning teachers also expressed a need for professional development support in the area of assessment, particularly regarding having report cards and grading explained (Item 14, $M = 5.31$, $SD = 3.09$). Additionally, they indicated they did not have release time built into the program for induction activities (Item 15, $M = 5.62$, $SD = 2.97$). Evidently, beginning teachers have a strong awareness of available professional development opportunities, but require some extra support, including release time to ensure that their specific needs are met through participation.

Induction supports are being provided to rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers in the areas of support from administration, information on procedures and protocols, consulting with experienced teachers, collegiality and belonging, providing resource materials, and awareness of professional development opportunities. Those areas perceived as receiving lower supports included having an assigned mentor, having limited extra-curricular involvement, receiving classroom management support, and access to first year teacher meetings.

### 5.2.3 Understanding Induction Score Differences

In addition to the subscale item statements, a single item, self-report induction question was presented to participants in order to obtain an overall perception of induction supports received. Data analysis revealed that the overall single item induction question scores were significantly higher ($M = 6.39$) than total induction scores ($M = 5.64$). Regardless of this
difference, there was a strong positive correlation between the single item and total induction scores, indicating that both measures were indeed tapping induction with 61% shared variance. However, the significant difference suggests that beginning teachers in the current study either include additional positive or exclude negative factors associated with induction in their self-reports that are not reflected in the total induction scores.

5.2.4 Emerging Effect of Demographics on Induction Perceptions

A number of demographic variables influenced participants’ perceptions of induction in the current study. Significant differences were found between gender and the orientation activities/information dissemination subscale. Males reported significantly greater induction support than females, suggesting that males need less support in assessment and grading, expectations of teacher conduct, and general school procedures and regulations. Males felt well supervised and connected to the community as compared to females. In opened-ended questions males also spoke of having meetings with administration and mentors, with individuals stating “I linked up with a department head who kept me focused” and “I met with a mentor once a week and went to meetings three times throughout the year to support the first year process.” One male also noted the importance of “personal meetings with all admin and subject-specific staff members.” Those supporting the induction process want to support both genders, indicating a perceived need to attend to the differences in supports regarding assessment, teacher conduct, procedures and regulations and supervision in order to ensure that females feel supported in these areas.

A significant difference was also presented in relation to the type of school and the school organizational plan to support induction. Elementary and K-12 beginning teachers reported significantly better induction school planning support than those in middle/high schools. The
school organization plan to support induction subscale references items related to being informed about the criteria to determine tenure, having a limited number of extra-curricular activities, release time for induction activities, collegiality, and awareness of professional development opportunities. Middle/high school teachers’ perceptions about poor support in these areas imply that more attention should be paid to those who are teaching for the first time in middle/high school environments. Middle/high school beginning teachers in rural schools may be participating excessively in extra-curricular activities, or feeling a lack of collegiality with their colleagues. Such issues can be addressed through the induction process.

Significant differences were also found between the grade level taught demographic and the school organizational plan to support induction, which is reasonable as grade level taught is closely related to the type of school in which the beginning teacher works. Middle/high school grade level teachers perceived lower support than those who taught at the elementary grade levels. This suggests a need to focus specifically on supporting middle/high school teachers more, or at least attend to what might be working with the elementary induction process and apply some of those notions or understandings to middle/high school beginning teachers.

5.2.5 Considering Induction Qualitative Data Themes

The first three opened-ended questions in this survey asked about beginning teachers’ perceptions about their induction experiences. Themes from each open-ended question were organized in Table 5.2 to gain an overall perspective of induction supports.

Staff support and mentorship ranked highest when beginning teachers were asked about the most effective induction support provided. This is aligned with researchers who claim that mentorship plays a key role in an effective induction program (Ferguson & Morihara, 2007; Moir, 2003; Moir & Gless, 2001; Sweeny, 2008). When beginning teachers were asked to
Table 5.2 Qualitative Induction Themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most Effective Induction Supports</th>
<th>Mentorship Supports Experienced</th>
<th>Induction Supports Not Met</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Staff Support/Mentorship</td>
<td>• Assigned Mentor</td>
<td>• Curriculum/Instruction/Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Formal Activities</td>
<td>• Co-workers/ experienced teachers</td>
<td>• Admin Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• PD Opportunities and Support</td>
<td>• Curriculum/Assessment</td>
<td>• Assigned Mentor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Learning Coaches</td>
<td>• Procedures and Protocols</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Admin Support</td>
<td>• Resources</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Themes were generated from open-ended survey questions.

provide their perceptions on the mentorship experience during induction, they expressed that they received support from a mentor and were provided with the opportunity to work with co-workers and other experienced teachers. However, when asked to indicate supports not being provided, beginning teachers noted that they were not being assigned a mentor. Mentorship is valued, provided to some, but not necessarily to all rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers.

As can be seen in Table 5.2, variance exists in the consistency of induction supports. Some beginning teachers reported assistance with curriculum and assessment, whereas others did not receive the necessary support. Administrative support was valued and experienced by some beginning teachers, but missing for others. Themes generated through the qualitative data reinforce the need to maintain and strengthen supports currently being provided, note the voids in areas where supports are not being placed, and direct induction programming toward attending to all induction constructs suggested by rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers.
5.3 Perceptions of the Psychological Contract

Perceptions of the psychological contract were attained through answering the second research question: How do rural beginning teachers perceive and understand the reciprocal elements of the psychological contract with their organizations?

Psychological contracts involve individuals’ beliefs about reciprocal arrangements made between themselves and their organization in which both parties fulfill their obligations (Rousseau, 1995; Schein, 1980). In this study, rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions about their psychological contracts with their organization were analyzed in two specific categories: employer (ER) obligations and employee (EE) obligations. The psychological contract obligations were analyzed within subscales: short term, loyalty, narrow, performance support, development and stability (Rousseau, 2008). In addition, two single item self-report questions were asked to gain beginning teachers’ overall perceptions of ER and EE.

5.3.1 Employer and Employee Obligations

Beginning teachers expressed their perceptions about the employers’ obligation to them and their obligation to the organization through data provided in answering the following questions.

5.3.1.1 What do beginning teachers expect from their organization (ER)? According to Schein (1980), employees have expectations of their organization to fulfill obligations. Employees seek fulfilling work with opportunities for growth and further learning and feedback on how they are doing. The employer obligations subscales provided rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions about the degree to which the employer was fulfilling their obligations. According to the single item self-report question, beginning teachers perceived their employer was generally fulfilling their obligations to the employee ($M = 7.23; SD = 1.69$).
Regarding employer obligations, beginning teachers believed they were receiving low support in three of the subscales (short term, loyalty and narrow; see Figure 4.2). Beginning teachers felt that their organization was providing a long term employment opportunity, however they felt that the employer was not concerned for their welfare or best-interests in decision-making. Rousseau (1995) referred to these aspects of the psychological contract as the relational contract terms, which include the emotional commitment as well as economic exchange (e.g., personal support, concern for family well-being). When the relational contract terms are unfulfilled, employees commit less fully to the organization. Therefore, the current research, along with Rousseau’s work, demonstrates that rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers need to feel more supported in the relational contract area if the goal is to have them feel committed to their organization.

Beginning teachers also felt that the organization required beginning teachers to perform more than the limited set of duties; the job was not limited to specific, well-defined responsibilities. This is aligned with the culture and expectations of today’s education sector, where change and new initiatives are the norm. All teachers, including beginning teachers, are being asked to respond to increasingly more and higher demands (French, 2013). In fact, in response to the rapid pace of change, at the date of this publication, the Saskatchewan Ministry of Education has announced a pause to any curriculum changes pending consultations with teachers, school boards and parents.

With respect to the employer obligation subscales receiving strong support (performance support, development and stability; Ms ≥ 6.77), beginning teachers felt that the organization was supportive in areas pertaining to reaching high levels of performance and meeting increasingly high level goals. When times are volatile within the education sector, induction support for
beginning teachers becomes even more important. The support for addressing the need for high
performance to respond to ongoing change in the sector is perceived as available. Beginning
teachers expressed that they had opportunities for professional development and advancement
within the school organization. Specific qualitative responses to open-ended questions referred
to positive support in the areas of administrative and mentorship support, and professional
development opportunities specifically in the areas of curriculum and assessment. Rousseau
(1995) spoke of the transactional relationship within the psychological contract, which referred
to the monetary, economic items provided by the organization. In this area, beginning teachers
felt secure in their employment, and they felt that the organization provided them with wages and
benefits they could count on for themselves and their families. The current findings support the
notion that rural beginning teachers in Saskatchewan are receiving sufficient support from their
employer in these areas, which might be fostering positive induction/flourishing.

The employer obligation subscales provided general information on beginning teachers’
psychological contracts with their organization. An open-ended question provided additional
information specific to what beginning teachers had expected from their school organizations as
they began their careers. Support had been expected in the following areas: administrative
support, mentorship, professional development opportunities, information on curriculum and
assessment, and clear job expectations. Conversations about these expectations would likely
improve beginning teachers’ commitment to their organization.

5.3.1.2 What do beginning teachers expect to give their organizations (EE)?
According to the single item self-report question, beginning teachers perceived that they were
strongly committed to their organization \((M = 8.56, SD = 1.55)\). When asked what they felt
obligated to give to the organization, beginning teachers felt that they needed to provide a high
degree of loyalty and commitment. They indicated that they would remain with the organization on a long-term basis and that they would perform more than merely the required tasks. Going above and beyond what was required and expected was reflected in the open-ended qualitative data as well. Beginning teachers used words such as “give them my life for the year” and “give them everything,” believing that was expected of a first-year teacher. Beginning teachers stated that they accept increasingly challenging performance standards necessary to fulfill the obligation to the job. They expressed that they would seek out professional development opportunities to improve their skills in order to support students in the classroom. Beginning teachers strongly stated that they did much more than the required tasks, or what they were paid to do. Organ (1988) referred to this concept of commitment as Organizational Commitment Behavior (OCB). OCB refers to any behavior that exceeds the contractual agreement between the employee and employer - that which moves beyond the literal contractual obligations. OCB theory involves the exchange relationship between the employee and employer and refers to ideas of reciprocity and equity. Individuals engage in OCB to the extent that they feel empowered (Bogler & Somech, 2004) and believe that the organization is treating them fairly (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). Both quantitative and qualitative data on employee obligations confirmed that for beginning teachers in this study, OCB is high and they appear wholly committed to their organizations. Through the qualitative data, beginning teachers acknowledged the time commitment required to do the job well, and were willing to support students within the classroom and through extra-curricular involvement. Beginning teachers were prepared to use their knowledge and skills to support students in the classroom. As current data attest, rural Saskatchewan teachers are a committed and motivated group who wish to do their jobs well. In the best interest of the individual teacher, the organization, and ultimately the
students, school organizations have an obligation to provide supports to ensure that beginning teachers are able to maintain their enthusiasm for teaching throughout their careers.

### 5.3.2 Reciprocal Arrangements

Rousseau (1995) described the *psychological contract* as a reciprocal arrangement between the employer and the employee. Beginning teachers in this study believed that the employee and employer relationship was long term, although beginning teachers felt that they committed significantly more than their employers to the length of the relationship. Beginning teachers perceived that they would perform more than the required tasks and that their employer would also require them to perform more than a limited set of duties. A strong positive correlation was noted among *employee* and *employer obligations*, \( r (68) = .48, p < .001 \), sharing 22.8% of the variance in responses. Due to this bidirectional and reciprocal (Rousseau, 1995) relationship, it is likely that increasing one of the party’s perceptions will also increase the others, resulting in greater investment for both. For example, if beginning teachers report that their school organization fulfilled their obligations, they will also report that they fulfilled their obligations to the organization. Conversely, if beginning teachers rate their obligations as being unfulfilled, they will also rate their employers’ obligations as being unfulfilled. Past research, theory (Rousseau, 1995), and the current evidence all support the notion that both parties will benefit from understanding the needs of the other so that energies can be directed in a way that both party’s obligations can be fulfilled.

When the single item self-report *employee* and *employer obligations* questions were considered, beginning teachers felt that they were fulfilling their obligations to their employer more than their employer was reciprocating, however both means were relatively high (see Figure 4.4). Although the means for both *employee* and *employer obligations* in four of the six
sub scales are in the upper range from 5.6 – 8.56, there is reason to consider what might be causing the differences between the employee’s perception of employee and employer commitment. More work is needed in this area, including conversations with employers to ensure that they understand beginning teachers’ expectations. If research aims to further examine the nature of the significant differences between EE and ER obligations, the wide range of means across the different subscales would help focus on potential areas of difference.

5.3.3 Emerging Effect of Demographics on the Psychological Contract

Consideration was given to whether or not the demographic data influenced the psychological contract. Demographic data did not inform employee obligation scores (all ps > .066); however, some differences did exist with respect to employer obligations. With regards to the narrow subscale, those teaching at an elementary school reported significantly stronger support than those teaching in a middle/high school. The narrow subscale refers to the employer training the employee only for specific, well-defined jobs or requiring the employee to perform only a limited number of tasks. Beginning teachers in middle/high schools felt that they were requested to do more than the limited required duties as compared to those in the elementary schools, or at least they were not feeling as supported by their employer in this area. It may be that the tasks required of those in middle/high schools go beyond what is required in the classroom, or there are greater challenges outside of well-defined regular classroom duties. Those teaching in a K-12 school showed no differences compared to the other two groups which may be due to crossover found between elementary and middle/high school in K-12 schools.

On the performance support subscale, those teaching in a K-12 school reported significantly greater support from the organization than those teaching in a middle/high school. The comparison between those teaching in an elementary school and a middle/high school
approached significance. The items in the performance support subscale describe how the employer supports the beginning teacher to attain the highest level of performance and provides assistance in adapting to change—both areas where middle/high school beginning teachers require more support. The data suggests that K-12 and elementary school teachers appear to adapt better to change, and middle/high school teachers should be targeted for improved performance support.

For the development subscale, those teaching in an elementary school reported significantly more employer support than those teaching in a middle/high school. The development subscale items include the employers’ provision for advancement in the organization. K-12 beginning teachers showed no significant difference regarding employer support, but beginning elementary teachers felt that the employer better supported them in career development within the organization.

Overall, it appears that in the narrow, performance support and development subscales, middle/high school beginning teachers require more support from the organization. From the middle/high school teachers’ perspectives the organization was not fulfilling their obligations. Rousseau (1995) described contract violation, where employees feel that their organization has not fulfilled its promises to the employee, and that there is a failure to comply with the terms of the contract. Contract violation erodes trust and undermines the employees’ relationship, yielding lower employee contributions and investments (Rousseau, 1995). The data in this study suggests that there is some degree of violation between middle/high school beginning teachers and the organization. Ensuring strong relationships and frequent interactions exist between beginning teachers and the organization can help reduce experienced violations. Knowing that middle/high school beginning teachers feel less supported in these areas, their organizations can
now aim to improve/strengthen relationships such that beginning teachers are better able to reciprocally commit to their organization.

5.4 Perceptions of Flourishing

Perceptions of flourishing were attained through answering the third research question:

*How do rural beginning teachers perceive their flourishing in schools?*

Rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions about their degree of flourishing (*first day flourishing* and *present day flourishing*) were analyzed through Cantril’s (1965) Ladder (Self-anchoring striving scale). Diener et al.’s (2009b) Flourishing Scale, including eight statements on overall total flourishing, provided a general reflection on an individual’s overall well-being. When describing their degree of flourishing on their first day of teaching, 74% of beginning teachers perceived that they were *struggling* or *suffering*, and only 26% claimed they were *thriving* (see Table 4.4). After one year of teaching, beginning teacher flourishing showed a significantly positive increase with 72% *thriving* and only 28% *struggling* or *suffering*. In addition, when a difference in scores between *present day* and *first day flourishing* was calculated, 82% showed a positive change, 11% showed negative change, and 8% showed no change at all (see Table 4.5). Beginning teachers’ perceptions of their overall *total flourishing* resulted in a high score (*M* = 8.92, *SD* = .876); thus representing beginning teachers as individuals with many psychological resources and strengths who flourish in the working environment. Therefore, because the vast majority of participants fell into the *thriving* zone after one year of teaching, and even more demonstrated personal (individual) growth as measured by the flourishing scale, it is clear that rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers experienced flourishing growth during their first year of teaching.
Comments regarding beginning teachers’ degrees of flourishing were included in the final open-ended question at the end of the survey. Although beginning teachers indicated high degrees of flourishing after one year of teaching, the majority of the participants who provided comments expressed a sense of feeling overwhelmed with the demands placed on those entering the profession. This phenomenon called *transition shock* (Gordon & Maxey, 2000) or *reality shock* (Veenman, 1984), describes where beginning teachers experience the “collapse of the missionary ideals formed during teacher training by the hard and rude reality of everyday classroom life” (Veenman, 1984, p. 143). Beginning teachers are *shocked* into the profession and require support to find a balance between school and home-life. Feiman-Nemser et al. (1999) also reinforced that with limited experience and practical knowledge to draw on, many beginning teachers feel overwhelmed with what is required as a beginning teacher. Regardless of the high *present day flourishing* scores, beginning teachers wanted to share stories of concern regarding their struggles in transitioning into the profession. In addition, however, nine teachers provided comments about their successes, stating that they had an excellent year. One stated that, “After 3 months I found that I was flourishing.”

Further analyses conducted on *first day flourishing*, *present day flourishing* and *flourishing total* revealed a significant main effect of flourishing ($F (2, 128) = 96.75, p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .602$). A linear relationship resulted with *first day flourishing* significantly lower than *present day flourishing* and *flourishing total*, respectively. *First day flourishing* was significantly correlated with *present day flourishing* (6% of variance), but was not correlated with *flourishing total*. *Present day flourishing* and *flourishing total* scores were positively correlated sharing 17% of the variance. This overall pattern of results suggests that how beginning teachers feel about their flourishing on their first day will very minimally or not at all
predict how they will feel about their flourishing following one year of teaching. First day flourishing is not impacting flourishing total, and only shares a very small percentage of the variance (only 6%, which is not practically significant) with present day flourishing. Therefore, it may not be important to examine first day flourishing. Beginning teachers need not feel anxious or overwhelmed on their first day as it is unlikely to relate to how they feel following a year of experience. In addition, someone who experiences a high degree of flourishing on the first day may not feel that way after a year of teaching. Reflecting back on the first day flourishing scores, which appear to be alarming with 74% either struggling or suffering on the first day, the concern for beginning teachers is perhaps less urgent than originally thought.

A reliable relationship (correlation) and reliable difference (t-tests) existed between present day flourishing and flourishing total. The correlation represented 17% shared variance, leaving over 80% total flourishing variance unaccounted for. Therefore future researchers might consider developing a different flourishing scale or creating additional items on Diener et al.’s (2009b) current eight-item flourishing scale to see if additional variance can be explained. The new scale should capture aspects of flourishing in the school environment. For example, rather than stating “People respect me”, the scale might state “People in school respect me.” A larger sample size and perhaps different independent variables (even something other than demographics, such as class size) might also shed light on what is contributing to beginning teacher flourishing.

Beginning teachers progress through various stages of development as they learn to be teachers (Berliner, 1988; Fuller, 1969; Katz, 1972; Lortie, 1975; Moir, 1990). They move through the anticipation, survival, and disillusionment stages, toward rejuvenation and ultimately the reflection stage (Moir, 1990). During the final stage they are self-reflective about what they
have learned and begin to focus less on themselves and more on their students. Various degrees of flourishing and likely different factors influence flourishing at different stages of development, therefore changes in beginning teacher flourishing might be better captured by examining how beginning teachers progress toward flourishing throughout these stages.

5.4.1 Emerging Effect of Demographics on Flourishing

Gender, age, marital status, school attended as a youth, level of education and type of school did not influence flourishing sores ($p > .09$). Factors other than those used in this study must be contributing to beginning teacher flourishing.

5.5 Relationships among Induction, the Psychological Contract and Flourishing

Personal experiences working in schools lead this researcher to believe that there may be some relationship among beginning teacher induction, psychological contract and flourishing in schools. Analyses were conducted to confirm or reject this assumption. Data were attained through answering the third research question: What relationship exists among beginning teachers’ psychological contract, induction support provided and beginning teacher flourishing in schools?

Correlation and hierarchical linear regression analyses were conducted resulting in specific relationships found between (a) employer obligations and induction total, (b) induction total and present flourishing, and (c) employee obligations and flourishing total.

5.5.1 Employer (ER) Obligations and Induction Total

In order for an induction program to be successful there must be a commitment by the organization to support the process (Lovo et al., 2006). In this study, a significant positive relationship was found between employer obligations and induction ($p = .001$), where employer obligations scores explained 14% of the variance in induction total scores. This suggests that
when induction supports are perceived as high, then employer obligations are perceived as fulfilled. Conversely, when employer obligations are perceived fulfilled, induction supports are perceived as being provided. In addition, as induction supports increase or decrease, *employer obligations* will be reflected similarly.

Therefore it is important to ensure that leaders within school organizations understand beginning teachers’ expectations of the organization so that the obligations toward induction continue to be fulfilled. Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) indicated that the individual is the direct source of information when determining the effectiveness of the psychological contract relationships. Conversations with beginning teachers about their needs regarding induction supports will ensure that those responsible for planning induction opportunities are attuned to specific needs. Guest (2004) stated that the workplace is changing. This is no more evident than in the rural schools of the 21st century. Rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers are experiencing rapid change in the classroom, particularly in the field of technology, and school organizations must attend to, and support beginning teachers during times of change. Attending to beginning teacher voices will allow effective induction supports to be provided and beginning teachers to perceive support from their organization. Beginning teachers will then perceive their psychological contracts, both relational and transactional (Rousseau, 1995) as fulfilled.

5.5.2 Induction Total and Present Flourishing

Various researchers have advocated for the importance of an effective induction program to ensure that beginning teachers may reach their potential in our schools (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Moir & Gless, 2001; Wong, 2005). Robbins et al. (1999) suggested we put forth continuous efforts to assist individuals to reach their full potential within the environment where they are functioning. In this study, a correlational relationship did exist between *induction total*
and present flourishing ($p = .048$) with induction scores sharing nearly 8% of the variance in flourishing scores. Although the correlation was determined to be weak, it provides some indication that those who are receiving induction supports are those who are flourishing after one year of teaching, reinforcing the vital importance of providing induction supports to our beginning teachers to ensure their flourishing in schools.

Rural Saskatchewan school divisions are providing some type of induction support for beginning teachers across the province. However, the challenge comes in identifying the specific induction supports that make a significant difference in degrees of flourishing for rural beginning teachers after one year in the profession. Induction constructs attained in this study provide an initial point of discussion.

### 5.5.3 Employee (EE) Obligations and Flourishing Total

Employee obligations to the organization strongly predicted flourishing total ($p = .001$), explaining 15.9% of the variance. This indicates that when beginning teachers feel positively about their own well-being, they tend to describe themselves as flourishing in schools. However, as previously noted, the flourishing total scale measured overall flourishing or well-being, not specifically flourishing in schools. There was no relationship between employee and employer obligations and present flourishing in schools. This suggests that variables other than those measured in the current study are influencing present flourishing and flourishing total scores.

Rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers who perceive a strong commitment to their organization describe themselves as flourishing in our schools. Flourishing teachers are those who demonstrate the energy, health and passion needed to motivate and educate their students (Lauzon, 2003). Those of us who work with beginning teachers can identify both flourishing and non-flourishing beginning teachers in our schools. The data presented in this study guides us
to determine further what specific characteristics exist with respect to flourishing in schools so that organizations can continue to support beginning teachers who are not yet flourishing after one year of teaching.

The overall purpose of the *Understanding and Supporting Rural Saskatchewan Beginning Teachers’ Perceptions of Their Psychological Contracts: A Pathway to Flourishing in Schools* study was to investigate the relationship among rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract with their organizations, the induction supports received, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools. Data support that relationships exist among the concepts and that consideration of beginning teachers’ psychological contracts with their organization and induction supports provided are important to beginning teacher flourishing in schools.

### 5.6 Post-Analysis Conceptual Framework

The original conceptual framework provided for this study was based on the literature around induction, the psychological contract and flourishing (see Figure 2.1). Upon completion of the research on rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions, a revision is presented below. The relevant concepts attained from the research have been included in the new model (see Figure 5.1).

The revised *Pathway to Flourishing* model presents the notion that beginning teachers enter the profession with beliefs about what their organization will provide for them (*employer (ER) obligations*) and what they will give in return (*employee (EE) obligations*). Beginning teachers experience success during their first year of teaching based on how this reciprocal arrangement is fulfilled and the types of induction supports provided. The revised model
Figure 5.1 Post-Research Pathway to Flourishing Conceptual Framework provides the specific constructs of the induction process that rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers deemed as important. They include: administrative support including supervision, procedures and protocols, experienced teacher consultation, collegiality and belonging, resources, professional development opportunities, curriculum and assessment, assigned mentor, extra-curricular involvement, classroom management, and first year meetings. Those in italics are constructs perceived as requiring more supports; the non-italicized constructs are generally perceived as provided by the organization. When the induction process is fulfilled, beginning teachers are likely to report that they are flourishing in schools.
As reflected in the model, beginning teachers in this study also provided information on the importance of the relationship between employee (EE) obligations and flourishing, and employer (ER) obligations and induction. Throughout the journey of attaining flourishing a relationship exists between the employee and flourishing. When beginning teachers identify that they are committed to their organization, they perceive they are flourishing in schools. As well, when employers are fulfilling obligations to beginning teachers, beginning teachers are more fully committed to the organization and perceive that induction supports are being provided. A relationship also exists between beginning teacher induction and flourishing; when induction supports are provided, beginning teachers experience flourishing. Finally, throughout the process, beginning teachers experience personal and professional growth as they progress toward flourishing in schools.

5.7 Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract with their organizations, the induction supports received, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools. Several conclusions can be drawn from the resulting data analysis as presented under the research questions.

5.7.1 Research Question 1: How do rural beginning teachers describe the actual induction supports they are receiving from their organizations?

Rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers perceived a medium degree of support (induction total: $M = 5.64$; induction single item self-report question: $M = 6.39$) in their induction experience. Beginning teachers indicated that they required more support with respect to: having an assigned mentor (at grade level), level of extra-curricular involvement, classroom management supports, and access to first year teacher meetings. They acknowledged receiving:
support from administration including supervision, information on procedures and protocols, opportunities to consult with experienced teachers, support with collegiality and belonging, access to resources, and awareness of professional development opportunities. They noted the importance of having formally planned induction activities with attention provided in the areas of curriculum and assessment. Support from learning coaches was also valued.

This study indicated that there was some difference between beginning teachers’ perceptions of induction as determined by Moussiaux’s (2001) subscales and their overall view of their induction experiences as measured by the single item self-report induction question. Other variables may be contributing to this induction variance. For example, participants in this study valued working with other beginning teachers and this construct, along with others, might be relevant additions to the Moussiaux subscale items.

Various demographics used in this study influenced induction. Specifically, males’ perceptions of the induction process differed from females’ perceptions in the areas of assessment, expectation of conduct, procedures and regulations, and supervision. Type of school influenced induction as elementary and K-12 beginning teachers indicated better support than middle/high school teachers in relation to the criteria for tenure, level of extra-curricular involvement, collegiality, and awareness of professional development opportunities. Grade level taught also influenced induction, as those who taught in middle/high school grades perceived lower induction support than those teaching elementary grades. In general, middle/high school beginning teachers seem to require more support than elementary teachers with respect to induction. Because K-12 teachers span both elementary and middle/high school ranges, support for K-12 teachers may need to encompass both elementary and middle/high school perceived needs.
5.7.2 Research Question 2: How do rural beginning teachers perceive and understand the reciprocal elements of the psychological contract with their organizations?

5.7.2.1 What do beginning teachers expect from their organizations? With respect to the quantitative data accessed from Rousseau’s (2008) instrument, beginning teachers perceived their employer was generally fulfilling their obligations to them as employees. Beginning teachers felt that they were provided with long term employment, but they indicated that they felt the employer had little concern for their welfare or best interests. In addition, beginning teachers perceived that they were requested to perform more than the required duties, and that the job was not limited to specific, well-defined responsibilities. Beginning teachers felt supported in areas pertaining to meeting high level goals and adapting to change. They felt that the organization provided appropriate wages and benefits that they could count on for themselves and their families. Through the qualitative data beginning teachers expressed expectations of the organization when they began their teaching careers including: administrative support, mentorship opportunities, professional development opportunities, information on curriculum and assessment and clear job expectations.

There is evidence to suggest that elementary schools, and in some cases K-12 schools feel better supported by the organization than middle/high schools. This creates a need to determine what is working at the elementary grade levels and elementary schools and apply those understandings to middle/high schools.

5.7.2.2 What do beginning teachers expect to give to their organizations? Beginning teachers perceived that they were strongly committed to their organization. They felt that they were prepared to go above and beyond, as that was required of a first year teacher. They intended to seek out professional development opportunities to improve their teaching abilities.
Comments reinforced their intentions to do the job well both within the classroom and through extra-curricular involvement.

In addition, a strong positive correlation existed between the beginning teachers’ expectations of themselves and their organizations, indicating that if organizations continue to fulfill their obligations to beginning teachers then beginning teachers will remain committed to the organization and their work in schools. In general, beginning teachers perceived that they gave more to the organization than they perceived the organization was giving them in return; however the scores for both were in the higher ranges. The significant difference in scores between beginning teachers’ employee and employer obligations suggests that we may want to consider the specifics as to why these differences exist; however we can be confident in knowing that in most areas, beginning teachers felt that both parties were fulfilling their obligations.

5.7.3 Research Question 3: How do rural beginning teachers perceive their flourishing in schools?

Beginning teachers described a low degree of flourishing as they begin their careers. They voiced feeling overwhelmed with the responsibilities associated with the job, and nearly three quarters of the teachers were determined to be struggling or suffering in their work. After one year in the profession, beginning teachers reported growth. Present day flourishing and overall flourishing total (which measured general feelings of well-being), were both perceived as high. No relationship existed between first day and overall flourishing total, and only a small relationship existed between first day and present day flourishing. Therefore, it appears that first day flourishing need not be a focus when working with beginning teachers. In fact, first day flourishing does not appear to be a good variable to use to understand how to support beginning teachers, and beginning teachers should not be alarmed about the fact that they feel overwhelmed
during the initial stages of their teacher careers. How beginning teachers feel at the beginning of their careers may not impact their degree of flourishing one year later.

5.7.4 Research Question 4: What relationship exists among beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract, induction support provided and beginning teacher flourishing in schools?

When analyses were complete, three specific relationships became evident among induction, the psychological contract and flourishing: employer (ER) obligations and induction total, induction total and present flourishing, and employee (EE) obligations and flourishing total. When beginning teachers perceived organizational obligations as fulfilled, they perceived induction supports as being provided. When induction supports were high, beginning teachers indicated that they were flourishing after one year of teaching. And finally, beginning teachers who felt committed to the organization, perceived themselves as flourishing in schools. The results indicate that fulfilled organizational obligations will result in perceptions of effective induction. In addition, effective induction and engaged, committed beginning teachers results in beginning teacher flourishing after one year of teaching. The message seems conclusive: organizations that strongly support induction will contribute to beginning teacher flourishing. Now the journey begins as those responsible for the induction process within organizations ensure that beginning teachers have the support needed to flourish in schools.

5.8. Implications

5.8.1 Implications for Theory

The results of this study were generally aligned with what researchers are saying about beginning teacher induction process, the psychological contract, and flourishing. Research emphasizes the importance of an effective induction program (Huling-Austin, 1990; Moir &
Gless, 2001; Wong, 2005), the need to consider the employee/employer reciprocal relationship (Rousseau, 1995; Schein, 1980) and the ultimate goal of flourishing or having a sense of well-being in the workplace (Diener & Seligman, 2004; Dunn, 1961; Sackney et al., 2000). The Understanding and Supporting Rural Saskatchewan Beginning Teachers’ Perceptions of Their Psychological Contracts: A Pathway to Flourishing in Schools research is able to supplement the literature with respect to rural Saskatchewan context in four areas:

1. Gender appears to influence induction. Males felt that they were better supported than females in areas of assessment, teacher conduct, school procedures, supervision and connection to the community.

2. Beginning teachers in elementary schools, and to some degree those in K-12 schools perceive better support with respect to the criteria to determine tenure, having a limited number of extra-curricular activities, release time for induction activities, collegiality, and awareness of professional development opportunities than those in middle/high schools. Those who taught middle/high school grades also reported lower induction support than those who taught elementary grades.

3. Psychological contracts that exist between beginning teachers and their organizations influence induction and flourishing. When employers fulfill their obligations to beginning teachers, beginning teachers perceive that they are receiving induction support. When beginning teachers commit to their organizations, beginning teachers flourish in schools. Attending to beginning teachers’ psychological contracts is essential to ensuring that beginning teachers flourish in our schools as flourishing teachers will provide the best possible education for our students.
4. The concept of beginning teacher flourishing in schools is newly emerging. This study provides insights that demonstrate beginning teachers are flourishing after one year of teaching. The results presented in this study provide initial data, but variables contributing to beginning teacher flourishing are yet to be fully determined and understood.

5.8.2 Implications for Practice

The information gathered from this study may influence how those responsible for supporting beginning teachers reflect on induction practices in schools. The study results emphasize the need to support the induction process, as commitment to induction leads to beginning teacher flourishing. Research tells us that the most influential factor in increasing student achievement is an effective teacher in the classroom (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Wong et al., 2005). Therefore an obligation exists to support our beginning teachers to ensure their professional growth and ultimately their flourishing in schools. Implications for improved practice are offered in the following areas:

1. Quantitative and qualitative data generated in this study provided induction constructs valued by beginning teachers as part of the induction process. Induction should be supported at the school level and throughout the organization in the prioritized areas of: administrative support including supervision, procedures and protocols, experienced teacher consultation, collegiality and belonging, resources, professional development opportunities, curriculum and assessment, assigned mentor, extracurricular involvement, classroom management, and first year meetings. School-based administrators who work with beginning teachers are able to provide induction supports. Based on this current research, administrators should exercise their ability
to determine, and reduce if necessary, beginning teachers’ level of extra-curricular involvement. More information on procedures and protocols can be provided regarding attaining tenure so that teachers have a clear understanding of the tenure process and how the organization determines such decisions. In addition, administrators can provide information on benefits, how to complete paperwork, and a clear understanding of how the organization works.

2. Organizations need to attend to the differences between genders when developing induction practices. This study provides information that suggests that males and females have different perceptions about the induction process. Conversations held with males may need less focus on assessment and grading, expectations of teacher conduct, general school procedures and regulations, the supervisory process, and community relationships as compared to females. Those responsible for induction including senior administration and school-based administrators have opportunities to work with individual beginning teachers, and based on gender, different supports may be required.

3. Information garnered in this study suggests that some supports are better provided for elementary or K-12 beginning teachers than for those in the middle/high schools with respect to induction and the psychological contract. More intensive supports are required for middle/high school beginning teachers.

4. Within individual rural Saskatchewan school divisions, senior administration should take the time to attend to the thoughts and perceptions of beginning teachers working in their schools. Conversations around a table, or anonymous survey data, would supplement the induction supports already in place in schools. Clear policy on
induction is necessary to ensure that beginning teachers’ voices are heard and that supports are provided.

5. This research indicates that beginning teacher flourishing on the first day of teaching is significantly different from flourishing after one year of teaching. In addition, little to no correlations exist between first day and present day or total flourishing. This finding leads to an alternate way of thinking with regards to working with beginning teachers. The new message appears to be: *How you feel during the first days of teaching will likely not impact your overall flourishing one year into the profession.* This allows those working with beginning teachers to be able to assure beginning teachers that the apprehensions felt at the beginning of the year may not be experienced after one year in the profession.

5.8.2 Implications for Future Research

This study accessed information in the areas of beginning teacher induction, the psychological contract and flourishing and the relationship among the three concepts. Future researchers may consider studying the following:

Induction:

1. Analyses demonstrated that a single item self-report induction question was significantly higher than the induction subscales and total induction scores. However, correlational results showed that the construct of induction was being measured as intended. Future exploratory research may help us to understand which other constructs are contributing to rural beginning teachers’ perceptions of induction support, besides those used in Moussiaux’s (2001) instrument. For example, rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers emphasized the importance of peer mentorship; an
item not included in Moussiaux’s subscales. In addition, the participants in this study emphasized the need for more information on procedures and protocols. Moussiaux’s subscales might be supplemented and adapted for use in rural Saskatchewan schools.

2. Further research may provide insights into the role of the Internet and technology in supporting rural Saskatchewan beginning teachers. Contrary to the literature, beginning teachers in this survey indicated that they were provided with the necessary resources. One might speculate that beginning teachers are accessing some resources through the use of technology to compensate for geographical distance within the rural setting. In order to maintain equity for both teachers and students in diverse rural locations, technology is likely to play a vital role.

3. Further research might be needed to determine when or why differing degrees of induction information is provided to beginning teachers at different types of schools. If the goal is to have all beginning teachers describe a positive induction process, then the differences based on school location need to be identified and leveled out. Middle/high school beginning teachers should have induction opportunities equitable to those in elementary and K-12 schools.

4. Future research in the area of induction might be conducted with those who were unsuccessful in their first year. Research might best be suited for a case study or phenomenological approach where beginning teachers who struggled during their first year have an opportunity to share their personal stories about their induction experiences.
Psychological Contract:

1. This study determined that aspects of the psychological contract that beginning teachers held with their organization influenced both induction and flourishing. Further study might provide details regarding those reciprocal obligations which are specific to the beginning teacher-school organization relationship, including perceived differences between elementary, K-12 and middle/high school beginning teachers.

Flourishing:

1. This study presented data showing that a reliable relationship and a reliable difference exists between beginning teachers’ perceptions of present day flourishing (Cantril’s Ladder) and total flourishing (Diener et al.’s 8-item scale). Future research would provide opportunity to gain greater insights into what might be contributing to the unexplained variance. A different total flourishing scale, different demographics, or a larger power might help explain the unique variance and identify strong, significant predictors of beginning teacher flourishing specifically.

2. Future research could examine beginning teachers’ degrees of flourishing in stages. This study made observations on the first day of teaching and one year into the experience. Another study could look at the stages of beginning teacher development, as outlined by Moir (1990) and collect flourishing data, perhaps monthly throughout the first year of teaching in order to observe when flourishing increased throughout the year. This might provide insight on how and when supports could be provided during the first year of teaching.
Relationships Among Induction, Psychological Contract and Flourishing:

1. Further research is needed with a larger power to more specifically determine the relationship between induction and flourishing as scores in this study shared only a small percentage of the variance.

2. Researchers may consider implementing this survey with beginning teachers at First Nation Schools and urban center schools in Saskatchewan; those who were not a part of this sample.

3. Different demographics might also be studied to determine what constructs contribute to beginning teacher induction, the psychological contract and flourishing. Further research into how gender and type of school/grade level taught influence induction, psychological contract and flourishing may also be warranted.

5.9 Post Script: Researcher Reflection

This has been an amazing journey. As a novice researcher, I was apprehensive about my ability to successfully complete this venture; however I have grown in knowledge, in confidence, and in understanding my own capacity as I gathered and analyzed both quantitative and qualitative data. No one truly understands the requirements of completing a doctoral dissertation until you have experienced it! An astute Director of Education once said that being a school-based administrator is experiential; no one else can possibly understand the journey until they have occupied the administrator’s chair. The administrator analogy can certainly be paralleled to the doctoral experience. To this day, when I see someone who is working towards attaining their PhD, I will understand their sometimes ragged, sleep-deprived appearance, and truly admire their determination and fortitude.
5.9.1 Methodological Reflection

I recall a presentation in an early doctoral research class when my research methodology professor, Dr. Vivian Hajnal suggested that I might want to look at a mixed methods approach to my research. At that time I was quite certain that I wanted to implement a quantitative study in order to gather information from a large sample of beginning teachers from across rural Saskatchewan. However, upon reflection, I chose to also access qualitative data within the survey as well. This data became valuable as the voices of the beginning teachers gave life to the numbers. As the themes began to emerge I was able to see not only what the numbers were revealing, but also was able to understand the personal perspectives of the participants. Phrases such as “give my life” to the profession certainly amplified a number on the Likert scale.

Mixed methods research moves beyond the quantitative versus qualitative research arguments because both are important and useful. The goal of mixed methods is not to replace one with the other, but rather to draw from the strengths and minimize the weakness of both in a single research study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This study incorporated the best of both research paradigms. The challenge for me in completing this research was in determining how to link the two data sources and interpret and integrate data into the results and discussion. In this study, the qualitative data was used to supplement or amplify the quantitative data; to give life or personal meaning to the numbers, so the qualitative data was positioned following the quantitative data. Using both forms of data allowed the information to be closer to actual practice where we often quantify our work and then look for more information through comments from the individuals involved. Both quantitative and qualitative researchers seek to describe their data, construct explanatory arguments from their data, and speculate about why the outcomes they observed happened as they did (Sechrest & Sidani, 1995) and that was the purpose of this
Therefore mixed methods research proved to be a logical and productive choice in methodology. I contend, along with Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) that as pragmatists, research methodologists need to identify when each research approach is most valuable and helpful for the purpose of the study and when and how each should be combined in their research studies.

5.9.2 Personal Reflection

For the past 31 years I have been involved in education as a classroom teacher, administrator and now Superintendent of Education. My work as a Superintendent of Education has been strongly influenced by completing this study. I now approach tasks through a different lens.

5.9.2.1 Of balloons and bicycles. Upon entering the doctoral program, a wise and experienced professor, Dr. Keith Walker, talked to me about the need to connect the why of the work that we do with the how we do it. He proceeded to draw a diagram analogy of a bicyclist holding onto a balloon similar to the one shown in the picture below (see Figure 5.2). He explained that in attaining the Doctorate of Philosophy I should not lose sight of the practice, but that I needed to connect to the why of what education is all about.

Figure 5.2 Of Balloons and Bicycles Analogy
This theory comes from the work of Jonsen (1991), who used the balloon and bicycle image as a simile for the relationship between theory and practical judgment: the bicycle is the practical judgment and the balloon is like ethical theory. The theory gives the big picture about beliefs, attitudes and behaviours with some of the big ideas from philosophers such as Plato, Aristotle, Kant, and Rawls. From the balloon, one gets a wide view of the landscape, whereas from the bicycle one only sees the bumpy road ahead. Practical judgment of the bicyclist is surrounded by circumstances, whereas the balloonist’s theory is free of them. From the balloonist’s view he is able to guide the bicyclist and to warn about what is to come. This communication between balloonist and bicyclist need only be occasional and sporadic; however the bicyclist may need the balloonist when the decision is new or without precedent. Practical judgment is like a bike ride through familiar terrain, where concepts and ideas are built on previous knowledge. Jonsen (1991) stated:

“We need to take the balloon ride, or at least, see the balloons in the air. The balloon can give us orientation of mind and exhilaration of moral imagination. However, we are not tethered to the balloon: we do not need it for moment to moment directions through practical ethical problems. The balloon is an occasional extravagance. The bicycle is daily transportation and exercise” (p. 16).

So, what is to be learned from this analogy? For those of us working in the field, we are bicyclists. We are responsible for providing supports to ensure beginning teachers’ pathway to flourishing, however we must not lose sight of the balloon and of the importance that theory and research plays in guiding how we plan for induction within our organizations. I continue to ride the bicycle of practice as I work with beginning teachers in schools; however I now also view the world from the balloonist’s perspective. Whenever there is a bump in the road, I look to the bigger picture and try to determine the why for the problem and seek to find the solution.
5.9.2.2 Considering the diversity of rural schools. Many rural Saskatchewan school divisions are very diverse geographically and different beginning teachers work in a variety of positions in schools of varying sizes. Some schools have only one teacher working in a one-room school environment, while others work on staffs of over 40 individuals. The challenge of providing induction support to beginning teachers is great. This study emphasizes the importance of attending to induction and also notes the importance of establishing relationships between beginning teachers and members of their organizations. It is important that the organization fulfills its obligations to beginning teachers so that they are able to experience flourishing. We need to think about what the beginning teacher intends to offer to our organizations and ensure that their expectations of us are fulfilled. In doing so, we will be able to improve the work that we do. Beginning teachers will flourish in our schools and our students will succeed.
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Appendix A

Letter of Invitation to Consent to Participate

Dear Director of Education,

My name is Tracy Dollansky, and in addition to being a Superintendent of Education for Sun West School Division, I am currently a doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Saskatchewan. As partial requirement for my dissertation I am completing a study in the area of beginning teacher flourishing in schools. The title of my study is **Understanding and Supporting Rural Saskatchewan Beginning Teachers’ Perceptions of Their Psychological Contracts: A Pathway to Flourishing in Schools**. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship among beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contracts with their organizations, the induction supports received, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools.

I am seeking your assistance. I would like to invite your rural beginning teachers (those who completed their first year of teaching in 2012-2013) to participate in this study by completing an online survey (*Supporting the Psychological Contract toward Flourishing*). The survey contains questions regarding their perceptions of their psychological contracts with your school division, the induction supports they received, and their degree of flourishing in your schools.

For the purposes of this study, please note that only beginning teachers from your *rural* (non-city) schools should be included. Also, beginning teachers are defined as any teachers new to the profession who have completed their first year of teaching. They will be the teachers beginning their second year of teaching in your division. Teachers who have taught before in another location will not be included in this study.

The online survey will take your rural beginning teachers approximately 20 minutes to complete.

As an incentive for participating in this study, a prize will be offered to the beginning teachers. Beginning teachers wishing to participate will be invited to submit their email address to be entered in a draw for a Kobo E-Reader. Email addresses will not be associated with the data, and all email addresses will be destroyed after the draw is made.

The information attained from this study will benefit your school division, your colleagues, as well as your teachers in determining important factors contributing to beginning teacher flourishing in schools. There are no known risks to your beginning teachers if they participate in this research study.

If you wish to allow your beginning teachers in your rural schools, then I would ask that you respond to this email, acknowledging your consent to participate. An additional email with the survey link will be sent to you in early September, to be forwarded to your beginning teachers on September 15, 2013 for completion.
If you have any questions or concerns about this study, I can be contacted by e-mail at tdd118@mail.usask.ca or by phone (306-948-6599). You may also contact my advisor, Dr. Michelle Prytula at michelle.prytula@usask.ca.

Thank you so much for allowing your beginning teachers to participate in this study. Results will be made available to you upon the completion of the research in early spring of 2014.

Once again, please email me your consent for participation at your earliest convenience.

Sincerely,

Tracy Dollansky  
Doctoral Candidate  
Educational Administration  
University of Saskatchewan  

Email: tdd118@mail.usask.ca  
Phone: 306-948-6599
Appendix B

Online Survey Information Letter for Participants

Dear Beginning Teacher:

My name is Tracy Dollansky and I am a doctoral student from the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Saskatchewan. As partial requirement for my dissertation I am completing a study in the area of beginning teacher flourishing in schools. The title of my study is *Understanding and Supporting Rural Saskatchewan Beginning Teachers’ Perceptions of Their Psychological Contracts: A Pathway to Flourishing in Schools.*

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship among beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract with their organizations, the induction supports received, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools.

I am asking for your help. I would like to invite you to participate in this study by completing an online survey entitled *Supporting the Psychological Contract toward Flourishing* (see attached survey link). The survey contains questions in the following areas:

I. Beginning Teacher Induction
II. Beginning Teacher Psychological Contract
III. Beginning Teacher Flourishing
IV. Demographic Information
V. Additional Comments

This information may benefit yourself, your colleagues, as well as your school organization in determining important factors contributing to beginning teacher flourishing in schools. There are no known risks of this research study.

The online survey will take approximately **20 minutes** to complete.

As an incentive for participating in this study, you are invited to enter a draw for a Kobo E-Reader. If you wish to participate in the draw, please submit your email address at the end of the survey. Email addresses will not be associated with the data, and all email addresses will be deleted after the draw is made.

The information gathered from beginning teachers who participate in this study may be used for presentations at conferences, professional venues, and scientific publications. The confidentiality of all information gathered from participants will be ensured. All responses obtained from you will remain confidential. Data from this study will be kept for at least five years in a secure location. Participation is completely voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time.

If you choose to withdraw from this study, we ask that you contact me, Tracy Dollansky, or my advisor, Dr. Michelle Prytula (michelle.prytula@usask.ca). If you choose to withdraw, the data
you provided will be removed from analysis and destroyed. Withdrawal from this study will not result in any sort of penalty.

Your cooperation in completing this survey would be greatly appreciated. If you are interested in participating, please follow the link below and submit the online survey. By submitting your completed survey, you are acknowledging that you have read and consented to participate in this study.

This research has been granted approval by the Office of Research Services at the University of Saskatchewan on (insert date). Any questions regarding your rights as a participant may be addressed to the Ethics Office (966-2084). Out of town participants may call this office collect.

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, I can be contacted by e-mail at tdd118@mail.usask.ca or by phone (306-948-6599). If after participating in this study you are interested in the results, a brief executive summary will be available upon request in the spring of 2014.

Thank you, in advance, for your consideration and cooperation in participating in this study.

Tracy Dollansky

--------------------------------------INSERT SURVEY LINK HERE--------------------------------------
Appendix C

Supporting the Psychological Contract toward Flourishing (SPCF) Survey

Dear Beginning Teacher:

My name is Tracy Dollansky and I am a doctoral student from the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Saskatchewan.

You were recently invited to complete my study entitled: Understanding and Supporting Rural Saskatchewan Beginning Teachers’ Perceptions of Their Psychological Contracts: A Pathway to Flourishing in Schools. You may recall that the purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship among beginning teachers’ perceptions of their psychological contract with their organizations, the induction supports received, and beginning teacher flourishing in schools.

The survey contains questions in the following five areas and should take no longer than 20 minutes to complete:

- Beginning Teacher Induction
- Beginning Teacher Psychological Contract
- Beginning Teacher Flourishing
- Demographic Information
- Additional Comments

As an incentive for participating in this study, you are invited to enter a draw for a Kobo E-Reader. If you wish to participate in the draw, please submit your email address at the end of the survey. Email addresses will not be associated with the data, and all email addresses will be deleted after the draw is made.

Your cooperation in completing this survey would be greatly appreciated. If you are interested in participating, please answer the following questions and submit the online survey. By submitting your completed survey, you are acknowledging that you have read the invitation email and have consented to participate in this study.

This research has been granted approval by the Office of Research Services at the University of Saskatchewan (April 12, 2013; Beh REB# 13-116).

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, I can be contacted by e-mail at tdd118@mail.usask.ca or by phone (306-948-6599).

If after participating in this study you are interested in the results, a brief executive summary will be available upon request in the spring of 2014.

Thank you, in advance, for your consideration and cooperation in participating in this study.

Tracy Dollansky
**Part I: Beginning Teacher Induction (1/4)**

Using the 0 - 10 scale, please indicate how accurate each statement is in reference to your beginning teacher induction experience.

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<td>1. I met with my school Principal prior to beginning the school year.</td>
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<td>2. Orientation included meeting on the school procedures and policies.</td>
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<td>3. I was assigned a teacher mentor to work with me.</td>
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<td>4. There were meetings with beginning teachers to discuss improvement and instructional concerns.</td>
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<td>5. I attended workshops/seminars on classroom management.</td>
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<td>6. My school organization supported collegiality.</td>
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<td>7. The school division offers me technical assistance.</td>
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<td>8. I visited with school faculty prior to beginning the school year.</td>
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<td>9. Printed materials dealing with school regulations were explained to me.</td>
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<td>10. I was given opportunity to consult with experienced teachers.</td>
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Part I: Beginning Teacher Induction (2/4)

Using the 0 - 10 scale, please indicate how accurate each statement is in reference to your beginning teacher induction experience (supports provided to you during your first year of teaching).

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<td>11. I attended meetings to discuss and develop curriculum.</td>
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<td>12. I was made aware of professional development opportunities.</td>
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<td>13. I was introduced to the school community.</td>
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<td>14. I have had formal observations with feedback.</td>
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<td>15. I was given in-class assistance by experienced teachers.</td>
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<td>16. I was given assistance with classroom management and student discipline.</td>
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<td>17. Release time was built into the program for induction activities and opportunities.</td>
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<td>18. Our school division's induction program is supported by the school's administration.</td>
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<td>19. I had meetings with my Principal and mentor to schedule observation times.</td>
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<td>20. Support was given to me to find and use appropriate and innovative instruction materials.</td>
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</table>
Part I: Beginning Teacher Induction (3/4)

Using the 0 - 10 scale, please indicate how accurate each statement is in reference to your beginning teacher induction experience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
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<tr>
<td>21. I observed lessons demonstrated by experienced teachers.</td>
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<td>22. My concerns were considered for inservice needs and professional development.</td>
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<td>23. I was assigned a teacher mentor at my grade level.</td>
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<td>24. Report cards and grading were explained to me.</td>
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<td>25. The Principal visited my classroom.</td>
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<td>26. I worked with my mentor on lesson plans and materials for instruction.</td>
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<td>27. Induction activities were selected and targeted toward specific goals.</td>
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<td>28. I received printed materials on school regulations/protocols prior to the beginning of the school year.</td>
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<td>29. Supervision was organized, consistent, and continuous.</td>
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<td>30. Resource materials were identified or me in my new school.</td>
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Part I: Beginning Teacher Induction (4/4)

Using the 0 - 10 scale, please indicate how accurate each statement is in reference to your beginning teacher induction experience.

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<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
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<td>31. I was informed about the evaluation criteria and process to determine tenure.</td>
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<td>32. My Principal explained his/her expectations and norms of teacher conduct.</td>
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<td>33. My Principal talked with me about instructional matters.</td>
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<td>34. I was assigned a limited number of extra-curricular activities.</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Induction Support during first year of teaching</th>
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<td>No Support</td>
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<td>Excellent Support</td>
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35. On the following scale of 0 - 10 how would you rate the induction support you received during your first year of teaching?
Part II: Beginning Teacher Psychological Contract: Employee Commitment

Part II: Employee Commitment (1/2)

Using the 0-10 scale, please indicate how accurate each statement is in reference to your commitment to your school division (this includes your school, Principal, colleagues, parents, etc.).

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<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Scale</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I make personal sacrifices for my school division.</td>
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<td>2. I perform only required tasks.</td>
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<td>3. I accept increasingly challenging teaching performance standards.</td>
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<td>4. I seek out professional development opportunities that enhance my value to my school division.</td>
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<td>5. I have no future obligations to my school division.</td>
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<td>6. I do only what I am paid to do.</td>
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<td>7. I adjust to changing teaching performance demands because they are necessary for my school division.</td>
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<td>8. I build skills to increase my value to my school division/school.</td>
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<td>9. I plan to stay with this school division for a long time.</td>
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<td>10. I may leave this job at any time I choose.</td>
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**Part II: Employee Commitment (2/2)**

Using the 0-10 scale, please indicate how accurate each statement is in reference to your commitment to your school division (this includes your school, Principal, colleagues, parents, etc.).

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<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
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<tr>
<td>11. I fulfill a limited number of responsibilities.</td>
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<td>12. I will continue to work here.</td>
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<td>13. I am under no obligation to remain with this school division.</td>
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<td>14. I commit myself personally to this school division/school.</td>
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<td>15. I accept new and different teaching performance demands.</td>
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<td>16. I actively seek internal opportunities for training and professional development.</td>
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<td>17. I make no plans to work anywhere else.</td>
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</table>
**Part II: Beginning Teacher Psychological Contract: Employer Commitment**

**Part II: Employer Commitment (1/2)**

Using the 0-10 scale, please indicate how accurate each statement is in reference to your school division/school's commitment to you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I will have a job only as long as this school division needs me.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. My school division has concern for my personal welfare.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. My school division supports me to attain the highest possible levels of performance.</td>
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<td>4. There is opportunity for career development within this school division.</td>
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<td>5. Secure employment is provided by my school division.</td>
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<td>6. My school division is responsive to my personal concerns and well-being.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. My school division trains me only for my current job.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. There are professional development opportunities with this school division.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. I have wages and benefits I can count on.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. My school division provides short-term employment.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
**Part II: Employer Commitment (2/2)**

Using the 0-10 scale, please indicate how accurate each statement is in reference to your school division/school's commitment to you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11. My school division makes decisions with my interests in mind.</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. My school division provides a job limited to specific, well-defined responsibilities.</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
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<td>o</td>
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<td>o</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. My school division supports me in meeting increasingly higher goals.</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. My school division provides for advancement within the organization.</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. My school division provides a job for a short time only.</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. My school division is concerned for my long-term well-being.</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
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<td>o</td>
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<tr>
<td>17. My school division requires me to perform only a limited set of duties.</td>
<td>o</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. My school division enables me to adjust to new, challenging performance requirements.</td>
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<td>o</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. There are opportunities for promotion in my school division.</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
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<tr>
<td>20. There are stable benefits for employees' families in my school division.</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Part III: Psychological Contract Fulfillment (1/1)

1. On the following scale of 0 - 10, to what degree did your organization fulfill your expectations during your first year of teaching?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| Not At All To A Great Extent
| o | o | o | o | o | o | o | o | o | o |

2. On the following scale of 0 - 10, to what degree did you fulfill your commitment to your organization during your first year of teaching?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Not At All To A Great Extent
| o | o | o | o | o | o | o | o | o | o |
**Part III: Beginning Teacher Flourishing**

This section of the survey asks you to evaluate your degree of flourishing in your school division/school.

**Part III: Flourishing Scale (1/1)**

Below are eight statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the 0 - 10 scale, please indicate how accurate each statement is in reference to your flourishing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>7</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I lead a purposeful and meaningful life.</td>
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<td>2. My social relationships are supportive and rewarding.</td>
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<td>3. I am engaged and interested in my daily activities.</td>
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<td>4. I actively contribute to the happiness and well-being of others.</td>
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<td>5. I am competent and capable in the activities that are important to me.</td>
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<td>6. I am a good person and live a good life.</td>
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<td>7. I am optimistic about my future.</td>
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<td>8. People respect me.</td>
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</table>
Part III: Flourishing Ladder (1/1)

Try to imagine a ladder with steps numbered from 0 at the bottom to 10 at the top. The top of the ladder represents the best possible school life (flourishing) and the bottom of the ladder represents the worst possible school life.

1. On which scale of the ladder would you say you stood back on your first day of teaching?

   ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○

   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

   Worst                                Flourishing

   Life

2. On which scale of the ladder would you say you personally feel you stand at this time-after one year of teaching?

   ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○

   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

   Worst                                Flourishing

   Life
Part IV: Demographics (1/1)

1. What is your age (in years)?


2. Choose one.

   o Male
   o Female

3. What was your marital status during your first year (2012 - 2013) of teaching?

   o Single
   o Common law
   o Married
   o Other, please specify... ______________________

4. From the list below, check all those who lived with you during your first year (2012 - 2013) of teaching.

   o None
   o Child(ren)
   o Roommate(s)
   o Spouse
   o Other, please specify... ______________________

5. Where did you attend school as a child/youth?

   o Rural School
   o Urban School
   o Band School
   o Home-Schooled
   o Other, please specify... ______________________
6. Levels of education attained (choose all that apply):

- Bachelor of Education
- Other Bachelor's degree(s)
- Master's Degree
- PhD

7. In what type of school did you teach during your first year (2012-2013)?

- Elementary (describe grade combination; e.g., K - 6) ______________________
- Middle level (describe grade combination; e.g., 6 - 9) ______________________
- High school (describe grade combination; e.g., 10 - 12) ______________________
- K - 12 School
- Itinerant Teacher (i.e., work at more than one school)

8. What was the main grade level you taught during your first year of teaching?

- Elementary (PreK - Grade 5; specify main grade level) _________________
- Middle level (Grade 6-9; specify main grade level) _________________
- High School (Grade 10-12; specify main grade level) _________________

9. What was the main subject area you taught during your first year of teaching?

- Elementary subjects
- Middle level subjects
- Sciences
- Social/History
- English Language Arts (ELA)
- Mathematics
- Fine Arts
- Physical Education
- Practical and Applied Arts (PAA)
Other, please specify... ______________________

10. Is teaching your first career?
   - Yes
   - No (please explain) ______________________

Part V: Additional Comments (1/1)

1. Please describe the most effective induction support(s) you received over the past year.

2. Please describe any mentorship support that you experienced during your induction process.

3. Please describe any needs that were not met during the induction process over the past year.

4. Thinking back to when you began your teaching career, what supports had you expected from your organization?

5. Thinking back to when you began your teaching career, what had you expected to give to your organization?

6. Please describe any additional information or experiences that you would like to share regarding your first year teaching experience (including the topics of beginning teacher induction, psychological contract or flourishing).

7. Please submit your email address if you wish to be included in the draw for a Kobo E-Reader

Thanks so much for participating in this study! Happy teaching!

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Appendix D

Congratulations Email for Incentive Draw

Date

Congratulations!

Beginning teachers who completed the online survey Supporting the Psychological Contract toward Flourishing were entered into a draw for a Kobo E-Reader. You were the lucky winner!

The prize will be mailed to your school division office, where you can go to pick it up.

Thanks for participating in the survey.

Best of luck as you continue your teaching career!

Sincerely,

Tracy Dollansky
Doctoral Candidate
Educational Administration
University of Saskatchewan